
**THE GPL MEETS THE UCC: DOES FREE
SOFTWARE COME WITH A WARRANTY
OF NO INFRINGEMENT?**

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I. Introduction

The GNU General Public License, known as the GPL, is the cornerstone of free software.¹ The GPL has served as the organizing document for free software, providing a structure that has helped transformed the development of software and electronic devices.² Software licensed under the GPL may be freely copied and adapted.³ The source code for the software is made available, to enable anyone to study and change it.⁴ The GPL does have “copyleft” restrictions, intended to keep the software free for others.⁵ If someone adapts and redistributes GPL’d software, they must likewise allow access to their

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¹ See RICHARD STALLMAN, *The GNU Project*, in FREE SOFTWARE FREE SOCIETY: SELECTED ESSAYS OF RICHARD M. STALLMAN 12 (Joshua Gay ed., 2002) (discussing how the ubiquity of free software is largely dependent on the GPL); MICHAEL RUSTAD, *SOFTWARE LICENSING: PRINCIPLES & PRACTICAL STRATEGIES* 355 (Oxford University Press 2d ed. 2013) (declaring General Public License as one of the four most widely used open source licenses). See also OPEN SOURCES: VOICES FROM THE OPEN SOURCE REVOLUTION (Chris DiBona et al. eds., 1999) (providing information on GNU General Public License through a collection of essays on free and open source software).

² See *GNU General Public License*, GNU (June 29, 2007), archived at <http://perma.cc/5BJC-WTU4> (highlighting that the GPL is a free copyleft license for software and other kinds of works).

³ See Stephen M. McJohn, *The Paradoxes of Free Software*, 9 GEO. MASON L. REV. 25, 58 (2000) (explaining capabilities of open source software which has little to no restrictions on its use).

⁴ See *id.* (articulating that holders of a copy have access to the source code with the ability to make changes).

⁵ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (guaranteeing freedom to share and change software programs unlike other licenses); Robert W. Gomulkiewicz, *General Public License 3.0: Hacking the Free Software Movement's Constitution*, 42 HOUS. L. REV. 1015, 1022 (2005) (illustrating how hackers have software freedoms through what is known as copyleft); Greg Vetter, *Exit and Voice in Free and Open Source Software Licensing: Moderating the Rein over Software Users*, 85 OR. L. REV. 183, 196 (2006) (stating that companies who use GPL protected software and have not provided the source code are considered to violate GPL software freedom conditions).

source code.⁶ The software is free, in the sense that there are no restrictions on adapting and redistributing it, even if copies are sold.⁷ A GPL'd program typically includes the following clause:

This program is distributed in the hope that it will be useful, but WITHOUT ANY WARRANTY; without even the implied warranty of MERCHANTABILITY or FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE.⁸

The clause may not be quite accurate.⁹ The licensor makes no warranty of quality that the software will work.¹⁰ But, due to idiosyncrasies of the Uniform Commercial Code, someone who sells software under the GPL may – unknowingly – make a warranty of noninfringement, promising that use of the software does not infringe any patents, copyrights or other third party rights.¹¹ In other words, someone who sells software under the GPL might be liable for damages, if the buyer were sued by a third party claiming patent or copyright infringement.¹² In today's climate of wide-ranging software patent and copyright enforcement, that could be a substantial risk.

This paper has two goals. The first is specific: to analyze whether the GPL excludes the warranty of noninfringement. The GPL covers many millions of pieces of software.¹³ There is a pletho-

⁶ See Vetter, *supra* note 5, at 214-15 (describing how the license facilitates the redistribution of the code).

⁷ See Vetter, *supra* note 5, at 202 (suggesting source codes should remain to be free and open for continued redistribution).

⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (stating the rules for the GNU General Public License).

⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (declaring the terms of the GNU General Public License); Bennett M. Sigmond, *Free/Open Source Software Licensing – Too Big to Ignore*, 34- COLO. LAW 89, 94 (Dec. 2005) (explaining that the enforceability of licenses seeking to disclaim warranties is on a case by case basis).

¹⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (referring to GPL's disclaimer of warranty when not otherwise stated in writing).

¹¹ See Sigmond, *supra* note 9, at 94-95 (discussing discrepancy over the sale of goods between Uniform Commercial Code and GPL's warranties).

¹² See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (referring to third party liability in regards to damages).

¹³ See Greg R. Vetter, *"Infectious" Open Source Software: Spreading Incentives or Promoting Resistance?*, 36 RUTGERS L.J. 53, 59 (2004) (stating that GPL is "the most widely adopted open software license").

ra of broad software patents.¹⁴ Because software patents are often drafted in abstract terms, a patent developed in one area of technology may be read to apply broadly to software used in entirely different applications.¹⁵ Many software patent holders seek to enforce them, whether for licensing revenue or strategic advantage.¹⁶ Software copyright claims pose a smaller but still substantial hazard.¹⁷ If someone distributing software under the GPL has, albeit unknowingly, promised that the software does not infringe third party rights, they could face a considerable risk.¹⁸ This paper works through the relevant legal code, assesses the risk to developers, and suggests practical ways to reduce the risk.

The paper's broader goal is to analyze how courts may apply commercial law to the GPL. Court cases involving the GPL have been few but may well increase in number, as the GPL covers more commercial products.¹⁹ For example, the GPL covers key software

¹⁴ See, e.g., Julie E. Cohen & Mark A. Lemley, *Patent Scope and Innovation in the Software Industry*, 89 CALIF. L. REV. 1, 14 (2001) (describing the large number of software patents, and suggesting that they are "accorded unprecedented breadth"). For a broad view of the increasing threat of patent liability, see Marshall Leaffer, *Patent Misuse And Innovation*, 10 J. HIGH TECH. L. 142, 144 (2010) (stating that an increasing number of companies, both large and small, are "strategically us[ing] patent litigation as a means to protect their competitive position").

¹⁵ See Stephen McJohn, *Scary Patents*, 7 NW. J. TECH. & INTELL. PROP. 343, 2 (2009) (citing JAMES BESSEN & MICHAEL J. MEURER, *PATENT FAILURE: HOW JUDGES, BUREAUCRATS, AND LAWYERS PUT INNOVATORS AT RISK* 199, 256 (2008)) (stating that software patents often have abstract patent claims that are unclear about what technology they cover).

¹⁶ See, e.g., Chase A. Marshall, *A Comparative Analysis: Current Solutions to the Anticommons Threat*, 12 J. HIGH TECH. L. 487, 489 (2012) (outlining various problems that patents pose to biotechnology that "appear to hinder, rather than promote, the innovation and public benefit" the field seeks to provide). Patents likewise present a threat to other open knowledge systems, such as biotechnology. *Id.*

¹⁷ See *Copyright Software v. Patenting Software*, HARV. UNIV. OFFICE OF TECH. DEV., archived at <http://perma.cc/M55Q-4HKY> (explaining the detriments of choosing copyright over patents to protect software).

¹⁸ See Ross Kimbarovsky, *Contracts for Software Developers Who Hate Contracts*, 12 (2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/3876-PX3M> (outlining the risks associated with failure to include limitation of liability clauses in software development contracts).

¹⁹ See James G. Gatto, *Doubts Wane over GPL Enforceability*, PILLSBURY LAW (Feb. 2007) archived at <http://perma.cc/QYM3-C6EU?type=pdf> (highlighting that the GPL has recently become the topic of case law). Outside the free software context, commercial parties have definitely made use of the warranty of noninfringe-

running Android devices.²⁰ Much litigation has already arisen with respect to intellectual property rights related to smartphones.²¹ More broadly, commercial parties are increasingly taking free software and incorporating it into their products, meaning that many commercial devices and software packages include free software.²²

The purpose of the UCC is to “simplify, clarify, and modernize the law governing commercial transactions.”²³ In some areas, the UCC has paved the way for new technologies in commercial practice, such as its treatment of electronic chattel paper.²⁴ In many areas, however, the UCC has been hard-pressed to keep up with changing commercial practices, especially those involving software.²⁵ Whether modern practices of forming contracts are effective under the UCC

ment. *See, e.g.*, Phoenix Solutions, Inc. v. Sony Electronics, Inc., 637 F. Supp. 2d 683, 694-97 (N.D. Calif. 2009) (analyzing breach against infringement claim for paid software licenses under federal law); 84 Lumber Co. v. MRK Technologies, Ltd., 145 F. Supp. 2d 675, 678 (W.D. Pa. 2001) (outlining requirements of rightful claim under warranty against infringement claim for paid goods).

²⁰ *See* Richard Stallman, *Is Android Really Free Software?*, THE GUARDIAN (Sept. 19, 2011), archived at <http://perma.cc/7P5H-4H3G> (differentiating between open and free code in android software under GPL). Android uses the Linux kernel, licensed under the GPL. *Id.* The rest of the Android operating system is released under the Apache license, another free software license which is more permissive than the GPL. *Id.*

²¹ *See* Kirti Gupta & Mark Snyder, *Smart Phone Litigation and Standard Essential Patents*, HOOVER.ORG (May 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/W3B7-8W3B> (arguing that the smart phone industry has seen a dramatic rise in litigation due to patent rights).

²² *See* McJohn, *supra* note 3, at 31-32 (exemplifying that a commercial software company could incorporate large portions of an open source program into commercial software).

²³ U.C.C. § 1-102 (2013) (noting that this section of the U.C.C. is intended to resolve confusion). *See also* *In re Payless Cashways, Inc.*, 273 B.R. 789, 791 (W.D. Mo. 2002) (stating that the purpose of the U.C.C. is to streamline the law governing commercial transactions).

²⁴ *See* Jane K. Winn, *Electronic Chattel Paper: Invitation Accepted*, 46 GONZ. L. REV. 407, 409-10 (2011) (pointing to the Revised U.C.C. Article 9, which extends an invitation to update traditional chattel paper systems with new technology and migrate to electronic documents).

²⁵ *See, e.g.*, Mark A. Lemley, *Intellectual Property and Shrinkwrap Licenses*, 68 S. CAL. L. REV. 1239, 1249-50 (1995) (discussing the emergence of shrink wrap licensing and whether the terms in such licenses can be interpreted to constitute valid licensing contracts).

remains unclear.²⁶ Congress has similarly not clarified the interplay between federal intellectual property law and state commercial law.²⁷ UCC Article 9 on Secured Transactions, for example, has been unable to resolve whether federal or state filing is necessary to effectively use intellectual property as collateral.²⁸ Whether a software transaction is a license or a sale is unsettled, with ramifications in other areas of the law.²⁹

Software is becoming increasingly important in commercial life, but commercial law is adapting only in fits and starts to software transactions.³⁰ The Uniform Computer Information Transactions Act was proposed by the NCCUSL to deal with the sale or licensing of software.³¹ UCITA provided comprehensive set of rules for such transactions.³² But because UCITA was widely considered to favor

²⁶ See, e.g., Lemley, *supra* note 25 at 1250-51 (demonstrating the challenges to applying the UCC in the practice of intellectual property with forming contracts).

²⁷ See, e.g., Vault Corp. v. Quaid Software Ltd., 847 F.2d 255, 270 (5th Cir. 1988) (holding license term limiting reverse engineering preempted by federal law); see also Julie E. Cohen, *Reverse Engineering and the Rise of Electronic Vigilantism: Intellectual Property Implication of "Lock-Out" Programs*, 68 S. CAL. L. REV. 1091, 1092-93 (1995) (demonstrating the shifting and uncertain status of intellectual property protection for computer programs); David A. Rice, *Public Goods, Private Contract and Public Policy: Federal Preemption of Software License Prohibitions Against Reverse Engineering*, 53 U. PITT. L. REV. 543, 602, 605-06 (1992) (exemplifying that Section 301(a) of the Copyright Act of 1976 has exceptions to federal preemption, including reverse engineering).

²⁸ See, e.g., DOUGLAS J. WHALEY & STEPHEN M. MCJOHN, PROBLEMS & MATERIALS ON SECURED TRANSACTIONS, 35 (Wolters Kluwer Law & Business, 9th ed. 2014) (discussing whether federal filing is required to perfect the security interest and providing the following example cases: "*In re* World Auxiliary Power Co., 303 F.3d 1120 (9th Cir. 2002) (security interest in unregistered copyrights should be filed under Article 9); *In re* Peregrine Entertainment, Ltd., 116 B.R. 194 (C.D. Cal. 1990) (security interest in registered copyrights should be filed in Copyright Office)").

²⁹ See, e.g., Vernor v. Autodesk, Inc., 621 F.3d 1102, 1116 (9th Cir. 2010) (holding that software was licensed, not sold, therefore was not subject to copyright's first sale doctrine).

³⁰ See Robert W. Gomulkiewicz, *The License is the Product: Comments on the Promise of Article 2B for Software and Information Licensing*, 13 BERKELEY TECH. L.J. 891, 893 (1998) (demonstrating the challenges, through the lawmaking process, to put together a uniform law for software and information licensing).

³¹ See *id.* at 893 (reiterating that the NCCUSL and the ALI are impeded by a lack of agreement).

³² See, *cf. id.* at 893-94 (suggesting the UCITA started life as a proposed Article 2B to the UCC, but became a separate project when the American Law Institute did not

software companies and disfavor consumers, it received little traction in state legislatures.³³ It was adopted in only two states, while four states enacted so-called “bombshelter” statutes, forbidding the application of UCITA.³⁴ Similarly, a comprehensive revision to Article 2 of the Uniform Commercial Code, which would have some the issues involving software transactions, foundered and became the first broad revision to the UCC not to be adopted by state legislatures.³⁵ Efforts continue to clarify the law, most notably the American Law Institute’s Principles of Software Contracting project,³⁶ but at present uncertainty obtains in many areas.³⁷

Meanwhile, a software license drafted by a software developer (not without help from skilled lawyers) has become one of the

sponsor the project); *see also* Rochelle Cooper Dreyfuss, *Do You Want to Know a Trade Secret? How Article 2B Will Make Licensing Trade Secrets Easier (But Innovation More Difficult)*, 87 CALIF. L. REV. 191 (1999) (commenting on the growth of Article 2B rules to accommodate a growing intellectual property presence in cyberspace).

³³ *See* Matthew V. Pietsch, *The Perils of Ignoring Software Licenses*, 8 HAW. BAR J. 24, 34 (pointing to the criticism of the UCITA regarding their partiality towards the software industry).

³⁴ *See* DOUGLAS J. WHALEY & STEPHEN M. MCJOHN, PROBLEMS & MATERIALS ON THE SALE & LEASE OF GOODS, 8-9 (Aspen Publishing 6th ed. 1012) (citing Iowa Code §554D.104, N.C. Gen. Stat. §66-329, W. Va. Code §55-8-15, and 9 Vt. Stat. Ann. §2463(a)) (nothing that the Uniform Computer Transactions Act (UCITA) was enacted in a limited amount of states).

³⁵ *See id.* at 8 (arguing the new version of Article 2, addressing software transactions, was not adopted by states because of prolonged negotiations).

³⁶ *See* Maureen A. O’Rourke, *The ALI’S Principles of Software Contracting: Some Comments & Clarifications*, 12 J. HIGH TECH L. 159 (2011) (acknowledging the American Law Institute in developing Article 2B in the UCC).

³⁷ *See, cf.* Conwell v. Gray Loon Outdoor Mktg. Group, 906 N.E.2d 805, 811 (Ind. 2009) (citing Maureen A. O’Rourke, *An Essay on the Challenges of Drafting a Uniform Law of Software Contracting*, 10 LEWIS & CLARK L. REV. 925, 929-30 (2006)) (noting that the ALI project had been initiated, post UCITA, to bring clarity to the application of commercial law to software). The American Law Institute’s Principles of Software Contracting are likely to be persuasive authority on software law issues, although as yet they have not been widely cited in case law. *See* Maureen A. O’Rourke, *An Essay on the Challenges of Drafting a Uniform Law of Software Contracting*, 10 LEWIS & CLARK L. REV. 925, 926 (2006) (noting ALI was written to state basic principles of law and identify possible approaches courts could utilize). The relevant rules of the Principles with respect to the warranty of noninfringement and whether it can be excluded are, although phrased in terms of an indemnity, somewhat similar to the UCC. *See id.* at 931-32 (discussing the narrowing the scope of principles through the UCITA).

most influential documents in software law.³⁸ The GPL is by far the most widely used license among free and open source licenses.³⁹ Most notably, the operating system kernel Linux is released under the GPL.⁴⁰ Linux has very wide use in computing and represents one of the largest software projects.⁴¹ Because Linux is used in the operating system Android, which runs the majority of smartphones, GPL'd software is now carried around and used by tens of millions of people.⁴² The GPL is also the license covering such widely used software as the GNU C Compiler (the preeminent compiler for the popular programming language, C).⁴³ The GPL is also pervasively used for free and open source software projects from small to large.⁴⁴

³⁸ See Dr. Peter H. Salus, *Chapter 12, The Daemon, the GNU and the Penguin*, GROKLAB (June 16, 2005), archived at <http://perma.cc/Z6FQ-8DRK> (having realized that he needed to form a license which gave absolute rights to users, "he had spoken with Mark Fischer, a Boston IP lawyer, and to Jerry Cohen, another lawyer, but wrote his own license."). Boston intellectual property lawyers Jerry Cohen and Marc Fischer are reported to have given guidance with the original drafting of the GPL. See *id.* (discussing Jerry Cohen and Mark Fischer's role in drafting the GPL). Other lawyers, such as law professor Eben Moglen, have participated in revisions of the GPL. See Matt Lee, *GPL Version 3: Background to Adoption*, FREE SOFTWARE FOUND. (June 9, 2005), archived at <http://perma.cc/ZE9R-NPTU> (describing the revision of the GPL).

³⁹ See *BSD License Definition*, THE LINUX INFORMATION PROJECT, archived at <http://perma.cc/B4FY-QSRF> (comparing the usage of General Public Licenses to other free software license such as Berkeley Source Distribution (BSD)).

⁴⁰ See Richard Stallman, *Linux and the GNU System*, GNU OPERATING SYSTEM, archived at <http://perma.cc/8CRZ-PKNS> (explaining that the Linux kernel is often distributed with GNU software, some consider it more accurate to refer to the Linux distributions as GNU/Linux).

⁴¹ See Yochai Benkler, *Coase's Penguin, or, Linux and The Nature of the Firm*, 112 YALE L.J. 369 (2002) (describing how projects like Linux differ from typical commercial software development).

⁴² See Stallman, *supra* note 20 (explaining that the Android operating system contains the Linux kernel which has a GPL).

⁴³ See *License*, GCC.GNU (Mar. 31, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/3CLG-4EEX> (providing license information for software created using the GNU Compiler Collection – formerly known as GNU C Compiler).

⁴⁴ See Bradley M. Kuhn, Aaron Williamson & Karen M. Sandler, *A Practical Guide to GPL Compliance*, SOFTWARE FREEDOM LAW CENTER (Aug. 26, 2008), archived at <http://perma.cc/9FVD-MM82> (providing support for the proposition that GPL is used for free and open source software projects).

II. Where Warranty of Noninfringement Claims for GPL'd Software Could Arise

The GPL has been extremely successful in achieving the goals of free software.⁴⁵ There has been little litigation under the GPL,⁴⁶ so courts have issued little precedent on its interpretation and legal effectiveness.⁴⁷ More litigation may arise as free software becomes increasingly in commercially important applications.⁴⁸ To

⁴⁵ See Gatto, *supra* note 19 (recognizing the success of private enforcement of GPL licenses in forcing compliance with the terms of the agreement).

⁴⁶ See Rebecca Schoff Curtin, *Hackers And Humanists: Transactions and the Evolution of Copyright*, 54 IDEA 103, 118- 20 (2013) (noting the first case addressing the enforceability of a free software license occurred in 2009); Bradley M. Kuhn, *Some Thoughts on Conservancy's GPL Enforcement*, SOFTWARE FREEDOM CONSERVANCY (Sept. 11, 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/W66F-4YAQ> (explaining that before resorting to litigation the author prefers to exhaust other alternatives)

I admit, though, that I do find litigation particularly annoying, time-consuming, and litigation also makes GPL compliance take longer than it should. That's why litigation has always been a last resort, and that 99.999% of GPL enforcement matters get resolved without a lawsuit. Lawsuits are only an option, in my view, when a violation is egregious, and multiple attempts to begin a friendly conversation with the violator are consistently ignored. *Id.*

The gpl-violations.org project also played a role in raising awareness of GPL violations and enforcing rights. See Brian Carver, *Share and Share Alike: Understanding and Enforcing Open Source and Free Software Licenses*, 20 BERKELEY TECH. L.J. 443, 446-448 (2005) (discussing efforts to enforce the GPL in Europe, by Harald Welte and his organization, gpl-violations.org).

⁴⁷ See Gatto, *supra* note 19 (highlighting lack of precedential case law regarding enforceability of GPL licenses).

⁴⁸ See Kuhn, Williamson & Sandler, *supra* note 44 (observing that litigation in GPL enforcement has increased since 1989). Enforcement of GPL'd software is now often done by the Software Freedom Conservancy. See Bradley M. Kuhn, *Some Thoughts on Conservancy's GPL Enforcement*, SOFTWARE FREEDOM CONSERVANCY (Feb. 1, 2012), archived at <http://perma.cc/3NF5-P42Y> (discussing Software Freedom Conservancy's role in GPL enforcement). A violation of the GPL does not of itself give the Software Freedom Conservancy the right to enforce. See *id.* (noting that the holder of the copyright has the right to enforce the GPL). Rather, the holder of the copyright of the software which was issued under the GPL would have the right to enforce breach of the license. See *id.* (discussing the power

date, most of the few cases involving GPL'd software were brought to enforce the GPL.⁴⁹ Where parties had used, adapted and redistributed GPL'd software without making the source code available, enforcement action was taken to persuade them to release the code.⁵⁰ But enforcement of the GPL has been pursued generally not through litigation but rather through persuasion.⁵¹ So these cases rarely reach court and the few that did were settled after few proceedings.⁵²

of the copyright holder to enforce the software infringement under GPL). The Software Freedom Conservancy encourages authors of free software to transfer their copyright to the Software Freedom Conservancy so that it may enforce any violations on their behalf. *Members Projects & Services*, SOFTWARE FREEDOM CONSERVANCY, archived at <http://perma.cc/D7DU-CZSB> (acknowledging that consolidated copyright structures allow for easier and more effective enforcement). The Software Freedom Conservancy has pursued the approach of using persuasion first and resorting only to litigation when absolutely necessary, meaning that very few cases have been filed. See Bradley M. Kuhn, *Some Thoughts on Conservancy's GPL Enforcement*, SOFTWARE FREEDOM CONSERVANCY, archived at <http://perma.cc/3NF5-P42Y> (noting that litigation is burdensome, and is always a last resort).

⁴⁹ See Gatto, *supra* note 19 (identifying the majority of cases were brought to force compliance with GPL agreement).

⁵⁰ See STALLMAN, *supra* note 1, at 199 (outlining source code distribution requirements as a part of the GPL preamble).

⁵¹ See Eben Moglen, *Enforcing the GNU GPL*, GNU OPERATING SYSTEM (Sept. 10, 2001), archived at <http://perma.cc/7ZM2-QJ35> (employing other enforcement strategies in lieu of litigation).

“In approximately a decade of enforcing the GPL, I have never insisted on payment of damages to the Foundation for violation of the license, and I have rarely required public admission of wrongdoing. Our position has always been that compliance with the license, and security for future good behavior, are the most important goals. We have done everything to make it easy for violators to comply, and we have offered oblivion with respect to past faults. In the early years of the free software movement, this was probably the only strategy available. Expensive and burdensome litigation might have destroyed the FSF, or at least prevented it from doing what we knew was necessary to make the free software movement the permanent force in reshaping the software industry that it has now become. Over time, however, we persisted in our approach to license enforcement not because we had to, but because it worked. An entire industry grew up around free software, all of whose participants understood the overwhelming importance of the GPL—no one wanted to be seen as the villain who stole free software, and no one wanted to be the

One other set of cases involving GPL'd software was litigated quite thoroughly.⁵³ The issue, however, was ownership rights to the original code.⁵⁴ After several years, it was clarified that the rights to Linux did not belong to SCO, who claimed them after buying certain assets.⁵⁵ The litigation removed a considerable uncertainty about the free software nature of Linux.⁵⁶ But the effectiveness and interpretation of the GPL was not an issue, so the decisions shed little light on the GPL.⁵⁷ Note that the warranty of title (or not) given under the GPL could have been an issue if parties sued or facing possible suit by SCO had attempted to shift any possible loss to those who had supplied Linux to them.⁵⁸ The free software community presented a relatively solid front and did not resort to such measures.⁵⁹ But if future questions arise about the rights to software, the various parties may not have as much solidarity.⁶⁰

customer, business partner, or even employee of such a bad actor. Faced with a choice between compliance without publicity or a campaign of bad publicity and a litigation battle they could not win, violators chose not to play it the hard way". *Id.*

⁵² See, e.g., Ryan Paul, *Cisco Settles FSF GPL Lawsuit, Appoints Compliance Officer*, ARS TECHNICA (May 21, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/Z7F8-J3SY> (noting that Cisco and the Free Software Foundation reached a quick settlement on their GPL compliance lawsuit).

⁵³ See *SCO Grp., Inc. v. Novell, Inc.*, 578 F.3d 1201 (10th Cir. 2009), *aff'd* 439 F. App'x 688 (10th Cir. 2010) (analyzing arguments regarding dispute in copyright ownership over certain UNIX and Unixware source code).

⁵⁴ See *id.* at 1214 (deciding whether the sale of UNIX by Novell included the copyrights to the original Linux source code).

⁵⁵ See *id.* at 1227 (reversing the district court's decision that SCO claimed ownership over the UNIX and UnixWare copyrights).

⁵⁶ See Tom Harvey, *Decisions in SCO-Novell Case Ripples Beyond Utah*, THE SALT LAKE TRIBUNE (Mar. 30, 2010), archived at <http://perma.cc/AR5-RHSD> (discussing the outcome of the SCO-Novell case and the legal and copyright ramifications for open source software).

⁵⁷ See *id.* (focusing on the copyrights to UNIX software rather than GPLs).

⁵⁸ See *id.* (stating that the jury's decision was good for Linux and the open source community).

⁵⁹ See *id.* (stressing that Jason Hall, a founder and board member of the Utah Open Source Foundation, was proud of the decision and Novell's role).

⁶⁰ See *id.* (predicting that this decision presents a serious question about the future of an SCO law suit against IBM).

There has been some other litigation involving free software.⁶¹ Most cases were resolved before any reported judicial decisions.⁶² Some involved free software license other than the GPL.⁶³ The one appellate case to squarely hold that a free software license is enforceable concerned the Artistic License.⁶⁴ The holding's general principles could likely apply to the GPL, but there are considerable differences between the two licenses.⁶⁵ So these cases do little to clarify the legal effect of the GPL.⁶⁶ But they do show that the warranty of noninfringement could be a key issue for GPL software.⁶⁷

One of the few reported judicial decisions (as opposed to settled cases, of which there are a few more) involving enforcement of the GPL, decided by the Regional Court of Hamburg,⁶⁸ illustrates how warranty of infringement could be an issue (although the relevant licensors were not joined in the case). FANTEC used firewall software for Linux in a media player FANTEC sold.⁶⁹ FANTEC received the firewall software from suppliers under the GPL.⁷⁰ FANTEC did not comply with the terms of the GPL, because FANTEC did not make the relevant source code available.⁷¹ FANTEC raised as a defense that it did not adapt the free software,

⁶¹ See Gatto, *supra* note 19, at 3 (highlighting GPL's expanding case law).

⁶² See Gatto, *supra* note 19, at 2 (observing that the vast majority of GPL enforcements have been privately resolved).

⁶³ See *Jacobsen v. Katzer*, 535 F.3d 1373, 1382 (Fed. Cir. 2008), *appeal dismissed* 449 F. App'x 8 (Fed. Cir. 2010) (highlighting litigation involving the Artistic License).

⁶⁴ See *id.* at 1376 (enforcing that an Artistic License is a free and open source license).

⁶⁵ See *id.* at 1382 (holding that the Artistic License is clear in creating conditions to protect the economic rights at issue in the granting of a public license).

⁶⁶ See Gatto, *supra* note 19, at 3 (presenting the expanding case law on GPL); see also *Jacobsen*, 535 F.3d at 1382 (addressing the scope of the Artistic License).

⁶⁷ See, e.g., Harald Welte, *Regional Court Hamburg Judgment Against FANTEC, GPL-VIOLATIONS* (June 26, 2013), archived at <http://perma.cc/GQD3-LPFW?type=image> (implicating that the warranty of noninfringement is a key issue for GPL software).

⁶⁸ See *id.* (indicating the court's finding that FANTEC cannot rely on assurance of license compliance of their suppliers).

⁶⁹ See *id.* (holding that FANTEC violated the GNU General Public License in their media player).

⁷⁰ See *id.* (stating FANTEC's use of firewalling software for GNU/Linux).

⁷¹ See *id.* (explaining that FANTEC distributed the firmware without complete corresponding source code as required by GPL).

rather had simply received it from suppliers and relied on the suppliers to comply with the GPL.⁷² The court rejected FANTEC's argument, holding that FANTEC had obligations to treat GPL'd software according to the terms of the GPL, and any failure by FANTEC's suppliers did not permit FANTEC to use the copyrighted software beyond the authorization of the GPL.⁷³ For the purposes of this article, the case illustrates how a warranty of noninfringement could very well be litigated.⁷⁴ When sued for copyright infringement, a party like FANTEC that had used code supplied by another could bring the supplier in as a third-party defendant.⁷⁵ If FANTEC had to pay damages, then FANTEC could in turn recover for breach of warranty from the third-party defendant supplier.⁷⁶ However, if the supplier had an effective exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement, it would not be liable to FANTEC, even if FANTEC's liability arose from the code supplied.⁷⁷ To further illustrate the possible role of the warranty of noninfringement, if FANTEC sold the media player to customers (whether retail or wholesale), those customers could also be liable for copyright infringement, for using code that had not been distributed in compliance with the GPL.⁷⁸ Those customers likewise could recover from FANTEC for breach of the warranty of noninfringement (unless, again, FANTEC successfully excluded the warranty).⁷⁹

⁷² See *id.* (pointing to the court's finding that FANTEC cannot rely on suppliers to comply with GPL).

⁷³ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (stating the court's finding that FANTEC has an obligation to check their products for GNU GPL compliance).

⁷⁴ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (noting that every company distributing software must comply with licenses).

⁷⁵ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (stating that software compliance is necessary to avoid violating third-party rights).

⁷⁶ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (explaining that FANTEC could not rely on their suppliers).

⁷⁷ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (explaining FANTEC is liable for negligent action, not suppliers).

⁷⁸ See Welte, *supra* note 67 (highlighting the fact that while consumers may not intend to violate the warranty of noninfringement, they may do so unintentionally through purchases made from retail or wholesale distributors).

⁷⁹ See Mark Radcliffe, *The Fantec decision: German court holds distributor responsible for FOSS compliance*, OPENSOURCE.COM (July 30, 2013), archived at <http://perma.cc/RW3A-FT27> (clarifying the distinction between producers of goods and consumers in that producers may recover for infringement even against individuals who did not intentionally infringe).

Similarly, several cases to enforce the GPL were brought concerning the software package BusyBox.⁸⁰ BusyBox provides a set of utilities for Linux especially useful for embedded systems.⁸¹ The Software Freedom Law Center brought actions against several electronics manufacturers that had sold products using BusyBox without publishing their code.⁸² The cases were all settled, with the manufacturers agreeing to publish the code and pay a modest sum toward the costs of enforcing the GPL.⁸³ As in FANTEC, parties that purchased the relevant products could also have been liable and could have sought recovery for that liability under the warranty of noninfringement.⁸⁴

FANTEC and other actions enforce the GPL; however, the warranty of noninfringement is likely not to be litigated.⁸⁵ Those enforcing the GPL are not interested in getting monetary damages or getting injunctions to cease the operations of a business.⁸⁶ Rather,

⁸⁰ See *Prousalis v. Moore*, 751 F.3d 272, 273 (4th Cir. 2014) (demonstrating Prousalis's connection as representative of the software Busybox.com); see also *Software Freedom Conservancy, Inc., v. Westinghouse Digital Elec., LLC*, 812 F. Supp. 2d 483, 485, (S.D. N.Y. 2011) (addressing plaintiff's claim against Westinghouse Digital Electronics for distributing BusyBox); see also *Software Freedom Conservancy, Inc. v. Best Buy Co., Inc.*, 783 F. Supp. 2d 648, 651 (S.D. N.Y. 2010) (discussing action brought against Westinghouse Digital Electronics for copyright infringement in regards to the distribution of BusyBox).

⁸¹ See Rob Landley, *The Current State of the BusyBox Project*, LWN.NET (June. 7, 2006), archived at <http://perma.cc/8XS3-78T6> (explaining how BusyBox utilities serve for Linux commands).

⁸² See Joab Jackson, *Multiple Consumer Electronics Companies Hit with GPL Lawsuit*, PCWORLD (Sept. 17, 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/X7SJ-XBGC> (announcing copyright lawsuit brought by the Software Freedom Law Center against 14 electronic companies).

⁸³ See Sean Michael Kerner, *GPL Wins Again*, LINUXPLANET (Aug. 6, 2010), archived at <http://perma.cc/L6L-SB37> (articulating settlements between list of defendants and Software Conservancy); Gavin Clarke, *GPL scores historic court compliance victory*, THE REGISTER (Aug. 4, 2010), archived at <http://perma.cc/4TKV-2H6U> (stating that Westinghouse reached a settlement with SFC).

⁸⁴ See Kerner, *supra* note 83 (discussing Westinghouse's noncompliance with the GPL).

⁸⁵ See Kerner, *supra* note 83 (discussing the desire to litigate); see also Radcliffe, *supra* note 79 (explaining that FANTEC received the infringing software from a Chinese manufacturer and failed to publish the complete source code thereby violating the GPL).

⁸⁶ See Kerner, *supra* note 83 (describing Conservancy's preference for compliance).

GPL enforcement's goal is simply to get the parties to comply with the GPL, which generally means making the relevant code available.⁸⁷

Things could be quite different, however, where an action is brought not by someone seeking compliance with the GPL, but rather contending that code released under the GPL infringes other intellectual property rights.⁸⁸ If FANTEC and its customers had been sued for damages and an injunction by a patent holder looking for revenue, then their lawyers might very well have looked to shift losses using the warranty of noninfringement.⁸⁹ FANTEC and the BusyBox cases also illustrate a hazard of using software provided by another (free and otherwise).⁹⁰ Someone may be liable for infringement of copyright or patent even though they did not write the code or know that it infringed.⁹¹ Innocent buyers may be liable, which is one reason that they may feel inclined to recover from the sellers who triggered that liability.⁹²

Two cases involving alleged infringement by free software illustrate the risks that defendants might wish to pass on.⁹³ Oracle

⁸⁷ See Kerner, *supra* note 83 (reiterating that compliance with the GPL is a primary goal).

⁸⁸ See *Some Questions Every Business Should Ask About the GNU General Public License (GPL)*, archived at <http://perma.cc/4JVA-33L2> (discussing the legal issues incorporating GPL code and proprietary code and the "viral" effect of the GPL on the proprietary code).

⁸⁹ See DAN L. BURK & MARK A. LEMLEY, *THE PATENT CRISIS AND HOW THE COURTS CAN SOLVE IT* 7-8 (The University of Chicago Press, 2009) (stating that patents are an increasing threat to innovators and inventors); see also ADAM B. JAFFE & JOSH LERNER, *INNOVATION AND ITS DISCONTENTS: HOW OUR BROKEN PATENT SYSTEM IS ENDANGERING INNOVATION AND PROGRESS AND WHAT TO DO ABOUT IT* 38 (Princeton Univ. Press ed., 2004) (explaining that patents prevent imitation and infringement).

⁹⁰ See Radcliffe, *supra* note 79 (indicating that FANTEC was sued for a GPL violation).

⁹¹ See Radcliffe, *supra* note 79 (noting that FANTEC claimed they had assurance from the manufacturer that the source code they received was complete).

⁹² See Radcliffe, *supra* note 79 (recommending that companies should maintain a trusted network of third party suppliers in order to establish an effective compliance policy).

⁹³ See *Oracle Am., Inc., v. Google Inc.*, 750 F.3d 1339 (Fed. Cir. 2014) (involving alleged infringement by free software); see also *Complaint at 2, Microsoft Corp. v. TomTom N.V.*, No. 09CV00247, 2009 WL 585682 (W.D. Wash. Feb. 25, 2009) (alleging TomTom infringed upon patents held by Microsoft).

sued Google, contending that the Android operating system infringed Oracle's patents and copyrights related to the Java programming language.⁹⁴ If Android infringed such rights, then technically anyone using an Android phone could be liable for some damages.⁹⁵ Rights holders rarely sue consumers, so that is unlikely to be litigated.⁹⁶ But sellers of devices that use Android (such as phones, tablets, and an increasing array of electronics) could be liable – and might prove a likely target for a holder of patents or copyrights.⁹⁷ Part of the Android code is released under the GPL.⁹⁸ The relevant portion of Android in *Oracle v. Google* is released under the Apache License.⁹⁹ That license, unlike the GPL, explicitly excludes the warranty of non-infringement.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁴ See *Oracle*, 750 F.3d at 1350-51 (stating Google's Android platform contained 37 Java packets that were copied verbatim).

⁹⁵ See 35 U.S.C. § 271(a) (2012) (articulating that users of materials that infringe upon a patent may be liable under the statute).

⁹⁶ See Haochen Sun, *Overcoming the Achilles Heel of Copyright Law*, 5 NW. J. TECH. & INTEL. PROP. 267, 296 (2007) (acknowledging that there is little incentive for right holder's to sue consumers).

⁹⁷ See Gupta, *supra* note 21, at 2 (highlighting that the mobile wireless industry has become increasingly litigious between multinational technology and software corporations).

⁹⁸ See Stallman, *supra* note 20 (noting that much of the source code from Android has been released as free software).

⁹⁹ See Stallman, *supra* note 20 (stating that Android software was released under the Apache 2.0 License).

¹⁰⁰ See *Apache License, Version 2.0*, THE APACHE SOFTWARE FOUND., archived at <http://perma.cc/E79J-7HJA> (providing the disclaimer of warranty for the Apache License 2.0)

Disclaimer of Warranty. Unless required by applicable law or agreed to in writing, Licensor provides the Work (and each Contributor provides its Contributions) on an 'AS IS' BASIS, WITHOUT WARRANTIES OR CONDITIONS OF ANY KIND, either express or implied, including, without limitation, any warranties or conditions of TITLE, **NON-INFRINGEMENT**, MERCHANTABILITY, or FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. You are solely responsible for determining the appropriateness of using or redistributing the Work and assume any risks associated with Your exercise of permissions under this License. (emphasis added). *Id.*

Those that develop software under the GPL could be side casualties of patent battles.¹⁰¹ They could also simply be the primary targets of patent or copyright holders.¹⁰² Microsoft sued TomTom, a maker of navigation devices, for patent infringement.¹⁰³ Microsoft alleged the TomTom infringed Microsoft's patents on its Fat32 file system.¹⁰⁴ TomTom used the Linux kernel.¹⁰⁵ The case was resolved with a licensing agreement.¹⁰⁶ Microsoft or other rights holders could certainly bring more actions against other parties that make, sell, or simply use devices running Linux.¹⁰⁷ Microsoft has stated a number of times that Linux potentially infringes various Microsoft patents.¹⁰⁸ More broadly, the huge number of issued software patents and the broad nature of many of those patents is widely recognized as raising issues of claims of infringement against almost anyone that develops, sells, or even uses software.¹⁰⁹

The increasing use of patents to secure licensing fees increases the chances of claims related to GPL'd software.¹¹⁰ Patent litiga-

¹⁰¹ See Ryan Paul, *Microsoft and TomTom Settle Patent Dispute*, ARS TECHNICA (Mar. 30, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/WVR7-HBAM> (pointing to an example of a patent dispute case); see also Ina Fried, *Microsoft, TomTom Settle Patent Dispute*, CNET (Mar. 30, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/LVR5-V33L> (highlighting that Microsoft claimed TomTom's use of the Linux kernel were infringed).

¹⁰² See Fried, *supra* note 101 (cautioning software developers under the GPL that they could face patent litigation campaigns from large companies, such as Microsoft).

¹⁰³ See Fried, *supra* note 101 (reporting Microsoft's lawsuit against TomTom for patent infringement).

¹⁰⁴ See Fried, *supra* note 101 (explaining two of Microsoft's patents that cover legacy compatibility features in Microsoft's FAT file system).

¹⁰⁵ See Fried, *supra* note 101 (stating that TomTom's used the open source Linux kernel in its navigation products).

¹⁰⁶ See Fried, *supra* note 101 (concluding that Microsoft and TomTom settled with a licensing agreement).

¹⁰⁷ See, e.g., Bryan Pfaffenberger, *The Coming Software Patent Crisis: Can Linux Survive?*, LINUX JOURNAL (Aug. 10, 1999), archived at <http://perma.cc/Y9A5-C87A> (discussing the long recognized hazard of open-source authors' vulnerability to patent infringement lawsuits).

¹⁰⁸ See Eric Krangel, *Microsoft Sues TomTom for Linux Patent Infringement*, BUSINESS INSIDER (Feb. 25, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/88VY-JCU3> (citing Microsoft's various past claims against Linux for patent infringement).

¹⁰⁹ See *id.* (observing that Microsoft has had more than 200 of its patents infringed upon by Linux and other open source programs).

¹¹⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 8 (discussing patent claims used to enforce patent licenses).

tion was often limited to corporate contests, such as between competitors within an industry.¹¹¹ The purchasers of products had little to fear from patent holders.¹¹² But the search for targets has now broadened to include such “end-users.”¹¹³ One patent holder, for example, takes the position that its patents cover a photocopier that scans a document and emails it.¹¹⁴ The patent holder has sought licensing fees not just from photocopier manufacturers like Xerox and Lexmark, but from many businesses that use such copiers.¹¹⁵

III. Whether Uniform Commercial Code Article 2 Applies to Software Under the GPL

A threshold question is whether Article 2 of the Uniform Commercial Code applies to software distributions under the GPL. Whether UCC Article 2 applies to software transactions generally is unsettled.¹¹⁶ The case of the GPL adds several complications.¹¹⁷

Article 2 applies to “transactions in goods.”¹¹⁸ Is software “goods”? The UCC definition of “Goods” is “all things (including specially manufactured goods) which are movable at the time of iden-

¹¹¹ See Jean O. Lanjouw & Mark Schankerman, *Characteristics of Patent Litigation: A Window on Competition*, 32 THE RAND J. OF ECON. 129 (2001) (observing that competing firms commonly engage in patent litigation).

¹¹² See David Long & Matt Rizzolo, *Protecting “End Users” from Patent Infringement Actions*, INSIDE COUNSEL (Sept. 18, 2013), archived at <http://perma.cc/X9LV-KP3P> (commenting that historically a company rarely brought infringement claims against end users).

¹¹³ See *id.* (describing how “end-users” now need protection from patent infringement actions).

¹¹⁴ See Joe Mullin, *Notorious “Scan-To-Email” Patents Go Big, Sue Coca-Cola And Dillard’s*, ARS TECHNICA (Jan. 6, 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/Y25J-CH7A> (reporting that MPHJ Technology Investments also brought a number of patent claims against small business workers over scan-to-email functions).

¹¹⁵ See *id.* (announcing the MPHJ has established agreements to not bring claims against printer and copier companies that license with them).

¹¹⁶ See George E. Henderson, *A New Chapter 2 for Texas: Well-Suited or Ill-Fitting*, 41 TEX. TECH. L. REV. 235, 271 (2009) (discussing whether a software transaction is a sale or licensing transaction).

¹¹⁷ See Sapna Kumar, *Enforcing the GNU GPL*, 2006 U. ILL. J.L. TECH. & POL’Y 1, 16-17 (2006) (evaluating the UCC interpretation of software licenses and noting GPL is a failed contract).

¹¹⁸ See U.C.C. § 2-102 (establishing that Article 2 of the Uniform Commercial Code applies to transactions in the sale of goods).

tification to the contract for sale.”¹¹⁹ Goods include moveable things, not immoveable things (real estate) or intangible things (such as intellectual property rights) or services (where the seller does something, as opposed to delivering something).¹²⁰

A software transaction, then, could be beyond Article 2 if software was not considered a tangible thing,¹²¹ if the transaction was simply for intangible rights related to the software (as opposed for copies of software itself), or if the transactions was for services, as opposed to delivery of the software.¹²² Courts have long struggled in determining whether Article 2 applies to software transactions.¹²³ As White and Summers put it, “Courts, sometimes hesitantly, have generally held under section 2-102 that computer software are ‘goods.’”¹²⁴ The special considerations for free software add some complications to that analysis.¹²⁵ Courts have likewise struggled with the question of whether a contract for software is one for goods or one for services.¹²⁶ The cases tend to hold that if the contract calls for development of software, it is a services contract outside Article 2.¹²⁷ If the contract simply calls for delivery of software, then it is an

¹¹⁹ See U.C.C. § 2-105(1) (citing the Uniform Commercial Code definition of “Goods”).

¹²⁰ See JAMES J. WHITE & ROBERT S. SUMMERS, UNIFORM COMMERCIAL CODE § 2-1, 24 (6th ed. 2010) (describing what is included as “Goods” under the Uniform Commercial Code).

¹²¹ See *id.* at 25-33 (discussing the application of UCC Article 2 to transactions in software).

¹²² See *id.* at 27-28 (discussing the treatment of hybrid agreements that involve both goods and services).

¹²³ See Andrew Rodau, *Computer Software: Does Article 2 of the Uniform Commercial Code Apply?*, 35 EMORY L. J. 853, 865 (1986) (noting the definition of goods attributed by the courts for other products is inconsistent with the treatment of software).

¹²⁴ WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 25.

¹²⁵ See WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 34 (resolving specific issues in regards to free software and the applicability of contract terms to those users).

¹²⁶ See *Neibarger v. Universal Coop., Inc.*, 486 N.W.2d 612, 621-23 (Mich. 1992) (noting that if the intent is to acquire a good, the software will be governed under the UCC even though services would be involved, but if the intent was to acquire a service the transaction would not be governed by the UCC even though goods were involved).

¹²⁷ See *Pearl Invs., LLC v. Standard I/O, Inc.*, 257 F. Supp. 2d 326, 353 (D. Me. 2003) (quoting “for purposes of applicability of the UCC, development of a software system from scratch primarily constitutes a service”).

Article 2 contract.¹²⁸ However, the cases drawing the line between providing software as goods and developing software as a service are hardly consistent.¹²⁹ Free software licenses could be used in any number of settings.¹³⁰ Because of the huge number of software distributions under the GPL, this issue has considerable practical importance.¹³¹ Article 2 provides a set of rules for sales transactions.¹³² It tells the parties not just what warranties are made, but also the obligations of seller to deliver and buyer to accept, the remedies for breach of contract, and other sales issues.¹³³ Courts have generally held that the sale of software is a transaction in goods subject to Article 2.¹³⁴

¹²⁸ See *Micro Data Base Sys., Inc. v. Dharma Sys., Inc.*, 148 F.3d 649, 654–55 (7th Cir. 1998) (suggesting that when the sale of goods outweighs the service it is governed by the UCC); *Advent Sys. Ltd. v. Unisys Corp.*, 925 F.2d 670, 675–76 (3d Cir. 1991) (adopting the argument that software is a good as defined by the UCC); *RRX Indus., Inc. v. Lab-Con, Inc.*, 772 F.2d 543, 546–47 (9th Cir. 1985) (distinguishing software as a good from a service where the vendors sold preexisting software and any service accompanying the sale of such software is incidental).

¹²⁹ See *Wachter Mgmt. Co. v. Dexter & Chaney, Inc.*, 282 Kan. 365, 369 (2006) (indicating that Kansas’ Supreme Court considers software is “goods”); *Al-Bawaba.com, Inc. v. Nstein Tech. Corp.*, 862 N.Y.S.2d 812 (2008) (discussing the implications of the parties agreeing to treat software as a service).

¹³⁰ See *What is Free Software?*, GNU, archived at <http://perma.cc/LED9-EK69> (describing free software licenses, which allow users the freedom to copy, run, and further modify the software).

¹³¹ See Sigmond, *supra* note 9 at 89 (revealing how the momentous use of open source licensing is creating a wide scope of legal issues).

¹³² See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 858-59 (noting various rules of Article 2 regarding the formation of contracts of sale).

¹³³ See U.C.C. § 2-313 (explaining ways an express warranty by the seller may be created); see also U.C.C. § 2-314 (announcing that there is an implied warranty that the goods sold shall be merchantable when the seller is a merchant dealing with goods of that kind); U.C.C. § 2-301 (describing the obligations of the parties in a contract for the sale of goods); U.C.C. § 2-703 (listing various remedies for sellers in the event the buyer breaches the contract by rejecting or revoking acceptance of the goods or failing to make timely payment on or before delivery of goods); U.C.C. § 2-711 (explaining remedies for the buyer in a sales transaction when the seller breaches the contract).

¹³⁴ See WHALEY & MCJOHN, *supra* note 28, at 8-14 (discussing the treatment of contracts of sales of software); *Advent System Ltd.*, 925 F.2d at 675-76 (stating the majority of courts view software as fitting within the definition of a “good” under the U.C.C.); *Dahlmann v. Sulcus Hospitality Technologies, Corp.*, 63 F. Supp. 2d 772, 775 (E.D. Mich. 1999) (looking to the intent of the purchaser as to whether the contract is covered by the UCC); *Softman Products Co., LLC v. Adobe Systems*,

Some software distributions are made as part of a larger sale of goods and so would be comfortably within Article 2; even assuming a jurisdiction took a narrow view of whether Article 2 applied to pure software transactions.¹³⁵ Goods today very often include some electronics.¹³⁶ Even the most modest microchip is likely to come containing the software that controls the chip, even if the user is unlikely to be aware of the software.¹³⁷ Linux, the free software operating system kernel, is often embedded on microchips.¹³⁸ To give a common example, wireless routers used in homes often run Linux, although the homeowner may be unlikely to be aware of that.¹³⁹ The sale of routers would be comfortably within the meaning of “transactions in goods.”¹⁴⁰ Likewise, any device with a microchip in it (from dishwashers to fitness monitors to toys to . . .) is likely to come with software loaded onto it, and that software often is free software.¹⁴¹

Inc., 171 F. Supp. 2d 1075, 1084 (C.D. Cal. 2001) (nothing that various other courts have held that software is considered a good).

¹³⁵ See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 892 (addressing that Article 2 of the U.C.C. applies to computer software even in a common law system, which narrowly construes statutes to limit their application).

¹³⁶ See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 862 n.35 (inferring that electronics are goods because they can be distributed to users in a variety of physical mediums).

¹³⁷ See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 870 (demonstrating that software is contained in an array of electronics).

¹³⁸ See Adam Fabio, *Advanced Transcend WiFi SD Hacking: Custom Kernels, X, and Firefox*, HACK A DAY (Sept. 19, 2013), archived at <http://perma.cc/CZ6N-PMSW> (discussing that Linux can be embedded on microchips such as an SD card).

¹³⁹ See *id.* (noting a case of GPL enforcement involved the code on a WiFi card). The Transcend WiFi card was programmed with GPL'd code. See *id.* (noting that the transcend card included GPL). When the card was sold, it nevertheless was not sold with access to the source code, a violation of the GPL. See *id.* (acknowledging that excluding other source codes was a GPL violation). After considerable prodding from the free software community, the maker agreed to release the code. See *id.* (highlighting one of the most cavalier GPL violations in regards to WiFi and Linux).

¹⁴⁰ See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 864 (noting Section 2-102 makes Article 2 generally applicable to transactions in goods).

¹⁴¹ See Rodau, *supra* note 123, at 874-75 (expressing that at the point when software becomes a physical medium, it is a tangible object).

Electronics companies have recognized the technical and economic advantages of using free software.¹⁴²

To expand even more the set of Article 2 transactions involving free software licenses, we can also consider the nascent movement of “open hardware.”¹⁴³ Just as many believe that software should be distributed in a way that the recipient can study, adapt, and redistribute the software, so some think the same freedom should apply to hardware.¹⁴⁴ The leading open-source hardware license, The TAPR Open Hardware License, was drafted to track the principles of the GPL¹⁴⁵ and used much of the language of the GPL, including the language on exclusion of warranties.¹⁴⁶ Other open hardware projects simply use the GPL, even though it was drafted with software in mind.¹⁴⁷ Perhaps the best known open source hardware project, the Arduino microprocessor, uses a Creative Commons Share Alike li-

¹⁴² See McJohn, *supra* note 3, at 38 (articulating incentives such as enjoyment of programming, the desire to show off technical feats to others in the field or to further computer science).

¹⁴³ See John R. Ackermann, *Toward Open Source Hardware*, 34 DAYTON L. REV. 183, 212 (2009) (introducing TAPR Open Hardware, which is an attempt to translate the concepts of Open Source Software into an Open Source Hardware community).

¹⁴⁴ See *id.* at 184 (asserting that individuals in the industry sought to implement a free and open source philosophy comparable to the GNU General Public License).

¹⁴⁵ See *id.* at 183 (discussing the goals of GPL). “At its most fundamental, the goal of licenses like the GPL is to foster a community where those who benefit from the work of others in turn contribute their improvements to that community. A similar movement, inspired by many of the same concerns that drove those software developers, has taken shape among people involved in electronic hardware design efforts on a collaborative basis: the idea of Open Source Hardware.” *Id.* at 183.

¹⁴⁶ See *The TAPR Open Hardware License*, TAPR (May 25, 2007), archived at <http://perma.cc/6GPB-LUPD> (comparing the TARP license to the GPL). The warranty exclusion in the TAPR license tracks the language from the GPL, including the lack of any exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement: “THE DOCUMENTATION IS PROVIDED ON AN “AS-IS” BASIS WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, TO THE EXTENT PERMITTED BY APPLICABLE LAW. ALL WARRANTIES, EXPRESS OR IMPLIED, INCLUDING BUT NOT LIMITED TO ANY WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY, FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE, AND TITLE, ARE HEREBY EXPRESSLY DISCLAIMED.” *Id.*

¹⁴⁷ Cf. Eli Greenbaum, *Open Source Semiconductor Core Licensing*, 25 HARV. J.L. & TECH. 131 (2011) (discussing use of GPL to license semiconductor cores).

cense, which was drafted to expand the copyleft principles of the GPL to creative works.¹⁴⁸

With respect to free software, there is another issue beyond whether software constitutes goods: whether a distribution of free software under a license is a *transaction* in goods.¹⁴⁹ Article 2 applies to “transactions in goods.”¹⁵⁰ That definition could exclude most free software distributions from the coverage of Article 2, which is entitled “Sales of Goods.”¹⁵¹ Most free software distributions are not sales transactions, in the sense of code for money.¹⁵² Most distributions of free software are done without charging a price.¹⁵³ A common practice is to post software on a site like Github or SourceForge and make it freely available to others, under the GPL (and sometimes the application of the GPL is phrased quite loosely).¹⁵⁴ Those could well be characterized as unilateral contributions, not transactions.¹⁵⁵ The law of sales does not apply to gifts.¹⁵⁶

One could, however, characterize even a cost-free distribution of software under a restrictive license such as the GPL as a transac-

¹⁴⁸ See *Frequently Asked Questions*, ARDUINO, archived at <http://perma.cc/3U73-Z7P8> (discussing the use of Creative Commons Share Alike license).

¹⁴⁹ See Lori Brennan, *Why Article 2 Cannot Apply to Software Transactions*, 38 DUQ. L. REV. 459, 461-62 (discussing courts' treatment of software transactions as nothing more than sale of goods). See also Kerry M. Smith, *Suing the Provider of Computer Software: How Courts are Applying U.C.C. Article Two, Strict Tort Liability, and Professional Malpractice*, 24 WILLAMETTE L. REV. 743, 746 (1988) (discussing the categorization of software as a good).

¹⁵⁰ See U.C.C. § 2-102 (introducing Article 2 as applying to transactions in goods).

¹⁵¹ See Smith, *supra* note 149, at 746 (noting that if a transaction strictly referred to the passing of title to the property, then the licensing of software would not be considered a transaction because the license only allows the use of the good, not the full transfer of title to that good).

¹⁵² See *Selling Free Software*, GNU, archived at <http://perma.cc/7LD7-P8YG> (stating that free software is sometimes distributed without cost).

¹⁵³ See *Selling Free Software*, *supra* note 152 (defining “free” software in two general contexts: freedom or to price, with some free programs distributed at no cost and some at substantial prices).

¹⁵⁴ See Sigmond, *supra* note 9, at 89 (listing numerous software projects hosted by SourceForge).

¹⁵⁵ See Sigmond, *supra* note 9, at 89 (describing internet platforms, like SourceForge, that are used for hosting open source projects).

¹⁵⁶ See U.C.C. § 2-102 (excluding gifts).

tion, because both parties have rights and responsibilities.¹⁵⁷ The drafters of the UCC did not limit Article 2 to “sales” or even to “contracts.”¹⁵⁸ Rather, they chose the broader category of “transaction.”¹⁵⁹ Transaction is not a defined term, either in Article 2¹⁶⁰ or in the general definitions in Article 1, but could encompass exchanges broadly.¹⁶¹ The recipient of the software does not receive it without conditions.¹⁶² Rather, the license is subject to many conditions, intended to prevent the recipient from making the software non-free.¹⁶³ If the recipient redistributes the software, he or she is deemed to accept the GPL’s restrictions.¹⁶⁴ This exchange of obligations could be considered to make the transfer a transaction.¹⁶⁵ For the same reason, even if the GPL is treated as a bare license rather than a contract, distribution of software under the GPL could be treated as a transaction, if obtaining rights under the license requires the licensee to take steps to abide by the terms of the GPL.¹⁶⁶

Some distributions of free software would certainly qualify as sales.¹⁶⁷ As famously stated, free in free software means “‘free as’ in

¹⁵⁷ See Brian W. Carver, *Part I: Law and Technology: IV. Business Law: A. Notes: Share and Share Alike: Understanding and Enforcing Open Source and Free Software Licenses*, 20 BERKELEY TECH. L.J. 443, 448 n.34 (2005) (noting a restriction found in the GPL that requires that the license’s text, including user’s rights and responsibilities, be included with any software distribution under the GPL).

¹⁵⁸ See *Articles of the UCC*, US LEGAL, archived at <http://perma.cc/7BBG-JFHY> (summarizing the Articles of the UCC).

¹⁵⁹ See *id.* (discussing the scope of UCC article 2).

¹⁶⁰ See U.C.C. § 2-103–106 (omitting a definition of a transaction).

¹⁶¹ See U.C.C. § 1-201 (stating that “transaction” is not defined in the broad definitions of Article 1).

¹⁶² See Ackermann, *supra* note 143, at 211 (giving an example of conditions imposed by the Open Hardware License (OHL)).

¹⁶³ See Ackermann, *supra* note 143, at 183 (noting that the purpose of licenses are to ensure that software users retain the freedoms afforded by the definition of Free Software).

¹⁶⁴ See Jackson, *supra* note 82, at 1 (describing possible legal implications for redistribution of software).

¹⁶⁵ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (explaining how free software exchanges are often treated like transactions).

¹⁶⁶ See discussion *infra* pp. 28-30 (discussing the issue of whether the GPL is a contract or a bare license).

¹⁶⁷ See Sean Silverthorne, *Red Hat Software Sells Free Software*, ZDNET (Sept. 26, 1998), archived at <http://perma.cc/PKS7-BXXZ> (stating that Red Hat distributes free software via sales); see also Julie Bort, *A Feisty Linux Company That Wants to*

‘free speech,’ not as in ‘free beer.’”¹⁶⁸ Free software licenses permit distribution of the software for money.¹⁶⁹ Many businesses, such as Red Hat and Canonical, sell free software.¹⁷⁰ Although, for example, Linux is available for no charge from many sources, many prefer to purchase a distribution from Red Hat in order to receive the additional services that Red Hat offers, along with access to Red Hat's version of Linux.¹⁷¹ The Android operating system is free, but included with the sale of a smart phone.¹⁷² Many smaller developers adapt widely available software and sell their adaptations.¹⁷³ A considerable portion of free software distributions would qualify as sales of goods.¹⁷⁴

Some free software distributions are transactions.¹⁷⁵ Free software can be sold, because “free” refers to the lack of restrictions on the software, not to the money charged, if any, for a copy (which the recipient is then free to copy, adapt, and distribute).¹⁷⁶ Some parties sell software for money under the GPL.¹⁷⁷ Other distributions

Take on Android, SLATE (July 14, 2013), archived at <http://perma.cc/DCG5-QDMF> (stating that Canonical is known for distribution of Linux software).

¹⁶⁸ *What is Free Software?*, *supra* note 130; see also Rustad, *supra* note 1, at 357 (quoting Richard Stallman “Free as in free software means liberty to use source code, not that it was necessarily free in price like free beer”).

¹⁶⁹ See SUBHASISH DASGUPTA, *ENCYCLOPEDIA OF VIRTUAL COMMUNITIES AND TECHNOLOGIES* 285-86 (George Washington University ed., 2006) (stating that freeware’s key difference from “free software” is that the licenses do not allow sale).

¹⁷⁰ See Bort, *supra* note 167 (stating that Canonical is known for selling Linux software); see also Silverthorne, *supra* note 167 (stating Red Hat sells free software).

¹⁷¹ See Silverthorne, *supra* note 167 (listing the additional services and variations offered by Red Hat).

¹⁷² See *Operating Systems*, GEEK, archived at <http://perma.cc/5ABT-8JW8> (indicating that preloaded Android software comes with mobile phones).

¹⁷³ See Stallman, *supra* note 20 (listing the Apache 2.0 License as an example of an adapted software by Android).

¹⁷⁴ See *Advent System Ltd.*, 925 F.2d at 675-76 (emphasizing the majority of courts view software distribution as sales of goods under the U.C.C.).

¹⁷⁵ See Gomulkiewicz, *supra* note 30, at 893 (discussing commercial transactions in terms of software distribution).

¹⁷⁶ See STALLMAN, *supra* note 1, at 20 (defining “free” in free software to indicate the freedom of use by the user).

¹⁷⁷ See *Selling Free Software*, *supra* note 152 (explaining the process of selling software which indicates software distribution at a price or at no price at all).

might also be transactions, even without money changing hands.¹⁷⁸ Two businesses could agree to share software that they have developed independently.¹⁷⁹ That quid pro quo could qualify as a transaction.¹⁸⁰ Likewise, if a number of parties participated in a development project, each contributing code with an eye toward benefitting from the finished project that might be viewed as a series of transactions.¹⁸¹ So Article 2 will apply to some free software distributions.¹⁸² Indeed, the warranty provisions of the GPL are drafted with this in mind, as discussed below.¹⁸³

In addition, even if Article 2 was held not to apply to a transaction in free software, on the theory that the software is not goods, the court is likely to apply the rules of article 2 anyway.¹⁸⁴ There is no alternative law governing software.¹⁸⁵ Although several models statutes have been drafted and a proposed revision of article 2 that would have encompassed some software transactions none have been widely adopted by state legislatures, in part because software vendors were so successful in shaping the drafting process that other parties strongly resisted adoption.¹⁸⁶ Article 2 remains the authoritative

¹⁷⁸ See *Selling Free Software*, *supra* note 152 (analyzing a software distribution as a moneyless transaction).

¹⁷⁹ See, e.g., *Cross license definition*, MERRIAM-WEBSTER (Oct. 2, 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/B9S5-BV63> (defining cross license as “a license that is granted by a patent holder to another . . . who reciprocates with a similar license”).

¹⁸⁰ See U.C.C. § 2-102 (describing the scope of Article 2 and application to transactions).

¹⁸¹ See William D. Hawkland & Linda J. Rusch, *Transactions in Goods*, 1 HAWKLAND UCC SERIES § 2-102:2 (2014) (noting that, for Article 2 to apply, there must be a “transaction” and that transaction must be “in goods”).

¹⁸² Cf. *M.A. Mortenson Co. v. Timberline Software Corp.*, 998 P.2d 305, 310 (2000) (accepting the parties’ assertion that UCC Article 2 applies to software licensing).

¹⁸³ See discussion *infra* pp. 28-30 (describing why the provisions in Article 2 were drafted to apply to some free software distribution).

¹⁸⁴ See *I. Lan Systems, Inc. v. Netscout Service Level Corp.*, 183 F. Supp. 2d 328, 332 (D. Mass. 2002) (discussing that UCC Article 2 was applied by the court to an embedded agreement within a sale of software).

¹⁸⁵ See *id.* (discussing that software law in Massachusetts and noting that most states do not have laws governing software licenses).

¹⁸⁶ See *id.* (discussing resistance to adoption of a comprehensive legislative scheme, Uniform Computer Information Transactions Act (“UCITA”), to govern software licensing).

source for sales law, so courts are likely to apply it to sales of the things that don't meet the definition of goods.¹⁸⁷

A software contract could be a transaction simply to provide intellectual property rights or services, and so not be covered by Article 2.¹⁸⁸ Goods are defined to mean things which are movable.¹⁸⁹ The whole point of a GPL distribution, however, is to provide the code.¹⁹⁰ Indeed, granting rights under the GPL to code without providing access to a copy of the code would violate the GPL.¹⁹¹ Rather, the distribution of free software involves the granting a license, which is an intangible, along with the distribution of software, often in the ephemeral form of a download of computer files.¹⁹² As White and Summers state, however, courts have generally applied Article 2 to sales of software, in part for lack of a better alternative.¹⁹³

Finally, an additional reason for courts to apply article 2 to free software licenses is that those licenses, in their warranty provisions especially, were drafted to track Article 2.¹⁹⁴ The GPL, as noted below,¹⁹⁵ states that the software code is provided “AS IS” WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED, INCLUDING, BUT NOT LIMITED TO, THE IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE.”¹⁹⁶ That language was

¹⁸⁷ See *id.* at 331 (inferring from opinion that other courts will apply Article 2 to software licensing transactions as the U.S District Court of Massachusetts did).

¹⁸⁸ See *id.* at 331 (discussing how a software contract may not appear to be a transfer of goods).

¹⁸⁹ See U.C.C. § 2-105 (defining “goods” as moveable items).

¹⁹⁰ See *Frequently Asked Questions about the GNU Licenses*, GNU OPERATING SYSTEM (Oct. 18, 2014), archived at <http://perma.cc/8VZJ-TSHA> (stating that the whole point of the GPL is to provide the code to users).

¹⁹¹ See *id.* (discussing that distributing software without some of the source codes would violate the GPL).

¹⁹² See John A. Rothchild, *The Incredible Shrinking First-Sale Rule: Are Software Resale Limits Lawful*, 57 RUTGERS L. REV. 1, 5 (2004) (describing how a transaction involving acquisitions of software involves a license to use the software).

¹⁹³ See WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 25 (stating that courts “sometimes hesitantly, have generally held under section 2-102 that computer software are ‘goods’”).

¹⁹⁴ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (explaining the disclaimer of warranty provision in free software).

¹⁹⁵ See *infra* p. 30-31 (describing the GPL’s attempt to exclude all warranties).

¹⁹⁶ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9.

patently drafted to track 2-316 of Article 2 of the UCC.¹⁹⁷ It specifically mentions the UCC warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose.¹⁹⁸ It employs the broad exclusionary language supported by 2-316, “AS-IS.”¹⁹⁹ It then puts everything in block capitals, to meet the requirement of UCC 2-316 that exclusions of warranty must be conspicuous to be effective.²⁰⁰ Where the document was drafted specifically with the UCC warranty provisions in mind, applying the UCC to it makes sense.²⁰¹ In particular, where the document seeks to take advantage of the provisions of the UCC to exclude warranties, a court would likely also apply the protective provisions that require specific language to exclude warranties.²⁰²

The leading UCC treatise supports such a conclusion with a related rationale.²⁰³ White & Summers discuss the puzzle of what law to apply to cases involving software, where Article 2 does not apply, such as where the transaction is predominantly about the provision of services.²⁰⁴ In such cases, they note, there is no clearly defined body of “software law” to fill the gaps.²⁰⁵ That being the case, they suggest that courts should “determine what policy objectives the particular Code section in question implicates, and then, in light of those policies, determine whether the particular facts of the transac-

¹⁹⁷ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9 (inferring that the language of the GPL is in compliance with article 2-316 of the UCC); *see also* U.C.C. § 2-316 (stating the words necessary to negate a warranty or modify implied warranties of merchantability).

¹⁹⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9 (stating that the disclaimer of warranties includes warranties of merchantability and fitness).

¹⁹⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9 (noting the “AS IS” language of this provision is similar to that language included in subsection 3 of the UCC 2-316).

²⁰⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9 (highlighting the font of this provision meets the conspicuous requirement set forth in subsection 2 of the UCC 2-316).

²⁰¹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2, at 9 (inferring that the UCC 2-316 is the correct provision to apply to the GPL).

²⁰² See *Clemons v. Nissan N. America, Inc.*, 997 N.E.2d 307, 318 (Ill. App. Ct. 2013) (noting that the specific language is required to exclude warranties).

²⁰³ See *WHITE & SUMMERS*, *supra* note 120, at 27 (explaining the ideal approach to questions of law involving software and hardware).

²⁰⁴ See *WHITE & SUMMERS*, *supra* note 120, at 27 (outlining a policy based approach).

²⁰⁵ See *WHITE & SUMMERS*, *supra* note 120, at 26 (explaining how some software issues do not fall under Article 2 and the predicament this imposes).

tion invite the application of the section by analogy.”²⁰⁶ This policy approach would likely counsel apply the warranty provisions of the UCC to the GPL, even in cases where there was not a “transaction in goods.”²⁰⁷ The GPL was drafted with the warranty provisions in mind.²⁰⁸ The warranty provisions carefully sort out cases where warranties should apply from those where they should not apply.²⁰⁹ Even though the GPL addressed only warranties of quality, not the warranty of title and noninfringement, the specific policies embodied in the warranty of noninfringement provision allow courts ample tools to determine when it should apply and when it should be excluded.²¹⁰

IV. The GPL Exclusion of Warranties May Not Include Infringement Claims

As the Free Software Foundation explains, “For the developers' and authors' protection, the GPL clearly explains that there is no warranty for this free software.”²¹¹ The FSF recommends that each source file should include the paragraph above, stating that the software comes “WITHOUT ANY WARRANTY.”²¹² If the program does terminal interaction, it should “output a short notice like this when it starts in an interactive mode: ‘This program comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY.’”²¹³

The text of the GPL seeks to exclude all warranties in broad terms:

15. DISCLAIMER OF WARRANTY.

²⁰⁶ WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 27.

²⁰⁷ See WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 28 (considering the majority's application of the policy approach).

²⁰⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (articulating the warranty provisions).

²⁰⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (articulating works covered by warranty, and those that are not).

²¹⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (outlining the warranty of non-infringement).

²¹¹ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

²¹² *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

²¹³ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

THERE IS **NO WARRANTY** FOR THE PROGRAM, TO THE EXTENT PERMITTED BY APPLICABLE LAW. EXCEPT WHEN OTHERWISE STATED IN WRITING THE COPYRIGHT HOLDERS AND/OR OTHER PARTIES PROVIDE THE PROGRAM “AS IS” **WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND**, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED, INCLUDING, BUT NOT LIMITED TO, THE IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. THE ENTIRE RISK AS TO THE QUALITY AND PERFORMANCE OF THE PROGRAM IS WITH YOU. SHOULD THE PROGRAM PROVE DEFECTIVE, YOU ASSUME THE COST OF ALL NECESSARY SERVICING, REPAIR OR CORRECTION.²¹⁴

That would seem to exclude all warranties. But, as explained below, sometimes, broad language is not sufficient to achieve specific goals.²¹⁵

The Uniform Commercial Code likewise appears to make the exclusion of warranties effective.²¹⁶

§ 2-316. EXCLUSION OR MODIFICATION OF WARRANTIES.

(1) Words or conduct relevant to the creation of an express warranty and words or conduct tending to negate or limit warranty shall be construed wherever reasonable as consistent with each other; but subject to the provisions of this Article on parol or extrinsic evidence (Section 2-202) negation or limitation is inoperative to the extent that such construction is unreasonable.

²¹⁴ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (emphasizing the original, and adding extra emphasis). The license is hardly exceptional in its exclusion of the warranty of merchantability; see Robert W. Gomulkiewicz, *The Implied Warranty of Merchantability in Software Contracts: A Warranty No One Dares to Give and How to Change That*, 16 J. MARSHALL J. COMPUTER & INFO. L. 393, 402 (1997) (stating the implied warranty of merchantability “represents a well-intended but failed idea”).

²¹⁵ See *infra* pp. 22 (discussing that the warranty makes the risk of being sued for patent infringement greater).

²¹⁶ See U.C.C. § 2-316 (discussing the exclusion or modification of warranties).

(2) Subject to subsection (3), to exclude or modify the implied warranty of merchantability or any part of it the language must mention merchantability and in case of a writing must be conspicuous, and to exclude or modify any implied warranty of fitness the exclusion must be by a writing and conspicuous. Language to exclude all implied warranties of fitness is sufficient if it states, for example, that "There are no warranties which extend beyond the description on the face hereof."

(3) Notwithstanding subsection (2)

(a) unless the circumstances indicate otherwise, all implied warranties are excluded by expressions like "as is," "with all faults" or other language which in common understanding calls the buyer's attention to the exclusion of warranties and makes plain that there is no implied warranty;²¹⁷

The GPL disclaimer carefully abides by Section 2-316.²¹⁸ The GPL avoid making express warranties, simply by not making any.²¹⁹ The GPL excludes also all implied warranties.²²⁰ First, it explicitly states that "...WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED, INCLUDING, BUT NOT LIMITED TO, THE IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE."²²¹ Second, the GPL explicitly provides that the software is provided "AS IS."²²² Under 2-316(3)(a), that likewise excludes all implied warranties.²²³ This belt-and-suspender approach thoroughly excludes all express and implied warranties.²²⁴ One might think that a warranty must be

²¹⁷ *Id.*

²¹⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (excluding and modifying implied warranties).

²¹⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (remaining silent on proffering warranties).

²²⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (rejecting all implied warranties).

²²¹ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

²²² *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

²²³ See U.C.C. § 2-316 (excluding implied warranties).

²²⁴ See *id.* (excluding express warranties).

either express or implied, so an exclusion of all express and implied warranties would include all warranties.²²⁵ But, under U.C.C. Article 2, warranties go beyond those express and implied.²²⁶ The U.C.C. defines its terms with specificity, not always with the meaning that one would ordinarily expect.²²⁷ In the world of the U.C.C., a bank account is not an “account,”²²⁸ cattle may be “equipment,”²²⁹ and a consignment is not a “consignment” if it is known to be a consignment.²³⁰

Under the UCC scheme, there is another set of warranties, which are neither express nor implied warranties:

§ 2-312. WARRANTY OF TITLE AND AGAINST INFRINGEMENT; BUYER'S OBLIGATION AGAINST INFRINGEMENT.

(1) Subject to subsection (2) there is in a contract for sale a warranty by the seller that

(a) the title conveyed shall be good, and its transfer rightful; and

(b) the goods shall be delivered free from any security interest or other lien or encumbrance of which the buyer at the time of contracting has no knowledge.

(2) A warranty under subsection (1) will be excluded or modified only by specific language or by circumstances which give the buyer reason to know that the

²²⁵ See *id.* (explaining the exclusion of warranties under the U.C.C.).

²²⁶ See *id.* (stating “there are no warranties which extend beyond the description on the face hereof”).

²²⁷ See U.C.C. § 1-201 (explaining that U.C.C. definitions are limited to a contractual context, rather than matching up with layman’s terms).

²²⁸ U.C.C. § 9-102(iii) (defining “account” as expressly excluding “deposit accounts”).

²²⁹ *Morgan County Feeders, Inc. v. McCormick*, 836 P.2d 1051, 1053 (Colo. App. 1992) (holding that cattle used in dude ranch cattle drives were not inventory, consumer goods, or farm products, and thus fell into the residual category of “equipment”). According to § 4-9-109(2), C.R.S., goods are equipment “if they are used or bought for use primarily in business (including farming or a profession) ... or if the goods are not included in the definitions of inventory, farm products, or consumer goods.” *Id.* at 1053.

²³⁰ See U.C.C. § 9-102(iii) (providing that a consignment is not considered a consignment if the consignor is “generally known by its creditors to be substantially engaged in selling the goods of others”).

person selling does not claim title in himself or that he is purporting to sell only such right or title as he or a third person may have.

(3) Unless otherwise agreed a seller who is a merchant regularly dealing in goods of the kind warrants that the goods shall be delivered free of the rightful claim of any third person by way of infringement or the like but a buyer who furnishes specifications to the seller must hold the seller harmless against any such claim which arises out of compliance with the specifications.²³¹

Section 2-312 first provides a warranty so fundamental that it is often overlooked.²³² Seller effectively promises, “These goods are mine to sell.”²³³ If the goods belong to someone else, Seller will breach that warranty of title to Buyer.²³⁴ Because a buyer would normally expect such a warranty of ownership, the UCC provides that it is not excluded by a general exclusion of warranty, rather “will be excluded or modified only by specific language or by circumstances which give the buyer reason to know that the person selling does not claim title.”²³⁵ In other words, if the goods may not belong to Seller, Seller must make that quite clear with specific language.²³⁶ A general warranty disclaimer, such as “As-Is” or “WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND, EITHER EXPRESSED OR IMPLIED” will not exclude the warranty of title.²³⁷ As the Official Comment states,

The warranty of subsection (1) is not designated as an “implied” warranty, and hence is not subject to Sec-

²³¹ U.C.C. § 2-312.

²³² See U.C.C. § 2-312(1) (stating that in a contract for sale there is an embedded warranty that title shall be good, transfer rightful, and the goods free from encumbrances).

²³³ See *id.* (providing an example of one of the most fundamental warranties inherent in a contract to sell).

²³⁴ See *id.* (stating that the warranty will be breached if a seller lacks authority to contract for the sale of the goods).

²³⁵ U.C.C. § 2-312(2).

²³⁶ See *id.* (explaining that the warranty can be modified if specific language is used or the circumstances are known to the buyer).

²³⁷ See U.C.C. § 2-312 cmt. 6 (stating that warranty of title is not an implied warranty and therefore not excluded by a general warranty disclaimer).

tion 2-316(3). Disclaimer of the warranty of title is governed instead by subsection (2), which requires either specific language or the described circumstances.²³⁸

Suppose an art dealer had a painting to sell. The dealer was aware that there was a claim to ownership of the painting (that it was conveyed under an invalid will or it was wrongfully misappropriated during the war or the painting had been loaned or . . .). The art dealer believes the claim is baseless, but you never know. The art dealer could sell the painting and disclaim the warranty of title. To do so, the sales contract would have to say quite specifically that there was no warranty of title. A general disclaimer, such as “As-Is” or “No Warranties” would be insufficient. Buyers expect to own what they buy. If the seller is to avoid making that basic promise, the U.C.C. requires her to warn the buyer with specific language. Seller says “I’ll sell you whatever rights I have in this, but the risk is on you that it actually belongs to someone else.”

In addition to Seller promising that the goods will become Buyer’s personal property, Seller promises that Buyer’s use of the goods will not violate anyone’s intellectual property rights.²³⁹ This is the warranty of property rights that is important for software.²⁴⁰ Section 2-312(3) creates a warranty of noninfringement.²⁴¹ A merchant selling goods warrants not just that she owns them, but that buyer will not infringe third party rights.²⁴² If buyer purchases the goods and they are seized for infringement (of copyright or patent or trademark or trade secret, etc.), then seller will be liable to buyer.²⁴³ Likewise, if using or reselling the goods infringes third party rights, buyer can recover from seller.²⁴⁴ For example, where a company purchased software for an interactive voice recognition system from a

²³⁸ See U.C.C. § 2-312.

²³⁹ See U.C.C. § 2-312(3) (outlining the warranties required by the seller and that the goods should be delivered free from infringement).

²⁴⁰ See *id.* (requiring that a merchant warrants that the “goods shall be delivered free of the rightful claim of any third person by way of infringement or the like”).

²⁴¹ See *id.* (offering the requirements of a warranty of noninfringement).

²⁴² See *id.* (discussing the buyer’s obligation against infringement).

²⁴³ See *id.* (requiring the seller to warrant that the goods are free of any infringement claims).

²⁴⁴ See *id.* (inferring that a violation of the warranty against infringement would make the seller liable to the buyer).

supplier, the company was entitled to recover for breach of the warranty of noninfringement, when the company was sued for infringement of a patent covering the technology.²⁴⁵

The warranty of noninfringement will be breached if a substantial claim of infringement is brought by a third-party.²⁴⁶ Courts hold that a judicial finding of infringement is not required.²⁴⁷ Rather, it is sufficient if there is a "non-frivolous claim of infringement that has any significant and adverse effect, through the prospect of litigation or otherwise, on the buyer's ability to make use of the purchased goods."²⁴⁸ That interpretation is especially important for software transactions.²⁴⁹ As noted, the great number and broad language of software patents make it a real risk that anyone dealing with software could be sued for patent infringement.²⁵⁰ The warranty of non-infringement warrants not just that the buyer will not infringe any patents, but that no one will even claim that the buyer is not infringing any patents.²⁵¹ That is a very broad warranty that few software distributors would care to make.

That raises the question of how a seller can avoid making the warranty. Section 2-312 does not state specifically how to exclude the warranty of non-infringement.²⁵² Subsection 2, which requires specific language or special circumstances to exclude a warranty, re-

²⁴⁵ See *Phoenix Solutions, Inc. v. Sony Electronics, Inc.*, 637 F. Supp. 2d at 683, 700 (N.D. Cal. 2009) (denying the third party defendant's motion for summary judgment claiming Sony supplied them with specifications to be customized, and thereby falling under the exception in U.C.C. § 2-312(3)).

²⁴⁶ See U.C.C. § 2-312 cmt. 3 (discussing third party role in non-infringement warranties).

²⁴⁷ See *id.* (indicating that it is the seller's duty "to see that no claim of infringement of a patent or trademark by a third party will mar the buyer's title").

²⁴⁸ See *Phoenix Solutions*, 637 F. Supp. 2d at 696 (quoting *Pacific Sunwear of California, Inc. v. Olaes Enters., Inc.*, 84 Cal. Rptr. 3d 182, 194 (Cal. Ct. App. 2008)).

²⁴⁹ See *Phoenix Solutions*, 637 F. Supp. 2d at 696 (reiterating how an appropriate claim sits somewhere "between a purely frivolous claim and a claim that has been proven to show liability").

²⁵⁰ See *id.* (calculating that a claim for patent infringement is risky because no court has specifically held claim construction as a necessary requirement to a rightful claim).

²⁵¹ See U.C.C. § 2-312 (acknowledging that it is the duty of the seller to ensure that no claim of infringement will interfere with the buyer's title).

²⁵² See U.C.C. § 2-312(1)(a) (specifying that "title conveyed shall be good").

fers specifically only to the warranty of title in Subsection 1.²⁵³ By contrast, subsection 3 simply provides that the Seller will make a warranty of title “unless otherwise agreed.”²⁵⁴ That seems to provide the parties more flexibility to exclude the warranty. If that is the case, the GPL might exclude the warranty of noninfringement even though it does not specifically refer to noninfringement or the like. The next section discusses whether the GPL could be interpreted to exclude the warranty of noninfringement because such exclusion is “agreed.”²⁵⁵ The following section follows another possibility.²⁵⁶ The Uniform Commercial Code seeks to adapt to commercial practices.²⁵⁷ It will incorporate into the transaction terms that are sufficiently widely used in the field, under the rubric of “usage of trade.”²⁵⁸

It is worth noting that the UCC is consistent with the recent attempt of the American Law Institute to state the principles of software law.²⁵⁹ The ALI Principles of Software Contracting would provide for an indemnity of infringement, the equivalent of a warranty of noninfringement.²⁶⁰ The ALI would require specific language to ex-

²⁵³ See U.C.C. § 2-312(2) (describing exclusions or modifications of warranties under subsection 1).

²⁵⁴ See U.C.C. § 2-312(3) (solidifying the duty of a seller to ensure good title to third party buyers).

²⁵⁵ See *infra* pp. 24-31.

²⁵⁶ See *infra* pp. 34-7 (discussing an explicit exclusion of a warranty for infringement).

²⁵⁷ *Uniform Commercial Code*, USLEGAL, INC., archived at <http://perma.cc/CHN7-8QLU> (identifying the UCC as a “comprehensive modernization of various statutes relating to commercial transactions”).

²⁵⁸ See U.C.C. § 2-314(3) (stating that implied warranties may arise from the “course of dealing or usage of trade”).

²⁵⁹ See PRINCIPLES OF THE LAW OF SOFTWARE CONTRACTS §13.09 (2014) (stating that the American Law Institute’s Principles of the Law of Software Contracts replaced the warranty against infringement in the UCC Article 2, which created a warranty whenever a licensor makes representations that a licensee would reasonably rely on and limits disclaimers of warranties which the licensee would find unexpected); see also *Here’s a Quick Way to Understand Uniform Commercial Code*, LAWS.COM, archived at <http://perma.cc/75MZ-SKHC> (noting the ALI’s role in developing the UCC).

²⁶⁰ See Kristie Prinz, *Series on ALI Software Contract Principles: Changes Default Rule from Implied Warranty to Implied Indemnification Against Infringement*, SILICON VALLEY IP LICENSING LAW BLOG (June 4, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/L5A6-K6AF> (explaining the ALI principles for implied indemnification in a software contract).

clude the warranty, thus making it even more likely that the GPL and similarly worded languages do not exclude the warranty.²⁶¹ The indemnity would be excluded only by an exclusion that is “conspicuous, and uses language that gives the transferee reasonable notice of the modification or notice that the transferor has no obligation to indemnify the transferee.”²⁶² However, like the UCC, the Principles would allow for exclusion based on usage of trade.²⁶³ The Principles provide, however, that no indemnity of infringement would be made where no money was charged for the software, which would mean that most free software would not be subject to the indemnity obligation.²⁶⁴ The commentary specifically noted that this would make sense, where parties contribute free software without a charge.²⁶⁵

²⁶¹ See AMERICAN LAW INSTITUTE, PRINCIPLES OF THE LAW OF SOFTWARE CONTRACTS § 3.01(e) (2010) (allowing the transferor disclaimer of an indemnification obligation).

²⁶² *Id.* at § 3.01(e)(1) (noting the requirements for a transferor to be disclaimed of indemnification obligations).

²⁶³ See *id.* at § 3.01(e)(2) (stating that indemnification may be “excluded or modified . . . by course of performance, course of dealing, or usage of trade”).

²⁶⁴ See *id.* at § 3.01 cmt. a (specifying that indemnity is applicable only in cases where the transferor receives money for the software).

²⁶⁵ See AMERICAN LAW INSTITUTE, PRINCIPLES OF THE LAW OF SOFTWARE CONTRACTS § 3, topic 1, summary overview (noting that requiring open source software developers to indemnify each other would have a “chilling effect”):

The Principles do not imply indemnification by the transferor if the transferor did not receive money or the right to payment of a monetary obligation in exchange for the software. This would be the case for many collaborators in the open-source community who routinely exchange code without requiring monetary compensation in return. Open-source developers often are a large, diverse group and individual contributors may not have access to counsel to assist them in evaluating copyright or trade-secret claims or searching for patents, many of which may be invalid. An indemnification duty therefore may have a chilling effect on participation in open-source projects. *Id.*

V. Whether the GPL Excludes the Warranty of Noninfringement by Agreement

Under 2-312, the parties to a transaction may agree to exclude the warranty of noninfringement.²⁶⁶ This rule is more flexible than with the exclusion of the warranty of title, which must be excluded by specific language, such as “seller hereby forsakes and quit claims all of his right, title, and interest in acts two buyer.”²⁶⁷ The language must be specific and certain.²⁶⁸ The statement that seller sold his “right, title and interest” and that to “his knowledge there was no title and existence by way of registration with the state of Michigan or with any other state or with any notion” was insufficient.²⁶⁹ By contrast, “the warranty against infringement in section 2-312 is applicable ‘[u]nless otherwise agreed.’ This phrase does not appear to be as stringent as the specific language requirement in 2-312(2).”²⁷⁰ One might argue that the GPL excludes the warranty of noninfringement by agreement where it clearly states that the software is transferred “WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND.”²⁷¹

However, there are several obstacles to this position.²⁷² First, within the context of the paragraph excluding warranties, the exclusion is directed only at warranties of quality.²⁷³ It expressly mentions the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose, both warranties of the quality of the goods.²⁷⁴ The follow-

²⁶⁶ See U.C.C. § 2-312(3) (stating that a warranty of title is in effect by default “unless otherwise agreed”).

²⁶⁷ WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 504-05.

²⁶⁸ See U.C.C. § 2-312(2) (indicating that specific language must be used to exclude or modify a warranty of title).

²⁶⁹ Jones v. Linebaugh, 191 N.W.2d 142, 144 (Mich. Ct. App. 1971).

²⁷⁰ WHITE & SUMMERS, *supra* note 120, at 505, n.15.

²⁷¹ See, e.g., Bunge Corp. v. N. Trust Co., 623 N.E.2d 785, 791-92 (Ill. App. Ct. 1993) (inferring that the term warranty can be construed to include warranty of non-infringement without stating the precise terms infringe or infringement, because the term warranty equates to ownership); *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (displaying the language “WITHOUT WARRANTY OF ANY KIND” in its disclaimer of warranty provision).

²⁷² See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (providing a disclaimer of warranty within the terms and conditions of the license).

²⁷³ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (stating the licensee bears the burden of any issues as to quality and performance of the programs).

²⁷⁴ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (disclaiming explicitly the implied warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose).

ing sentence then emphasizes that there are no warranties with respect to how the software works: “THE ENTIRE RISK AS TO THE QUALITY AND PERFORMANCE OF THE PROGRAM IS WITH YOU. SHOULD THE PROGRAM PROVE DEFECTIVE, YOU ASSUME THE COST OF ALL NECESSARY SERVICING, REPAIR OR CORRECTION.”²⁷⁵ Within the paragraph, there are no references to infringement of third party rights.²⁷⁶ Other portions of the GPL discuss copyrights, patents and trademarks, without any indication that there is an exclusion of warranty with respect to such rights.²⁷⁷ Portions of the most recent version of the GPL specifically discuss patent rights in considerable detail, again without any limitation on the warranty of noninfringement.²⁷⁸ As a matter of interpretation of the license, it appears difficult to argue that the language constitutes an agreement that there is no warranty of noninfringement.²⁷⁹

Second, a greater obstacle perhaps lies in the legal nature of the GPL. The drafters of the GPL have firmly taken the position that the GPL does not represent an agreement between the licensor and license fees.²⁸⁰ Rather, it is considered to be a unilateral transfer of rights, not dependent on any agreement between the parties.²⁸¹ The drafters of the GPL consider it to be a “bare license,” rather than a contractual agreement.²⁸² Under this theory, someone who distributes code under the GPL gives permission to others to use that code without infringing copyright, but only subject to the terms of the

²⁷⁵ *GNU General Public License, supra* note 2.

²⁷⁶ *See GNU General Public License, supra* note 2 (making no reference to infringement of third party rights).

²⁷⁷ *See GNU General Public License, supra* note 2 (mentioning no infringement of third party rights in any other section of the license).

²⁷⁸ *See GNU General Public License, supra* note 2 (outlining patent rights with no mention of any limitation on the warranty of noninfringement).

²⁷⁹ *See GNU General Public License, supra* note 2 (postulating that the absence of any language on warranty of noninfringement suggests no agreement has been made).

²⁸⁰ *See* Lothar Determann, *Dangerous Liaisons – Software Combinations as Derivative Works*, 21 BERKELEY TECH. L.J. 1421, 1491-92 (2006) (stating the GPL allows licensees to sell and resell copies).

²⁸¹ *See id.* at 1494 (explaining that the software transfer is considered a transfer of rights between the licensees).

²⁸² *See* Mark R. Patterson, *Must Licenses Be Contracts? Consent and Notice in Intellectual Property*, 40 FLA. ST. U. L. REV. 105, 107-08 (2012) (inferring that the GPL insists on “bare licenses” because they are advocates of open source software).

GPL.²⁸³ If someone uses the code in a way that does not comply with the terms of the GPL, then that permission is terminated and the person may infringe the copyright in the code, such as by redistributing it without permission from the copyright holder.²⁸⁴ The GPL, under this view, is a one-way grant of permission, not a two-way agreement.²⁸⁵

In the words of the general counsel for the Free Software Foundation:

The word 'license' has, and has had for hundreds of years, a specific technical meaning in the law of property. A license is a unilateral permission to use someone else's property. The traditional example given in the first-year law school Property course is an invitation to come to dinner at my house. If, when you cross my threshold, I sue you for trespass, you plead my 'license,' that is, my unilateral permission to enter on and use my property. A contract, on the other hand, is an exchange of obligations, either of promises for promises or of promises of future performance for present performance or payment.²⁸⁶

Under this bare license view of the GPL, there is no agreement between the licensor and the licensee.²⁸⁷ If that is the case, then an exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement could not be something "otherwise agreed" to by the parties.²⁸⁸

²⁸³ See *id.* at 135-38 (discussing GPL restrictions on bare licenses).

²⁸⁴ See *id.* at 137-38 (stating that the GPL terminates permissive use in the event of a violation).

²⁸⁵ See *id.* at 135 (specifying that the permissions were free from restrictions between the parties).

²⁸⁶ *The GPL is a License, Not a Contract, Which is Why the Sky Isn't Falling*, GROKLaw (Dec. 14, 2003), archived at <http://perma.cc/8KH5-3NAR> (discussing why the GPL code is a license rather than a contract).

²⁸⁷ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 107-08 (noting that "[p]rominent advocates of open source copyright licensing vigorously contend that access to open-source software is granted through property-law 'bare licenses' whose terms are binding on licensees even without their consent").

²⁸⁸ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 108 (adopting the view that licensing restrictions are only enforceable with a contract as long as there is constructive notice by the owner).

However, it may well be that the GPL is treated by the law as an agreement, notwithstanding the view of its drafters.²⁸⁹ The author of a legal instrument does not define its legal character.²⁹⁰ Nowhere more than commercial law do courts reach conclusions counter to the view of the parties.²⁹¹ A “lease” is often treated as a security agreement.²⁹² A “confirmation” may be treated as the contract itself.²⁹³ A promissory note labeled “Negotiable” will readily be held nonnegotiable (and so not subject to the holder in due course doctrine).²⁹⁴

As Professor Patterson has shown, there is relatively little specific legal support for the “bare license” theory of the GPL.²⁹⁵ In real property, there might be a bare license, such as permission to enter land, which would mean the recipient was not trespassing.²⁹⁶ Such a license might be subject to conditions.²⁹⁷ But with respect to personal property, transfers of property interests subject to conditions have been much less likely to be enforced by courts.²⁹⁸ As many

²⁸⁹ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 148 (illustrating how assent is formed regardless of the user’s lack of notice of the license).

²⁹⁰ See, e.g., JAMES BROOK, SECURED TRANSACTIONS: EXAMPLES & EXPLANATIONS, 25-27 (4th ed. 2008) (discussing how some leases may be considered security agreements under Article 9 of the UCC “irrespective of the form in which it is initially presented to the world”).

²⁹¹ See Gomulkiewicz, *supra* note 30, at n.18 (displaying the common controversy regarding critiques of commercial law court opinions).

²⁹² See BROOK, *supra* note 290 (describing forms made to look like leases, but in actuality are security agreements).

²⁹³ See Maria del Pilar Perales Viscasillas, *Battle of the Forms, Modification of Contract, Commercial Letters of Confirmation: Comparison of the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (CISG) with the Principles of European Contract Law (PECL)*, 14 PACE INT’L L. REV. 153, 158-161 (2002) (discussing that contract modifications in a commercial confirmation letter can be accepted by the recipient’s silence).

²⁹⁴ See Michael P. Sullivan, Annotation, *Effect on Negotiability of Instrument, Under Terms of UCC §3-104(1) of Statements Expressly Limiting Negotiability or Transferability*, 58 A.L.R.4TH 632 § 2[a] (1987) (highlighting that a negotiable promissory note can be made nonnegotiable by writing “nonnegotiable” on the face of the instrument).

²⁹⁵ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 108 (discussing the “bare license” theory).

²⁹⁶ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 117-18 (discussing how “bare licenses” could apply to real property).

²⁹⁷ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 117-18 (noting that a licensor can grant permission for licensee to enter property “for specific purposes”).

²⁹⁸ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 119 (noting that “few personal property cases have enforced this form of restriction”).

have noted, intellectual property is quite different than other forms of property, and one cannot simply assume that real property concepts will be readily applicable to intellectual property.²⁹⁹ There are also good policy reasons not to introduce new legal forms into the already crowded legal structure of property, where the same result can be achieved quite simply with the existing law of contract, with its resources for treating the many issues of enforceability and scope that will likely arise.³⁰⁰ This certainly does not mean that the bare license theory of the GPL would not ultimately be accepted by courts.³⁰¹ But it would be difficult to describe it as something on which a licensor could rely.³⁰²

Characterizing restrictive licenses as two-sided contracts rather than one-sided bare licenses also means, as Professor Patterson shows, that parties will be protected against terms they could otherwise be subject to without notice.³⁰³ The drafters of the GPL have offered a reason for not requiring acceptance of the GPL; it is more efficient to have a single grant of rights subject to restrictions, as opposed to getting the other party to agree to those restrictions.³⁰⁴ But such efficiency is likely outweighed by the hazard of a party being subject to restrictions without consent or notice of them.³⁰⁵

²⁹⁹ See Thomas W. Merrill & Henry E. Smith, *The Property/Contract Interface*, 101 COLUM. L. REV. 773, 774-75 (2001) (highlighting the legal uncertainties of applying real property law to intellectual property).

³⁰⁰ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 109 (establishing the drawbacks in the current legal landscape).

³⁰¹ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 109 (acknowledging the reluctance of courts to enforce non-contractual intellectual property license restrictions).

³⁰² See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 110 (emphasizing the inherent difficulties of authors relying on such novel property rights).

³⁰³ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 147-150 (providing example of limited protection under bare licenses in comparison to two-sided contracts).

³⁰⁴ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 147-48, (quoting Richard M. Stallman, “[t]here’s another reason not to use contract law: It would require every distributor to get a user’s formal assent to the contract before providing a copy. To hand someone a CD without getting his signature first would be forbidden. What a pain in the neck!”)

³⁰⁵ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 148 (discussing the concerns of parties being subject to restriction of which they are unaware).

In addition, the GPL itself undercuts the idea that no agreement is required between the parties.³⁰⁶ The most recent version of the license provides “Therefore, by modifying or propagating a covered work, you indicate your acceptance of this License to do so.”³⁰⁷ The previous version, which is still perhaps more widely used, is even more demanding: “Therefore, by modifying or distributing the Program (or any work based on the Program), you indicate your acceptance of this License to do so, and all its terms and conditions for copying, distributing or modifying the Program or works based on it.”³⁰⁸

Trying to make this language consistent with the bare license theory requires conjuring a rather strange hybrid: a wholly unilateral grant of permission, which is effective only if the other party agrees to it.³⁰⁹ In addition, the grant would be deemed to terminate if the party, having accepted the license, does not subsequently comply with all its terms and conditions.³¹⁰ A GPL case would be one where the question would be such matters as whether a party agreed to the terms of a software license, the content of those terms (such as, whether the GPL excluded the warranty of noninfringement), whether the party complied with those terms, and if not, the consequences of noncompliance.³¹¹ It seems unlikely that a court dealing with a GPL case would be able to construct an entirely new area of law and fashion rules to govern not just that case, but future cases involving the GPL.³¹² Rather, contract law already provides a body of law dealing with the question of when a voluntary obligation is enforcea-

³⁰⁶ See *GNU General Public License, Version 3*, OPEN SOURCE INITIATIVE (June 29, 2007), archived at <http://perma.cc/M9BS-YLL3> [hereinafter *GPL Version 3*] (discussing the terms of the license agreement in the preamble).

³⁰⁷ *Id.*

³⁰⁸ *GNU General Public License, Version 2*, OPEN SOURCE INITIATIVE (June 2, 1991), archived at <http://perma.cc/KU63-GNYB> [hereinafter *GPL Version 2*].

³⁰⁹ See *id.* (conditioning permission to modify or distribute the program or its derivative works on acceptance of License); see also *GPL Version 3*, *supra* note 306 (noting that acceptance of license terms is required for modifying or propagating covered works).

³¹⁰ See *GPL Version 3*, *supra* note 306 (discussing basis for automatically terminating the license).

³¹¹ See Kumar, *supra* note 117, at 14-15 (discussing the potential contract litigation that could arise under the GPL).

³¹² See Kumar, *supra* note 117, at 19-20 (inferring this idea from the reliance on contract law for GPL disputes).

ble, what the content of the obligation is, what the conditions apply to the obligation, and the effects of failure to live up to terms and conditions attached to the obligation.³¹³

Contract law rules on offer and acceptance, for example, would likely be applied to the GPL, to sort out whether a party accepted the terms of the GPL.³¹⁴ Under existing case law, it is hardly clear that someone would accept all the terms of the GPL simply “by modifying or distributing” code distributed under the GPL, especially if the party had not read the relevant language.³¹⁵ There was a time when shrinkwrap licenses might be enforceable, where a party might be deemed to agree to the terms of a license that was not seen until the shrinkwrap around a package of software was removed.³¹⁶ Where such licenses were quite common and the only alternative was a burdensome procedure such as requiring prior consent by purchasers at the point of purchase, enforceability of such unseen and unagreed - to provisions had countervailing policies in support.³¹⁷ But now software pervasively and easily can require the checking of a box to receive positive agreement.³¹⁸

This does not mean that every use of the GPL would require getting explicit agreement, such as checking a box in a window be-

³¹³ See Kumar, *supra* note 117, at 24-25 (examining the GPL within the framework of contract law, including promissory estoppel).

³¹⁴ *But see* Kumar, *supra* note 117, at 16 (concluding that the GPL is not a contract).

³¹⁵ Cf. Theresa Gue, *Triggering Infection: Distribution and Derivative Works Under the GNU General Public License*, 2012 U. ILL. J.L. TECH. & POL'Y 95, 101-102 (discussing the potential implications of a user modifying or distributing code under the GPL).

³¹⁶ Cf. Apik Minassian, *The Death of Copyright: Enforceability of Shrinkwrap Licensing Agreements*, 45 UCLA L. REV. 569, 571 (1997) (discussing typical shrinkwrap licenses including those that are contained within a package and bind the user upon opening).

³¹⁷ See Sean F. Crotty, *The How and Why of Shrinkwrap License Validation Under the Uniform Computer Information Transactions Act*, 33 RUTGERS L.J. 745, 758-59 (2002) (inferring that the benefits of shrinkwrap licenses outweigh the burden of requiring prior consent of consumers).

³¹⁸ See Ed Bayley, *The Clicks That Bind: Ways Users “Agree” to Online Terms of Service*, ELECTRONIC FRONTIER FOUNDATION (Nov. 16, 2009), archived at <http://perma.cc/W7K8-LY3T> (describing that with a simple clicking of a box users may be binding themselves to a contract as stated in the terms of agreement).

fore using the software.³¹⁹ Rather, the UCC and contract law generally provide a flexible framework that accommodates commercial realities.³²⁰ In the case of the GPL, there is the special circumstance that the GPL is extremely well-known.³²¹ If, for example, someone knows of the GPL and sees any reference to the GPL in acquiring the software, they might well be deemed to accept at least its general terms.³²² Without a clear acceptance of the terms of the GPL, a contract could also be formed by the conduct of the parties.³²³ UCC 2-204(1) sets a broad, flexible framework for recognizing contracts without formalities: “(1) A contract for sale of goods may be made in any manner sufficient to show agreement, including conduct by both parties which recognizes the existence of such a contract.”³²⁴

There could be agreement to the GPL, even without specific agreement.³²⁵ That leaves the question, however, of whether all the terms of the GPL would be included in the contract.³²⁶ A contract would not automatically include all the terms of the GPL.³²⁷ Under UCC 2-207(3):

³¹⁹ See Mark A. Lemley, *Terms of Use*, 91 MINN. L. REV. 459, 464-65 (2006) (explaining that assent is not required by both parties to bind parties to a contract).

³²⁰ See *Uniform Commercial Code Article 2B Licenses*, MINDSERPENT.COM (Mar. 10, 1998), archived at <http://perma.cc/B5V5-DA5D> (stating that the UCC and contract law have flexible standards).

³²¹ See *Wallace v. IBM*, 467 F.3d 1104, 1107 (7th Cir. 2006) (stating that “copyright and patent laws give authors a right to charge more, so that they can recover their fixed costs (and thus promote innovation), but they do not require authors to charge more. No more does antitrust law require higher prices”). Although the GPL is very widely used for free software, the Seventh Circuit rejected the argument that its use constituted a conspiracy at monopolization of relevant software markets or an illegal agreement to set prices for software. See *id.* at 1106.

³²² See Crotty, *supra* note 317, at 757 (inferring that if a consumer sees reference to the GPL and subsequently opens up the product the contractual terms contained in the GPL is now binding).

³²³ See Crotty, *supra* note 317, at 755 (inferring that explicit assent is not required by both parties to form a contract); see also Lemley, *supra* note 319, at 464-65 (reaffirming the idea that mutual assent is not required to bind both parties to a contract).

³²⁴ U.C.C. § 2-204(1).

³²⁵ See U.C.C. § 2-207(3) (stating that in the absence of an actual contract, conduct that recognizes a contract can be sufficient to establish one).

³²⁶ See *id.* (inferring that the terms of the GPL may not be included in a contract established by conduct).

³²⁷ See *id.* (inferring that the GPL would not be incorporated into a contract established by conduct under other provisions of the UCC).

Conduct by both parties which recognizes the existence of a contract is sufficient to establish a contract for sale although the writings of the parties do not otherwise establish a contract. In such case the terms of the particular contract consist of those terms on which the writings of the parties agree, together with any supplementary terms incorporated under any other provisions of this Act.³²⁸

In sum, it remains unclear whether agreement is required to make the GPL enforceable, what would constitute agreement to the GPL, and what terms of the GPL would be included if the agreement was based on implied assent or conduct.³²⁹ The next section considers whether an exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement would be made under the UCC, as a usage of trade.³³⁰

VI. “Usage of Trade” and Free Software Licenses

Under the Uniform Commercial Code, warranties may be excluded by usage of trade.³³¹ For warranties of quality, § 2-316 is explicit on this point.³³² One might apply the same reasoning to the warranty of noninfringement.³³³ Along the same lines, § 2-312 states that the warranty of title may be excluded “by circumstances which give the buyer reason to know that the person selling does not claim title in himself or that he is purporting to sell only such right or title as he or a third person may have.”³³⁴ An auctioneer need not state a disclaimer of warranty of title if it is clear that the auctioneer is simp-

³²⁸ *Id.*

³²⁹ *See id.* (referencing that this provision still needs to be interpreted in regards to the incorporation of the GPL).

³³⁰ *See infra* pp. 35-38 (outlining when warranties may be excluded by usage of trade).

³³¹ *See* U.C.C. § 2-312 (codifying buyers obligation against infringement but also supplying the ability to modify the warranty provided); *see also* U.C.C. § 2-316 (codifying exclusion or modification of warranties).

³³² *See* U.C.C. § 2-316 (stating explicitly, “an implied warranty can also be excluded or modified by course of dealing or course of performance or usage of trade”).

³³³ *See id.* (inferring that based on the scope and language included in the exclusion or modification of warranties the application could be easily applied).

³³⁴ U.C.C. § 2-312.

ly selling goods for others without knowledge of their provenance.³³⁵ Although that provision does not address the warranty of noninfringement, the reasoning would seem applicable.³³⁶ Indeed, the standard for excluding the warranty of noninfringement is less strict, so something that could exclude the warranty of title should be able to exclude the less sticky warranty of noninfringement.³³⁷ Could the warranty of noninfringement be excluded under that clause, on the theory that free software is known to be sold without a warranty of noninfringement? The factual question is similar to whether usage of trade excludes the warranty.³³⁸ Both questions would rest on the common expectation of those who deal with free software license.³³⁹ This section addresses that question by looking at free software licenses. Were the issue litigated, there could be other evidence about the understanding of those in the trade.³⁴⁰ The U.C.C. defines "usage of trade" as:

Any practice or method of dealing having such regularity of observance in a place, vocation, or trade as to justify an expectation that it will be observed with respect to the transaction in question. The existence and scope of such a usage must be proved as facts. If it is established that such a usage is embodied in a trade code or similar record, the interpretation of the record is a question of law.³⁴¹

³³⁵ See U.C.C. § 2-316 (announcing that "...unless the circumstances indicate otherwise, all implied warranties are excluded by expressions like 'as is,' 'with all faults' or other language which in common understanding calls the buyer's attention to the exclusion of warranties and makes plain that there is no implied warranty"). It is commonly understood at an auction that all goods are sold as is to the highest bidder.

³³⁶ See *id.* (inferring that based on the reasoning behind § 2-316, it follows that the same should apply to warranty of noninfringement).

³³⁷ See *id.* (determining the standard for the warranty of noninfringement).

³³⁸ See *id.* (explaining the proposition that when dealing with the usage of trade, an implied warranty can be excluded or modified).

³³⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (discussing the commonly held idea that free software has a warranty of noninfringement).

³⁴⁰ See *Software Warranties*, SOFTWARE CONTRACTS. NET (2008), archived at <http://perma.cc/4YJK-NAS3> (explaining that off the shelf software is often sold on an "as-is" basis).

³⁴¹ U.C.C. § 1-303.

The question would be whether there is sufficient evidence that those trading in free software would expect to receive no warranty of infringement.³⁴²

There is, however, precious little written on whether the warranty of noninfringement is provided with free software, or even with software generally.³⁴³ Software developers often have considerable knowledge of the terms of software licenses.³⁴⁴ The Debian Legal listserve includes reams of acute analysis of the applicability of various software licenses to factual situations, along with practical resolution of licensing issues.³⁴⁵ Discussions are readily found online of the legal implications and the interpretation of software licenses.³⁴⁶ Among coders, the most frequent discussion of warranties in general covers what sort of actions can be taken with code or devices without voiding the warranty under which it was provided.³⁴⁷ There is little discussion of whether free software comes with a warranty, presumably because the licenses, like the GPL, are so clear that they intend to provide no warranty.³⁴⁸ As noted, no one seems to have discussed

³⁴² See U.C.C. § 2-316 (dealing with the usage of trade and the warranty of noninfringement); ~~see also~~ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (inferring the implications of free software).

³⁴³ See *Intellectual Property Indemnity Clauses*, INTELLECTUAL PROP. & TECH. FORUM (Apr. 23, 2014), *archived at* <http://perma.cc/UG63-6GUC> (inferring that a previous lack of interest on the part of the legal community has led to a lack of precautionary measures in this area).

³⁴⁴ See E. GABRIELLA COLEMAN, *CODING FREEDOM: THE ETHICS AND AESTHETICS OF HACKING*, 119 (Princeton Univ. Press 2012) (explaining how software developers place a high emphasis on continuous learning to promote technological advancement).

³⁴⁵ See *DFSG and Software License FAQ (Draft)*, *archived at* <http://perma.cc/8SH6-HELN> (clarifying legal inquiries presented by users about free software licensing); *see also* Coleman, *supra* note 344, at 143 (noting that the Debian community provides a platform for software licensing improvement.)

³⁴⁶ See *DFSG and Software License FAQ (Draft)*, *supra* note 345 (addressing common issues experienced by users of free software licensing).

³⁴⁷ See *DFSG and Software License FAQ (Draft)*, *supra* note 345 (outlining three forms of software licensing actions that are available to users for their specific needs).

³⁴⁸ See, e.g., *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (protecting developers and authors by disclaiming that there is no warranty for GPL's free software).

the fact that this blanket exclusion does not specifically include an exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement.³⁴⁹

One tangible source of whether free software transactions exclude the warranty of noninfringement is the licenses themselves.³⁵⁰ The following are culled from a database of free licenses compiled by the Free Software Foundation.³⁵¹

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³⁴⁹ See *Intellectual Property Indemnity Clause*, *supra* note 343 (omitting discussion of any exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement).

³⁵⁰ See Matthew Hennessy & Mark Weber, *Software License Agreements – 3 Key Provisions (Scope, Infringement and Cap)*, LEXOLOGY (Nov. 14, 2011), archived at <http://perma.cc/44RQ-HHXU> (discussing that a non-infringement warranty will be excluded if not explicitly expressed within the software license).

³⁵¹ See *Various Licenses and Comments about Them*, GNU OPERATING SYSTEM, archived at <http://perma.cc/33PS-CTT5> (listing free licenses that exclude warranties of non-infringement).

³⁵² *Apache License*, *supra* note 100.

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³⁵³ *Artistic License 2.0*, THE PERL FOUND., archived at <http://perma.cc/WWF5-A698>.

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Other corporate licenses, such as the IBM Public License, Version 1.0, are also careful to exclude the warranty of noninfringement specifically.³⁵⁶ But the Standard ML of New Jersey Copyright License,

³⁵⁴ *BSD License Definition*, supra note 39.

³⁵⁵ *Licensing/Intel ACPI Software License Agreement*, THE FEDORA PROJECT, archived at <http://perma.cc/FG94-LYZX>.

³⁵⁶ See *IBM Public License Version 1.0*, OPEN SOURCE INITIATIVE, archived at <http://perma.cc/EE9W-VWWV> (applying no warranty to noninfringement).

issued by the large telecommunications company Lucent (successor to the fabled Bell Labs), did not.³⁵⁷

The Modified BSD license does not exclude the warranty of noninfringement, even though the drafter took great pains to exclude a great variety of possible forms of liability, suggesting once again that the warranty of noninfringement is simply not on the radar screen of free software licensors:

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The CeCILL is the one license to exclude the warrant of noninfringement any way other than simply using the single word.³⁵⁹ The license was drafted in French and perhaps reflects the expertise avail-

³⁵⁷ See *Standard ML of New Jersey Copyright, Notice, License, and Disclaimer*, STANDARD ML OF NEW JERSEY, archived at <http://perma.cc/R6J6-EV3Y> (excluding a specific statement disclaiming any warranty of noninfringement).

³⁵⁸ *BSD License Definition*, *supra* note 39.

³⁵⁹ See *CeCILL Free Software License Agreement*, CECILL, archived at <http://perma.cc/6MCA-GJP7> (declaring the exclusion of noninfringement by stating that “the Licensor does not either expressly or tacitly warrant that the Software does not infringe any third party intellectual right ...”).

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Note that the license, drafted by French lawyers, avoid the noisy BLOCK CAPITALS used by American lawyers to meet the requirements that an exclusion of warranty be CONSPICUOUS.³⁶¹

The License of Python does carefully exclude the warranty of noninfringement, perhaps because the author of a leading free software licensing book is an attorney with the Python Software Foundation.³⁶²

4. PSF is making Python 2.0.1 available to Licensee on an "AS IS" basis. PSF MAKES NO

³⁶⁰ *Id.*

³⁶¹ *See id.* (excluding the use of “block capitals” from the French drafted license).

³⁶² *See History of PSF Officers & Directors*, PYTHON SOFTWARE FOUNDATION, archived at <http://perma.cc/CK8A-QG5H> (listing officers and directors between 2001 and 2014).

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OF CONTRACT, NEGLIGENCE OR OTHER TORTIOUS
ACTION, ARISING OUT OF OR IN CONNECTION WITH
THE USE OR PERFORMANCE OF THIS SOFTWARE.³⁶⁴

It would appear unlikely that one working in the free software arena could reasonably assume that there was an implicit exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement.³⁶⁵ Many licenses do not exclude the warranty of noninfringement.³⁶⁶ The most frequently used license, the GPL itself, does not exclude the warranty of noninfringement, or even refer to it in the explanatory material on the Free Software Foundation's site.³⁶⁷ In addition, because the warranty is so

³⁶³ *Python 2.0.1 License*, PYTHON, archived at <http://perma.cc/6N8F-XJGB>.

³⁶⁴ *Id.*

³⁶⁵ *See id.* (inferring that there are no implied warranties in the disclaimer).

³⁶⁶ *See id.* (highlighting an example of a disclaimer that excludes the warranty of infringement).

³⁶⁷ *See The Free Software Foundation (FSF) is a Nonprofit with a Worldwide Mission to Promote Computer User Freedom and to Defend the Rights of all Free Software Users*, FREE SOFTWARE FOUND., INC., archived at <http://perma.cc/P8NM-4HYL> (highlighting the Free Software Foundation and excluding any mention of the warranty of infringement).

frequently excluded expressly, it would appear that licensors are easily able to do so when they so wish.³⁶⁸

Beyond the brief exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement in some free software licenses, there is one case where parties license that addressed the matter in detail.³⁶⁹ Red Hat Software distributes, among other things, its own version of Linux.³⁷⁰ A few years ago, there was some uncertainty as to the rights to Linux.³⁷¹ A company called SCO stated claims (later rejected by the courts) that Linux infringed on copyrights held by SCO, on the theory that SCO held the rights to UNIX, on which Linux is based in part, and that IBM had contributed code to the Linux project that also infringed SCO's rights.³⁷² To reassure its customers, Red Hat expressly warranted that its software did not infringe SCO's rights and offered an indemnity to its customers in the event that SCO brought an action against them.³⁷³ Likewise, Novell, Hewlett-Packard and Montavista offered their customers any indemnity against any claims.³⁷⁴ One could argue from those actions that the industry understood the default to be no warranty of noninfringement, but a single, unusual case is difficult to use as the basis for evidence of a trade usage.³⁷⁵

VII. Expressly Excluding the Warranty of Noninfringement

³⁶⁸ See *id.* (inferring that the excluded warranty is frequently not used by users).

³⁶⁹ See *The SCO Inc.*, 578 F.3d 1201, at 1204 (10th Cir. 2009) (discussing a singular example of licensing rights).

³⁷⁰ See Silverthorne, *supra* note 167 (pointing to Red Hat selling versions of Linux software).

³⁷¹ See *SCO*, 578 F.3d at 1206-07 (introducing the confusion with Linux licensing agreements with SCO).

³⁷² See Jonathan Zittrain, *Normative Principles For Evaluating Free And Proprietary Software*, 71 U. CHI. L. REV. 265, 267 (2004) (describing history of disputes involving rights to Linux, an open source operating system).

³⁷³ See Stephen Shankland, *Red Hat Offers Software Warranty*, CNET NEWS (Jan. 19, 2004), archived at www.perma.cc/BV6C-SZSS (introducing Open Source Assurance Program, which is offered by Red Hat to protect customers against copyright infringement).

³⁷⁴ See *id.* (comparing similar indemnification plans used by Novell, Hewlett-Packard and Montavista).

³⁷⁵ See *SCO*, 578 F.3d at 1206-07 (highlighting the complexities involved in copyrights under a purchase agreement which may or may not satisfy the warranty of infringement).

As the foregoing shows, it may well be that someone who distributes (especially by sale) software under the GPL may make a warranty of noninfringement. This section discusses several ways to reduce that risk by expressly and specifically excluding the warranty. The simplest way for someone to make the GPL exclude the warranty of noninfringement would be to insert that word into the exclusion of warranties, as many other free software licenses do.³⁷⁶ But the GPL itself forbids any changes to its text: “Everyone is permitted to copy and distribute verbatim copies of this license document, but changing it is not allowed.”³⁷⁷ It is a little ironic that a license that freely allows computer code to be adapted forbids changing the legal code of the license itself.³⁷⁸ One might reason that the same sort of freedoms that apply to software code should apply to legal code, perhaps even more strongly, given how legalese can bind people.³⁷⁹ But there is a sound reason for the provision.³⁸⁰ The GPL is a standardized license used for millions of computer programs.³⁸¹ If people were to customize the GPL, then someone using GPL’d software would have to read through the code of the license (or run it through software that compared the text to the Platonic GPL) to see what rights they would receive.³⁸² Creating new versions of the GPL would risk “forking” the GPL, putting more than one version in circulation so that parties could no longer rely on the familiar terms of the GPL and would have to expend resources in determining which version of the GPL they

³⁷⁶ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (highlighting the easiest method of avoiding the default rule regarding the warranty for free software).

³⁷⁷ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2.

³⁷⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (banning individuals from modifying the terms of the GPL).

³⁷⁹ See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (noting the near certainty that a modified license may be incompatible with the GNU GPL and offering the use of the exception offered by GPL version 3 as an alternative).

³⁸⁰ See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (explaining that the most widespread license is the GNU GPL).

³⁸¹ See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (explaining that the “proliferation of different free software licenses is a burden”).

³⁸² See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (allowing users to modify and customize the GPL as long as the new license is given another name, does not include the GPL preamble, and the instructions-for-use are modified and clearly do not mention the GNU).

were dealing with.³⁸³ One could address this with clear attribution in the comments to affected code, but even keeping track of attribution would add considerably to the irksome task of attending to legalities where one simply wants to deal with software.³⁸⁴

Although the GPL forbids changes to its text, it likely would not infringe copyright to change the text.³⁸⁵ Functional legal code is not copyrighted.³⁸⁶ Insertion of a comma and a single word (“NONINFRINGEMENT”) would not be the creation of a derivative work.³⁸⁷ Moreover, fair use would permit any theoretical copyright infringement.³⁸⁸ But although a change would not infringe copyright, it could possibly infringe the trademark GPL to use the term on a non-standardized form of the GPL.³⁸⁹ Most important, perhaps, it would be counter to the spirit of free software, as well as counterproductive, and so an option that someone distributing free software may not choose, for reasons beyond legal technicalities.³⁹⁰

The most recent version of the GPL does provide a slightly less direct way to expand the exclusion of warranties, but only for material added by the licensor.³⁹¹ The GPL may not be changed, but may be supplemented (a license provision that echoes the UCC rule for parole evidence, which may not contradict the written terms of a

³⁸³ Cf. *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (describing the “mere proliferation of different free software licenses” as “a burden in and of itself”).

³⁸⁴ See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (offering that it is possible to make multiple versions of the GPL although it tends to have practical consequences).

³⁸⁵ See *Frequently Asked Questions about GNU Licenses*, *supra* note 190 (commenting that you are not required to claim a copyright on changes to modified versions of a GPL).

³⁸⁶ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (explaining the terms and conditions of when copyrighting applies).

³⁸⁷ See Gue, *supra* note 315, at 124-25 (highlighting the limits and abilities of creating a derivative work).

³⁸⁸ See Gue, *supra* note 315, at 127 (indicating that under fair use, owners of GPL-covered work do not face liability for infringement).

³⁸⁹ See Gue, *supra* note 315, at 102 (defining how the GPL works under the license theory).

³⁹⁰ See Gue, *supra* note 315, at n.143 (discussing how a loophole in the GPL could become contrary to the spirit of the GPL).

³⁹¹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (asserting that the GPL clearly states that there is no warranty for free software and some devices may deny users access to use modified versions of the software).

contract but may supplement it).³⁹² Section 7 of the GPL V.3 provides, in pertinent part:

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The GPL permits additional exclusions of warranty, but they would only apply to material added by the licensor.³⁹⁴ That would leave considerable risk.³⁹⁵ A party that adapted software would still make a warranty of noninfringement for the portions of the software that others had written.³⁹⁶ A party that redistributed free software (with or without code she added to it) would make a warranty of noninfringement for the redistributed code.³⁹⁷ That is a considerable limit, because most free software distributions include code from others.³⁹⁸ It is a rare piece of software that does not build on others.³⁹⁹ With respect to the GPL in particular, one reason it is commonly used is that

³⁹² See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (allowing the terms of the GPL to be supplemented through exceptions).

³⁹³ *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (explaining how one can supplement terms of the license).

³⁹⁴ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (noting that additional permissions on material can be added when one has the appropriate copyright permission).

³⁹⁵ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (inferring that unless proper measures are instituted when sharing covered work issues might arise).

³⁹⁶ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (explaining that when an individual is conveyed a copy of covered work, they then have the option to remove additional permissions from the copy).

³⁹⁷ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (indicating that when a party redistributes software, this shared software will still be covered by a warranty of noninfringement).

³⁹⁸ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (recognizing that when you share software that you have modified, you must pass the same freedoms that you received).

³⁹⁹ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (suggesting that because free software is shared readily, it is rare that the software has not been changed since its creation).

the relevant distributor used code under the GPL, and so uses the GPL on the augmented distribution.⁴⁰⁰

In practice, it appears that parties go beyond what the GPL appears to permit, and add exclusions of warranty in their licenses. For example, the Micropolis GPL License Notice, in a provision entitled “ADDITIONAL TERMS per GNU GPL Section 7” seeks to eliminate every conceivable warranty, including the warranty of non-infringement.⁴⁰¹ The provision is worth quoting in full for its attempt to enumerate every conceivable legal risk:

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⁴⁰⁰ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (stating the GPL was designed to protect the freedoms of distributing and receiving copies of free software).

⁴⁰¹ See *Micropolis GPL License Notice*, MICROPOLIS (Feb. 4, 2010), *archived at* <http://perma.cc/UX3N-7U78>. (highlighting Micropolis’s added express terms to the GPL to avoid any warranty liability under the license).

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If someone distributing code under the GPL were to add an exclusion of warranty that was in separate text, it is unlikely that there would be an objection or claim that it somehow violated the GPL.⁴⁰³ It would not change the text of the GPL itself, and the goal of warranty exclusion is entirely consistent with the spirit of the GPL.⁴⁰⁴

In addition to adding language referring specifically to an exclusion of the warranty of noninfringement, a licensor could consider getting positive agreement to the terms of the license.⁴⁰⁵ As discussed above, it is not clear whether the GPL's restrictions are effective without agreement by the person subject to the terms.⁴⁰⁶ Obtaining consent would not only clarify that the warranty of noninfringement was excluded, but also make clear that the many other terms of the GPL were accepted.⁴⁰⁷ But obtaining consent

⁴⁰² *Id.*

⁴⁰³ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (allowing users of the GPL to add terms to the GPL via separate text).

⁴⁰⁴ See *GNU General Public License*, *supra* note 2 (listing disclaiming warranties that may be added to GPL text via separate text).

⁴⁰⁵ See Vetter, *supra* note 13, at 138-139 (noting terms of GPL license enforceability may turn on whether there was explicit or implied assent).

⁴⁰⁶ See Vetter, *supra* note 13, at 138-139 (examining uncertainty regarding enforceability of GPL license terms when there is express versus implied assent).

⁴⁰⁷ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 148 (noting express consent to GPL would imply acknowledgment and acceptance of GPL terms).

would make distribution of the software less smooth, not to mention change the practice of dealing with free software.⁴⁰⁸ Some would quite reasonably not view the risks (which in many cases, especially when the software is distributed without charge, would be minimal) as justifying requiring adding that layer of legality to a software distribution.⁴⁰⁹

VIII. Conclusion

The GPL, then, may have the effect of warranting that software it covers comes with a warranty of noninfringement. Whether that applies to any particular distribution would depend on many things: whether there was a charge for the software, whether the software was specially developed, and how a court might resolve a number of open legal issues: the applicability of the UCC to software, the interpretation of the little-litigated provisions of both the UCC and the GPL with respect to excluding warranties, and the legal nature of the GPL itself, as a bare license or a contract. Someone wishing to avoid those legal uncertainties could release code under the GPL, supplemented with a specific exclusion of the warranty of infringement – and perhaps obtain consent of the recipient to those terms. More broadly, it may be that courts have more occasions to address the legal effect of the GPL. The GPL has been a highly successful hack on software law. How it should be given effect in the many transactions it now reaches will require once again recalibrating a number of legal tools.

⁴⁰⁸ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 148 (discussing the difficulties of obtaining formal consent similar to that required in contract law in a free software setting).

⁴⁰⁹ See Patterson, *supra* note 282, at 148 (noting the addition of express consent requirement wouldn't give consumers greater knowledge of risk because they will not likely read or understand the terms).