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12  
13 **UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT**  
14 **CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA**  
15

16 JUSTIN SANCHEZ and ERIC ALEJO;

17 *Plaintiffs,*

18 v.

19  
20 LOS ANGELES DEPARTMENT OF  
TRANSPORTATION and CITY OF  
21 LOS ANGELES,

22 *Defendants.*

CASE NO: 2:20-cv-05044

**PLAINTIFFS' OPPOSITION TO  
MOTION TO DISMISS**

**Hearing**

Date: September 11, 2020

Time: 9:30 a.m.

Location: Courtroom 8C

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Los Angeles, CA 90012

1 *(continued from previous page)*

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## INTRODUCTION

1  
2 This case concerns the government’s automated collection of detailed and  
3 accurate GPS coordinates of all shared scooter rides, taken by all scooter riders,  
4 anywhere in the City of Los Angeles. The City’s radical departure from ordinary  
5 transportation regulation constitutes a violation of settled expectations of privacy,  
6 is unjustified by any legitimate planning goals, and is unreasonable on its face. It  
7 also violates California law specifically limiting the overcollection of electronic  
8 information by government agencies throughout the state. The City of Los Angeles  
9 and the Los Angeles Department of Transportation (collectively “LADOT”)  
10 dispute this, and seek premature dismissal of the action. In its filing, LADOT  
11 ignores controlling precedent that establishes the invasiveness of automated  
12 location and movement tracking. It also ignores Plaintiffs’ allegations  
13 demonstrating that such precise data collection serves no reasonable government  
14 interest, and is, in any event, not tailored to protect scooter riders from the threats  
15 associated with government ingestion of such sensitive information. Finally,  
16 LADOT fails to address the plain language of the California Electronic  
17 Communications Privacy Act (“CalECPA”), which forecloses this data-collection  
18 scheme and provides Plaintiffs a state law remedy in a civil court.

## BACKGROUND

19  
20 Starting in 2019, LADOT began compelling shared scooter providers to  
21 produce detailed real-time and historical information about all rides taken by  
22 scooter riders in Los Angeles through a system called the “Mobility Data  
23 Specification” (“MDS”). Compl. ¶¶ 20, 23–25. That detailed information includes  
24 the precise locations where riders start and end their trips, as well as the route they  
25 take along the way—all in real-time or near real-time. *Id.* ¶ 25. The information  
26 collected by MDS has the potential both to identify riders and to reveal intensely  
27 private information about their movements, interactions, home and office  
28 locations, health, and political activities. *Id.* ¶¶ 26–29.

1 Plaintiffs Justin Sanchez and Eric Alejo are residents of Los Angeles, and  
 2 customers and riders of dockless scooter providers in Los Angeles. *Id.* ¶¶ 13–14.  
 3 They have ridden scooters within the City of Los Angeles while MDS has been in  
 4 effect, including on trips to and from their residences and workplaces. *Id.* ¶¶ 8, 13–  
 5 14. LADOT has collected and stored information associated with Plaintiffs through  
 6 the MDS program, including the precise trips they have taken. *Id.* ¶ 32.

7 Plaintiffs bring three claims for relief. First, they claim that LADOT’s MDS  
 8 program violates their rights under the Fourth Amendment to the United States  
 9 Constitution. *Id.* ¶¶ 42–48. Second, they claim that the MDS program violates  
 10 similar rights against search and seizure under Article I, Section 13, of the  
 11 California Constitution. *Id.* ¶¶ 49–55. Third, Plaintiffs allege that MDS compels  
 12 the production of their electronic information in violation of CalECPA. *Id.* ¶¶ 56–  
 13 60. LADOT moved to dismiss all three claims. *See* Dkt. 18 (“Mot.”).

## 14 ANALYSIS

### 15 I. PLAINTIFFS’ COMPLAINT STATES A CONSTITUTIONAL 16 VIOLATION.<sup>1</sup>

#### 17 A. LADOT’s automated collection of Plaintiffs’ precise location data 18 constitutes a search under the Fourth Amendment.

19 The Fourth Amendment’s demand that individuals “be secure in their  
 20 persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures”  
 21 now firmly covers both location information and movement information from  
 22 government collection and exploitation. *See* U.S. Const. amend. IV. The “basic  
 23 purpose of this Amendment . . . is to safeguard the privacy and security of  
 24

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25 <sup>1</sup> As the relevant search and seizure rules of both the Fourth Amendment and  
 26 Article I, Section 13, of the California Constitution are functionally coterminous,  
 27 *Sanchez v. County of San Diego*, 464 F.3d 916, 928–29 (9th Cir. 2006) (“[T]he  
 28 right to be free from unreasonable searches under [Article I, Section 13] parallels  
 the Fourth Amendment inquiry.”), Plaintiffs address them together under the  
 heading of the Fourth Amendment.

1 individuals against arbitrary invasions by governmental officials.” *Camara v. Mun.*  
2 *Court of City and Cnty. of San Francisco*, 387 U.S. 523, 528 (1967). “[A] Fourth  
3 Amendment search occurs when the government violates a subjective expectation  
4 of privacy that society recognizes as reasonable.” *Kyllo v. United States*, 533 U.S.  
5 27, 33 (2001). MDS’s automated GPS collection scheme constitutes a search  
6 because it gathers precise GPS coordinates reasonably traceable to individual  
7 scooter riders that reveal their movements and the locations where they live, work,  
8 and play. This is true regardless of the purported “anonymity” of the records, and  
9 irrespective of the privacy policies maintained by the private scooter operators.

10 **1. *Plaintiffs enjoy an expectation of privacy in GPS coordinates***  
11 ***revealing their vehicular movements and locations.***

12 MDS’s location gathering scheme works two related, but independent,  
13 invasions of Plaintiffs’ settled privacy expectations: the privacy of their vehicular  
14 movements, and the privacy of their locations. First, the Fourth Amendment has  
15 long been held to protect individuals’ expectations of privacy in their movements.  
16 *See, e.g., United States v. Bailey*, 628 F.2d 938, 949 (6th Cir. 1980) (Keith, J.,  
17 concurring) (citing cases showing that “privacy of movement itself is deserving of  
18 Fourth Amendment protections”). In *United States v. Jones*, five Justices extended  
19 this principle to GPS monitoring of a vehicle on a public road. 565 U.S. 400  
20 (2012). Relevant here, five Justices agreed that continuous GPS monitoring of a  
21 vehicle impinges upon expectations of privacy and therefore constitutes a search  
22 under the Fourth Amendment. *Jones*, 565 U.S. at 415 (Sotomayor, J., concurring);  
23 *id.* at 430 (Alito, J., concurring in the judgment) (long-term collection of vehicle’s  
24 GPS coordinates violates reasonable expectation of privacy). Relevant here, these  
25 concurring Justices reasoned that the practical protections afforded by the  
26 resource-intensive task of physical observations in the pre-digital age sufficiently  
27 protected individuals’ privacy in ways that continuous GPS tracking have rendered  
28 inadequate. *Id.* at 429 (Alito, J., concurring) (“In the pre-computer age, the greatest

1 protections of privacy were neither constitutional nor statutory, but practical.”); *id.*  
2 at 415–16 (Sotomayor, J., concurring) (“GPS monitoring . . . evades the ordinary  
3 checks that constrain abusive law enforcement practices: ‘limited police resources  
4 and community hostility.’ *Illinois v. Lidster*, 540 U.S. 419, 426 (2004).”).

5 The analysis in *Jones* applies to the constitutionality of LADOT’s system of  
6 mass automated GPS collection of scooter rides. As personal vehicles, MDS’s  
7 scooter tracking regime bears all the hallmarks of continuous monitoring that  
8 animated the concurring Justices’ concerns about the tracking device placed in  
9 *Jones*. First, MDS collects scooter movement data with a level of precision far  
10 greater than the device used 15 years ago in *Jones*. *Compare* Compl. ¶ 30  
11 (accuracy of MDS collection ranges from a few centimeters to a few dozen feet) to  
12 *Jones*, 565 U.S. at 403 (tracking device accurate within 50 to 100 feet). Second,  
13 MDS employs software code that automatically ingests location information in real  
14 time, on a continuous basis, in perpetuity, and maintains a large historical record of  
15 them—a level of invasion far greater than the 28 days’ worth of individual rides at  
16 issue in *Jones*. Compl. ¶ 25. Third, the precision of MDS location data threatens to  
17 create precisely the same “comprehensive record” about individuals’ habits as that  
18 which Justice Sotomayor warned about in *Jones*. *Id.* at 415 (Sotomayor, J.,  
19 concurring) (“GPS monitoring generates a precise, comprehensive record of a  
20 person’s public movements that reflects a wealth of detail about her familial,  
21 political, professional, religious, and sexual associations.”); *see* Compl. ¶¶ 26–29  
22 (describing sensitivity of location data). Since scooter riders enjoy exclusive  
23 possessory interests in the scooters when they rent them, the collection of their  
24 precise movement information violates a reasonable expectation of privacy. *See*  
25 *Lyall v. City of Los Angeles*, 807 F.3d 1178, 1187 & n.9 (9th Cir. 2015).

26 Beyond its concern with an individual’s movement, the Fourth Amendment  
27 independently protects personal location information from unnecessary collection  
28 by the government. Controlling here is the Supreme Court’s recent decision in

1 *Carpenter v. United States*, 138 S. Ct. 2206 (2018). *Carpenter* invalidated the  
2 warrantless collection of historical third-party cell site location information  
3 (“CSLI”), and rejected the application of the third-party doctrine to such  
4 collection.<sup>2</sup> The *Carpenter* Court held that the FBI violated the Fourth Amendment  
5 when, without a warrant based on probable cause, it requested five months of an  
6 individual’s historical CSLI from one wireless carrier and seven days of historical  
7 CSLI from another. Building upon the concurrences in *Jones*, it reasoned that the  
8 invasiveness of location information collected—even when individuals are in a  
9 public space—violates their expectations of privacy. “As with GPS information,  
10 the time-stamped data provides an intimate window into a person’s life, revealing  
11 not only his particular movements, but through them his ‘familial, political,  
12 professional, religious, and sexual associations.’” *Id.* at 2217 (quoting *Jones*, 565  
13 U.S. at 415 (Sotomayor, J., concurring)). This was true even though CSLI tracking  
14 is far less precise than GPS coordinates. *Id.* at 2219.

15 Like mobile phones, personal scooters operate as appendages of a person, at  
16 least during the pendency of a ride. *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2216 (describing both  
17 vehicle location and cell phone location as “detailed, encyclopedic, and effortlessly  
18 compiled”). And like cellular location tracking in *Carpenter*, automated vehicle  
19 location tracking here erodes expectations of privacy further because it “is  
20 remarkably easy, cheap, and efficient compared to traditional investigative tools.”  
21 *Id.* at 2217–18. The ease with which LADOT collects and stores detailed GPS  
22 records through automated software code makes the extraction, retention, and  
23 sharing of information to third parties similarly effortless. Compl. ¶¶ 23–25

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24  
25 <sup>2</sup> CSLI refers to the geographic segments created by the mesh of cellular  
26 radio antennas that provide cellular coverage in particular location segments.  
27 *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2211, 2219. When cellular phones connect to a network,  
28 the wireless carrier generates a time-stamped record of the location segment to  
which an individual cell phone connected. *Id.* These segments are much less  
precise than the GPS coordinates at issue here. *Id.*

1 (describing MDS’s automated location collection scheme); *see U.S. Dep’t of*  
2 *Justice v. Reporters Comm. for Freedom of the Press*, 489 U.S. 749, 764 (1989)  
3 (“Plainly there is a vast difference between the public records that might be found  
4 after a diligent search of [various third parties’ records] and a computerized  
5 summary located in a single clearinghouse of information.”); *In re Google*  
6 *Location History Litig.*, 428 F. Supp. 3d 185, 198 (N.D. Cal. 2019) (distinguishing  
7 intrusive “automatic” search of “*all of Plaintiffs movements*” as categorically more  
8 intrusive than collection of “only specific movements or locations”).

9 MDS’s data collection scheme gathers and retains both real-time *and*  
10 historical location and movement information, further deepening its intrusion upon  
11 Plaintiffs’ expectations of privacy. *See* Compl. ¶ 25 (describing real-time and near  
12 real-time elements of MDS’s location collection). “While the law enforcement  
13 tactic employed in *Jones*—attaching a GPS tracking device to a vehicle—required  
14 the police to know in advance that they want to follow a particular individual, the  
15 tactic employed here—accessing a historical database of GPS information—means  
16 that whoever the suspect turns out to be, he has effectively been tailed for the  
17 entire period covered by the database.” *United States v. Diggs*, 385 F. Supp. 3d  
18 648, 652 (N.D. Ill. 2019) (quoting *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2218; internal  
19 quotations omitted); *see United States v. Chavez*, No. 15-CR-00285-LHK, 2019  
20 WL 1003357, at \*11 (N.D. Cal. Mar. 1, 2019) (discussing real-time location  
21 tracking as opposed to historical data collection); *United States v. Ellis*, 270 F.  
22 Supp. 3d 1134, 1145–46 (N.D. Cal. 2017) (same). By targeting *every* scooter rider  
23 as they ride, and maintaining information about *every ride* in perpetuity, MDS  
24 undoubtedly effectuates a search under *Carpenter* and *Jones*.

25 This conclusion accords with the Supreme Court’s instruction to “assure  
26 preservation of that degree of privacy against government that existed when the  
27 Fourth Amendment was adopted.” *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2214 (quoting *Kyllo*,  
28 533 U.S. at 34); *Jones*, 565 U.S. at 406 (same quote) (majority opinion) & 420

1 (same quote) (Alito, J., concurring). And that degree of privacy surely prevented  
2 governmental monitoring of every vehicle ride, regardless of the length of each  
3 trip. After all, at the time of the Fourth Amendment’s adoption, the government  
4 could not instantaneously track every rented horse and carriage on a public street,  
5 nor call up a historical record of those movements over time. Nor did the  
6 expectation of privacy held by the people of that era allow for the government to  
7 follow their horse or carriage everywhere, at all times, on every trip, even if a  
8 constable could permissibly tail a particular carriage for a short period of time.

9 **2. LADOT’s insistence on the “anonymity” of MDS data does**  
10 **not alter the search analysis.**

11 In seeking dismissal of Plaintiffs’ search claims, LADOT mischaracterizes  
12 MDS data as “anonymized” and argues that it therefore raises no Fourth  
13 Amendment concerns. Mot. at 11. This is both wrong on the facts as alleged, and  
14 irrelevant to the legal question.

15 As a threshold matter, the extent to which MDS’s location data includes  
16 other explicit information such as the names of individual riders is irrelevant to  
17 whether the collection of precise historical and real-time location coordinates  
18 constitutes a search. The degree to which exact movement or location  
19 information—indeed, *any* detailed private dataset about people—can be linked  
20 directly or probabilistically to an individual is a function of the size and precision  
21 of the dataset itself, the additional information available to LADOT to identify  
22 individual riders, and the resources—in this case, merely time—LADOT or  
23 another entity wishes to expend on identification.

24 Plaintiffs’ Complaint alleges that the greater precision of movement and  
25 location data, the easier the government can identify with confidence specific  
26 individuals within the dataset. Compl. ¶¶ 26–28 (citing relevant academic and  
27 industry research on privacy and data science). Given the exact coordinates that  
28 MDS collects, LADOT (or any third party that LADOT shares data with) needs to

1 expend relatively few resources to identify Plaintiffs’ trips within MDS’s tranche  
 2 of data, particularly because they ride scooters to and from locations that can be  
 3 easily traced to them (*e.g.*, their homes and workplaces, *see* Compl. ¶ 8). Whether  
 4 a City entity—be it LADOT or, for instance, the Los Angeles Police Department—  
 5 utilizes MDS data to identify Plaintiffs or any other rider is irrelevant to whether  
 6 the Fourth Amendment limits its collection in the first instance.<sup>3</sup>

7 For this reason, the *Carpenter* Court discussed the danger inherent in how  
 8 the “Government *could*, in combination with other information, deduce a detailed  
 9 log of Carpenter’s movements” in a fashion that violates expectations of privacy.  
 10 *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2218 (emphasis added); *see Kylllo*, 533 U.S. at 38  
 11 (recognizing that “there is no necessary connection between the sophistication of  
 12 the surveillance equipment and the ‘intimacy’ of the details that it observes—

13 \_\_\_\_\_  
 14 <sup>3</sup> Relying on extrinsic evidence, LADOT claims that its internal policies  
 15 prohibit sharing raw trip data with law enforcement. Mot. at 4–5 (citing Dkt. 19-7,  
 16 “Data Protection Principles”). As stated more fully in Plaintiffs’ Response to  
 17 LADOT’s Request for Judicial Notice, Plaintiffs oppose consideration of the  
 18 *contents* of documents not relied upon in their Complaint. *See* Dkt. 24. “[A] district  
 19 court may not consider any material beyond the pleadings in ruling on a Rule  
 20 12(b)(6) motion.” *Lee v. City of Los Angeles*, 250 F.3d 668, 688 (9th Cir. 2001).  
 21 Second, Plaintiffs dispute what the Principles mean, how they are implemented,  
 22 and whether they provide assurances against the unreasonable collection of  
 23 sensitive information concerning Plaintiffs. *Id.* at 689 (Federal Rule of Evidence  
 24 201(b) prevents a court from taking “judicial notice of a fact that is subject to  
 25 reasonable dispute”). Even if considered, the Principles are of no Fourth  
 26 Amendment consequence. Recent history demonstrates that assurances  
 27 municipalities make regarding limiting law enforcement access to individuals’ data  
 28 are often circumvented or ignored. *See, e.g.*, Jesse Marx, “Smart Streetlights Are  
 Now Exclusively a Tool for Police,” VOICE OF SAN DIEGO (July 20, 2020),  
<https://www.voiceofsandiego.org/topics/public-safety/smart-streetlights-are-now-exclusively-a-tool-for-police/>;  
 Laura Wenus, “S.F. Police Accessed Private Cameras to Surveil Protesters, Digital Privacy Group Reveals,” SAN FRANCISCO  
 PUBLIC PRESS (July 28, 2020), <https://sfpublicpress.org/sf-police-accessed-private-cameras-to-surveil-protesters-digital-privacy-group-reveals/>. The Fourth  
 Amendment question concerns the *collection* of sensitive information, not what  
 municipalities publicly commit to doing with that information post-collection.



1 which means that one cannot say (and the police cannot be assured) that use of the  
2 relatively crude equipment at issue here will always be lawful.”); *Naperville Smart*  
3 *Meter Awareness v. City of Naperville*, 900 F.3d 521, 526 (7th Cir. 2018) (holding  
4 that compelling use of “smart” electricity meters in homes constitutes a search  
5 even though “observers of smart-meter data must make some inferences to  
6 conclude, for instance, that an occupant is showering, or eating, or sleeping”).

7 In any event, LADOT’s attempt to dismiss Plaintiffs’ search claims as a  
8 matter of law is premature. The question whether MDS data can be reasonably or  
9 confidently associated with individual riders raises a factual question that must be  
10 decided in Plaintiffs’ favor at this stage. *Dahlia v. Rodriguez*, 735 F.3d 1060, 1076  
11 (9th Cir. 2013) (“our task is not to resolve any factual dispute” regarding  
12 disposition of a Rule 12(b)(6) motion); *Daniels-Hall v. Nat’l Educ. Ass’n*, 629 F.3d  
13 992, 998 (9th Cir. 2010) (“We accept as true all well-pleaded allegations of  
14 material fact, and construe them in the light most favorable to the non-moving  
15 party.”). Assessing this question requires determining the precision of MDS data,  
16 analyzing the habits of scooter riders, and conducting a probabilistic, scientific  
17 inquiry into the identifiability of precise movement information. Plaintiffs  
18 plausibly allege, based upon citations to existing literature, that associating  
19 location and scooter movement data with individuals is relatively simple—an  
20 allegation the Court must credit at this stage of the proceeding. Compl. ¶¶ 31–32;  
21 *Cf. Garcia v. Country Wide Fin. Corp.*, No. 07-1161 VAP (JCRx), 2008 WL  
22 7842104, at \*6 (C.D. Cal. Jan. 17, 2008) (plaintiff “is not required at the pleading  
23 stage to produce statistical evidence proving a disparate impact”); *Turocy v. El*  
24 *Pollo Loco Holdings, Inc.*, No. 15-1343 DOC (KESx), 2017 WL 3328543, at \*14  
25 n.2 (C.D. Cal. Aug. 4, 2017) (statistical dispute concerning whether certain  
26 information was misleading in securities fraud action cannot be decided on motion  
27 to dismiss).

28

1                   **3. Privacy policies set by scooter companies do not change the**  
2                   **constitutional nature of the search nor warrant prematurely**  
3                   **dismissing Plaintiffs’ constitutional claims.**

4                   LADOT’s Motion makes much of the scooter operators’ privacy policies,  
5                   claiming that varying language contained within them constitute “agreements”  
6                   with Plaintiffs that vitiate whatever expectations of privacy Plaintiffs hold in their  
7                   location and movements. In raising this argument, LADOT makes three errors: it  
8                   prematurely introduces disputed extrinsic evidence at the motion-to-dismiss stage;  
9                   it ignores precedent and principles from cases limiting the legal impact of privacy  
10                  policies on expectations of privacy; and it misconstrues the applicability of the  
11                  third-party doctrine to location collection facilitated by joint private-public action.

12                  First, LADOT inappropriately relies on extraneous evidence to seek  
13                  dismissal, when Plaintiffs’ plausible allegations demonstrate that neither they nor  
14                  the scooter operators waived Plaintiffs’ expectations of privacy. In support of its  
15                  Motion, LADOT seeks judicial notice of various privacy policies of scooter  
16                  companies that it purports indicate Plaintiffs’ “agreement” to disclose their  
17                  location data to LADOT. Mot. at 12–14. This is inappropriate, because Plaintiffs  
18                  dispute that they *in fact* voluntarily and knowingly disclaimed their expectations of  
19                  privacy via these privacy policies, and their Complaint does not rely upon or  
20                  reference these policies. *See* Part I.A.2 n.3 *supra* & Dkt. 24 (opposing LADOT’s  
21                  Request for Judicial Notice).

22                  Second, LADOT’s argument fails as a matter of law. It ignores precedent  
23                  rejecting the third-party doctrine for intrusions upon individual’s locational privacy  
24                  rights, and decisions casting doubt on whether privacy notices can waive  
25                  individuals’ deeply held expectations of privacy as against government intrusion.  
26                  For one, *Carpenter* explicitly declined to extend the third-party doctrine to location  
27                  collection in a context where the proper functioning of an essential service (there,  
28                  operation of a mobile telephone) necessitated disclosure to a third party.

1 *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2220 (noting that “a cell phone logs a cell-site record by  
2 dint of its operation, without . . . [a] way to avoid leaving behind a trail of location  
3 data. As a result, in no meaningful sense does the user voluntarily ‘assume the risk’  
4 of turning over a comprehensive dossier of his physical movements.”; quoting  
5 *Smith v. Maryland*, 442 U.S. 735, 745 (1979)). Renting a shared scooter requires  
6 an individual disclose her location and movement information to the company to  
7 rent a particular scooter and be assessed a fee for its use. A rider thus no more  
8 voluntarily discloses location information to a scooter company than does a cell  
9 phone user to a mobile telephone provider.

10 Further, privacy policies do not make enforceable contracts, and are not  
11 designed to bind consumers. For one, they are rarely read or understood by  
12 consumers. *See United States v. Nosal*, 676 F.3d 854, 861 (9th Cir. 2012) (en banc)  
13 (“Our access to . . . remote computers is governed by a series of private agreements  
14 and policies that most people are only dimly aware of and virtually no one reads or  
15 understands.”); “FTC Staff Issues Privacy Report, Offers Framework for  
16 Consumers, Businesses, and Policymakers,” Fed. Trade Comm’n (Dec. 1, 2010),  
17 <http://bit.ly/ftcstaffissues> (noting that the “notice-and-choice model, as  
18 implemented, has led to long, incomprehensible privacy policies that consumers  
19 typically do not read, let alone understand”). In any event, the Supreme Court  
20 recently rejected the argument that Fourth Amendment rights can be determined by  
21 private form contracts. In *Byrd v. United States*, 138 S. Ct. 1518 (2018), the Court  
22 held that drivers have a reasonable expectation of privacy in a rental car even when  
23 they drive the car in violation of the rental agreement. *Id.* at 1529 (rental  
24 agreements, like terms of service or privacy policies, “concern risk allocation  
25 between private parties. . . . But that risk allocation has little to do with whether  
26 one would have a reasonable expectation of privacy in the rental car if, for  
27 example, he or she otherwise has lawful possession of and control over the car.”).

28 *Byrd* follows a line of cases where courts have declined to find private

1 contracts dispositive of individuals’ expectations of privacy. In *United States v.*  
2 *Thomas*, for instance, the Ninth Circuit held that the “technical violation of a  
3 leasing contract” alone is insufficient to vitiate an unauthorized renter’s legitimate  
4 expectation of privacy in a rental car. 447 F.3d 1191, 1198 (9th Cir. 2006); *cf.*  
5 *United States v. Yang*, 958 F.3d 851 (9th Cir. 2020).<sup>4</sup> And in *United States v.*  
6 *Owens*, the Tenth Circuit did not let a motel’s private terms govern the lodger’s  
7 expectation of privacy, noting, “[a]ll motel guests cannot be expected to be  
8 familiar with the detailed internal policies and bookkeeping procedures of the inns  
9 where they lodge.” 782 F.2d 146, 150 (10th Cir. 1986). This principle aligns with  
10 the Supreme Court’s caution against allowing individual companies’ privacy  
11 policies to “make a crazy quilt of the Fourth Amendment.” *Smith*, 442 U.S. at 745.

12 Third, LADOT ignores its own role in compelling the disclosure of  
13 Plaintiffs’ data, recasting its data-sharing mandate as a voluntary bargain entered  
14 into between scooter riders and scooter operators. Mot. at 11. Yet it is precisely  
15 LADOT that forces operators to provide Plaintiffs’ location data, rather than  
16 exploiting an already existing tranche of locations that Plaintiffs have voluntarily  
17 provided to public agencies. Plaintiffs’ “choice to share data imposed by fiat is no  
18 choice at all.” *Naperville Smart Meter Awareness*, 900 F.3d at 527. Real-time  
19 tracking is quintessentially a case of the government “requiring a third party to  
20 collect” information, *In re Application of U.S. for Historical Cell Site Data*, 724  
21 F.3d 600, 610 (5th Cir. 2013), which has always constituted a Fourth Amendment  
22 search. *Skinner v. Ry. Labor Executives’ Ass’n*, 489 U.S. 602, 614 (1989) (“[T]he  
23 [Fourth] Amendment protects against such intrusions if the private party acted as

24

25 <sup>4</sup> Although the court in *Yang* held that the defendant did not have a  
26 reasonable expectation of privacy in a rental car past the expiration of the rental  
27 agreement, it reaffirmed that mere technical violation of the agreement alone was  
28 insufficient to nullify the defendant’s expectation of privacy. 958 F.3d at 861.  
Moreover, *Yang* was arguably wrongly decided considering the Supreme Court’s  
decision in *Byrd*.

1 an instrument or agent of the Government.”). For these reasons, LADOT errs in  
 2 placing any weight upon the privacy policies that scooter operators force their  
 3 customers to agree to—policies that, in any event, are not bilateral agreements and,  
 4 as such, may only be relied upon and enforced by scooter users rather than scooter  
 5 operators.<sup>5</sup>

6 **B. MDS’s location collection is unreasonable and not tethered to**  
 7 **legitimate government purposes.**

8 Having established that the collection of precise movement and location  
 9 records constitutes a search, the Court must now “examin[e] the totality of the  
 10 circumstances to determine whether [the] search is reasonable within the meaning  
 11 of the Fourth Amendment.” *Samson v. California*, 547 U.S. 843, 848 (2006)  
 12 (internal quotation marks omitted). The reasonableness of administrative or special  
 13 needs searches requires balancing (1) “the nature of the privacy interest allegedly  
 14 compromised” by the search, (2) “the character of the intrusion imposed” by the  
 15 Government, and (3) “the nature and immediacy of the government’s concerns and  
 16 the efficacy of the [search] in meeting them.” *See Bd. of Educ. of Indep. Sch. Dist.*  
 17 *No. 92 v. Earls*, 536 U.S. 822, 830–34 (2002).

18 A review of the *Earls* factors reveals that MDS’s location gathering mandate  
 19 is unreasonable. First, collection of precise location and movement information *en*  
 20 *masse* is uniquely intrusive of Plaintiffs’ expectations of privacy, and occurs  
 21 without any meaningful mitigation. Second, Plaintiffs plausibly allege that  
 22 LADOT possesses no meaningful justification for the collection of precise location  
 23

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24 <sup>5</sup> The scooter companies themselves vigorously protested the use of MDS to  
 25 collect precise location records from them, both in advocacy and in litigation. *See,*  
 26 *e.g.*, Compl. ¶ 40. LADOT forcing the companies to notify their riders about  
 27 location disclosure, over the companies’ objections, cannot reasonably be  
 28 construed as a voluntary agreement between the companies and riders. *Cf. Smith*,  
 442 U.S. at 740 n.5 (the government may not destroy an otherwise reasonable  
 expectation of privacy by putting the public on notice that it will do so).

1 information, let alone a reasonable one. Third, even if LADOT proffered a  
 2 legitimate justification, it fails to provide a meaningful opportunity for pre-  
 3 compliance review or any kind of neutral arbitration.

4 **1. *The nature and character of MDS’s automated and pervasive***  
 5 ***collection of location information is deeply invasive.***

6 As explained in Part I.A above, MDS’s deployment of an “easy, cheap, and  
 7 efficient” GPS tracking regime invades the sacrosanct privacy interests Plaintiffs  
 8 have over their movement and location information. *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at  
 9 2217–18. The strength of this interest supports Plaintiffs’ position.

10 The character of MDS’s intrusion into these privacy interests is likewise  
 11 deeply invasive. When considering whether a search is minimally or substantially  
 12 intrusive, courts evaluate a variety of factors, including, *inter alia*, “the duration of  
 13 the search or stop, the manner in which government agents determine which  
 14 individual to search, the notice given to individuals that they are subject to search  
 15 and the opportunity to avoid the search . . . as well as the methods employed in the  
 16 search.” *Cassidy v. Chertoff*, 471 F.3d 67, 78–79 (2d Cir. 2006) (collecting  
 17 Supreme Court precedent; internal citations omitted). None of these factors inure  
 18 to LADOT’s benefit. MDS compels the collection and retention of *all* trip data  
 19 from *every* vehicle operator on a continuous, automated basis—irrespective of who  
 20 the rider is, without any notifications, and with no way for riders to avoid the  
 21 collection or opt out of the scheme. Compl. ¶¶ 25, 30.<sup>6</sup> It is therefore neither  
 22 “limited in scope, relevant in purpose, [nor] specific in directive.” *See v. City of*  
 23

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24 <sup>6</sup> LADOT’s discussion of the City of Los Angeles’ general authority to  
 25 create a data collection and regulatory scheme is therefore irrelevant to the precise  
 26 Fourth Amendment question before the Court, which concerns a subset of  
 27 LADOT’s scooter permitting program that demands collection of maximally  
 28 precise location records. *See* Mot. 5–7. If the GPS collection mandate did not exist,  
 or was significantly altered to preclude association with individual riders, the  
 Fourth Amendment analysis changes significantly.

1 *Seattle*, 387 U.S. 541, 544 (1967); *see Airbnb, Inc. v. City of New York*, 373 F.  
2 Supp. 3d 467, 494 (S.D.N.Y. 2019) (continuous, monthly short-term rental  
3 registries “cannot be credibly described as ‘limited in scope’”); *Willner v.*  
4 *Thornburgh*, 928 F.2d 1185, 1190 (D.C. Cir. 1991) (whether the person had  
5 “notice of an impending intrusion” and had a “large measure of control over  
6 whether he or she will be subject to” the search discussed as mitigating factors in  
7 the reasonableness analysis).

8 LADOT’s reference to extrinsic statements made in an outside LADOT  
9 document called the “Data Protection Principles” does not change this analysis.  
10 Not only is consideration of the Principles inappropriate at the motion to dismiss  
11 stage and inappropriate as subject of judicial notice, *see* Part I.A.2 n.3 *supra*, the  
12 document on its face fails to provide the reasonable protections necessary to dull  
13 the impact of MDS’s invasive search scheme. It states LADOT will engage in  
14 “data minimization” practices “where possible,” without making such a  
15 commitment categorically and without specifying any methods for minimization.  
16 *See* Dkt. 19-7 at 124. Further, the document’s characterization of GPS data as  
17 “vehicle data,” as opposed to “individual data,” *id.* at 123, is belied by the fact that  
18 the collected data pertains to individual *rides*, not individual *vehicles*. The  
19 Principles do little to mitigate the prospect that Plaintiffs’ precise location and  
20 movement data will be collected or abused, since they do not “provide *specific*  
21 limitations on the manner and place of the search so as to limit the possibility of  
22 abuse.” *Tarabochia v. Adkins*, 766 F.3d 1115, 1122 (9th Cir. 2014) (emphasis  
23 added); *see Earls*, 536 U.S. at 852 (Ginsburg, J., dissenting) (“There is a difference  
24 between imperfect tailoring and no tailoring at all.”). For these reasons, the  
25 intrusiveness of the search and the nature of the information collected weigh  
26 heavily against LADOT.

27

28

1                   **2.     LADOT fails to proffer a specific regulatory interest furthered**  
2                   **by collecting Plaintiffs’ precise location and movement data.**

3                   On the other side of the ledger, LADOT’s Motion fails to articulate a  
4 reasonable or rational basis for collecting Plaintiffs’ precise location and  
5 movement data. Plaintiffs allege that while LADOT published a top-line message  
6 about using MDS to “[a]ctively manage private companies who operate in our  
7 public space,” it failed to articulate specific purposes for why MDS must collect  
8 precise, granular location data. Compl. ¶ 34. LADOT’s Motion does not address  
9 these allegations, and does not offer any justification beyond a conclusory  
10 statement that the scooter permitting application, and compliance with MDS,  
11 “promot[es] public safety and ensur[es] efficient use of dockless devices.” Mot. at  
12 11. But the Court may “not simply accept the [government’s] invocation of a  
13 ‘special need.’” *Ferguson v. City of Charleston*, 532 U.S. 67, 81 (2001). Instead, it  
14 must undertake “a ‘close review’ of the scheme at issue.” *Id.* (quoting *Chandler v.*  
15 *Miller*, 520 U.S. 305, 321 (1997)). LADOT’s insistence on the legality of  
16 regulating scooter companies *in general* is therefore irrelevant to whether the  
17 *location tracking requirement* is constitutionally reasonable.

18                   A review of Plaintiffs’ allegations reveals that MDS’s location collection  
19 scheme is unsupported by any specific regulatory purpose. LADOT developed the  
20 data collection scheme to experiment with data collection, rather than to address  
21 legitimate regulatory needs. Compl. ¶ 35. At the time of the Complaints’ filing,  
22 LADOT had failed to respond to a binding Los Angeles City Council directive to  
23 provide “specific regulatory purposes for the collection and use of each type of  
24 data required by MDS” by February 25. Compl. ¶ 39. Further, the City Council’s  
25 mandate to LADOT to create a permitting program included requirements that did  
26 not need, or are otherwise ill-served by, MDS’s location gathering scheme. *See,*  
27 *e.g.*, Compl. ¶ 37 (citing example of geographic vehicle distributions as not  
28 requiring GPS coordinates of riders). LADOT’s Motion does not include any



1 specific use cases that *require* the collection of granular GPS coordinates, despite  
 2 the program being in effect for over one year. *McMorris v. Alioto*, 567 F.2d 897,  
 3 899 (9th Cir. 1978) (administrative searches of public places “must be limited and  
 4 no more intrusive than necessary to protect against the danger to be avoided, but  
 5 nevertheless reasonably effective to discover the materials sought.”). It is therefore  
 6 not “limited in its intrusiveness as is consistent with satisfaction of the  
 7 administrative need that justifies it.” *United States v. Grey*, 959 F.3d 1166, 1183  
 8 (9th Cir. 2020) (internal citation omitted).

9 That MDS’s searches occur in an administrative, not criminal, context does  
 10 not change this analysis. Warrant requirements for administrative searches may  
 11 stand even in the absence of criminal penalties for failure to abide by the  
 12 regulatory scheme. *Marshall v. Barlow’s, Inc.*, 436 U.S. 307, 318 n.13 (1978)  
 13 (invalidating administrative scheme concerning worksite inspections despite the  
 14 scheme’s failure to criminalize refusal of inspections). The searches here are no  
 15 less invasive because they occur outside of a criminal law enforcement setting.  
 16 *Safaie v. City of Los Angeles*, No. 19-3921 FMO (PJWx), 2020 WL 2501450, at \*2  
 17 (C.D. Cal. Mar. 23, 2020) (“*Jones* itself does not suggest that its holding is limited  
 18 to searches relating to potential criminal violations.”).<sup>7</sup>

19 **3. LADOT fails to provide riders a meaningful opportunity for**  
 20 **pre-compliance review or any mode of neutral arbitration.**

21 MDS’s location gathering mandates, like other “searches conducted outside  
 22 the judicial process, without prior approval by a judge or a magistrate judge, are  
 23

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24 <sup>7</sup> Notably, LADOT employs a sizeable enforcement division that enforces  
 25 street safety rules and regulations, including for scooter riders. See “What We Do,”  
 26 LADOT Parking Enforcement, [https://ladotparking.azurewebsites.net/parking-](https://ladotparking.azurewebsites.net/parking-enforcement/)  
 27 [enforcement/](https://ladotparking.azurewebsites.net/parking-enforcement/) (last visited Aug. 11, 2020) (stating that “LADOT traffic officers  
 28 enforce all parking laws in the California Vehicle Code and Los Angeles  
 Municipal Code,” issued 2.3 million citations last year, and “recover over 4,000  
 stolen vehicles annually”).

1 *per se* unreasonable subject only to a few specifically established and well-  
2 delineated exceptions.” *City of Los Angeles, Calif. v. Patel*, 576 U.S. 409, 419  
3 (2015) (internal quotations and citation omitted). Whether that is in the form of an  
4 administrative subpoena, administrative review, or other means, suspicionless  
5 invasions on established expectations of privacy in the administrative context  
6 require some neutral evaluation to be reasonable. *Id.* at 420. MDS provides for  
7 none of this, either for the operators or for riders like Plaintiffs.

8 LADOT claims that such pre-compliance review is unnecessary, arguing  
9 that scooters (or perhaps vehicles in general) are “closely regulated industries” that  
10 form an exception to the general administrative search requirements. Not so. The  
11 *Patel* Court emphasized that the “closely regulated industry” exception to ordinary  
12 Fourth Amendment rules is a narrow one that the Court has only applied to four  
13 industries (liquor sales, firearms dealing, mining, and running an automobile  
14 junkyard) with a “history of government oversight.” *Patel*, 576 U.S. at 424.  
15 Scooters specifically, and public vehicle ride shares generally, are not among them.  
16 In *Patel*, even a highly regulated industry like hotel management did not fall within  
17 this category, let alone a novel industry like vehicle ride shares and electronic  
18 scooters. *Id.* at 425 (“History is relevant when determining whether an industry is  
19 closely regulated.”).

20 LADOT relies heavily on a line of cases brought by taxi cab drivers in New  
21 York and Washington, D.C., challenging various regulatory rules that require cab  
22 operators to transmit data concerning their business to regulatory authorities. *Mot.*  
23 at 9–11 (citing cases). But expectations of privacy at workplaces in regulated  
24 industries diminish markedly as compared to those that private individuals enjoy  
25 outside of working hours. *Skinner*, 489 U.S. at 627 (in considering railroad  
26 workers, “the expectations of privacy of covered employees are diminished by  
27 reason of their participation in an industry that is regulated pervasively to ensure  
28 safety, a goal dependent, in substantial part, on the health and fitness of covered

1 employees.”); see *Buliga v. New York City Taxi Limousine Comm’n*, No. 07 CIV.  
2 6507 (DLC), 2007 WL 4547738, at \*2 (S.D.N.Y. Dec. 21, 2007) (“Adults who  
3 choose to participate in a heavily regulated industry, such as the taxicab industry,  
4 have a diminished expectation of privacy, particularly in information related to the  
5 goals of the industry regulation.”). The GPS requirement challenged in those cases  
6 does not appear to be any more invasive than the pre-digital requirement that cab  
7 drivers record start and location points. *Id.* (“Taxicabs in New York City have long  
8 been subject to regulation by the TLC, and those regulations have required  
9 cabdrivers to report not only the times and locations of trips but also the amount of  
10 fares.”); *Carniol v. New York City Taxi & Limousine Comm’n*, 975 N.Y.S.2d 842,  
11 845 (Sup. Ct. 2013) (regulations were designed in part to prevent persistent  
12 problem with overcharging of fares to riders).

13 Conversely, owners and renters of private scooters expect no such  
14 regulation, and no history of regulatory necessity demands scooter companies  
15 provide detailed start, stop, and route information to regulators. *Patel*, 576 U.S. at  
16 424 (exceptions for closely regulated business are to be construed narrowly).  
17 Indeed, few scooter riders, if any, would know that LADOT collects *en masse* their  
18 GPS coordinates. See *Carniol*, 975 N.Y.S.2d at 848 (diminished expectation of  
19 privacy in part due to notice provided to drivers of the GPS collection system).

20 Even if some strained interpretation of “closely regulated” industries could  
21 encompass electronic scooter sharing, MDS fails the three additional criteria that  
22 such industries must establish to survive Fourth Amendment scrutiny: (1) the  
23 search must be informed by a substantial government interest; (2) the search must  
24 be necessary to further the regulatory scheme; and (3) the search program must  
25 provide a constitutionally adequate substitute for a warrant. *Patel*, 576 U.S. at 426.  
26 Plaintiffs allege that LADOT possesses no substantial government interest in  
27 collecting precise location information, and communicated none in response to the  
28 City’s request. Compl. ¶¶ 34–40. Plaintiffs also plausibly allege that individualized

1 location gathering is not necessary to advance broad-based transportation planning  
 2 goals, and certainly not with the availability of privacy-preserving techniques that  
 3 can dramatically cut the sensitivity and precision of the data. *Id.* Finally, MDS  
 4 provides riders with *zero* protections or reviews; riders must, without any  
 5 knowledge, provide their location and movement information as a condition of  
 6 riding an electric scooter within City limits, and have no way to know that such a  
 7 location gathering scheme exists other than if they are regular readers of niche  
 8 transportation industry press. *Id.* at ¶ 32.

9 **II. PLAINTIFFS MAY SEEK RELIEF UNDER CALECPA FOR**  
 10 **LADOT’S UNLAWFUL LOCATION COLLECTION.**

11 When the Legislature enacted CalECPA in 2015, it intended to clarify and  
 12 strengthen the legal protections against government access to electronic  
 13 information that existed at the time, including under the federal and California  
 14 Constitutions and the restrictions in the federal Electronic Communications  
 15 Privacy Act.<sup>8</sup> Protecting people’s location information is at the core of CalECPA’s  
 16 rigorous requirements. *See* Cal. Pen. Code §§ 1546(d) (including location  
 17 information in the definition of “electronic communication information”); 1546(g)  
 18 (including location information in the definition of “electronic device  
 19 information.”).

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23 <sup>8</sup> *See* Assem. Comm. on Privacy & Consumer Protection, Analysis of SB  
 24 178, as amended June 2, 2015, p. 6 (“Unfortunately, technology continued to  
 25 advance rapidly since the [federal ECPA’s] inception nearly 30 years ago and  
 26 amendments to the Act have not always kept pace. . . . The author contends that the  
 27 federal statute ‘has not been meaningfully updated to account for modern  
 28 technology,’ ... [and] also cites a variety of situations where California law already  
 explicitly requires a warrant for many kinds of information . . . . As a result, the  
 author and supporters believe that existing law is insufficient to protect all forms of  
 electronic communications and their meta-data . . .”).

1           **A. CalECPA applies to all government entities; it is not limited to the**  
 2           **criminal context.**

3           LADOT argues that CalECPA’s presence in the Penal Code, and the  
 4 language of Penal Code Section 690, limit the application of CalECPA to criminal  
 5 actions. Mot. at 14–16. LADOT’s argument cannot be squared with the text of  
 6 CalECPA and misreads Section 690.

7           The Court’s analysis of CalECPA must begin with the language of the  
 8 statute. If a statute’s language is clear, then “the Legislature is presumed to have  
 9 meant what it said, and the plain meaning of the language governs.” *Kizer v.*  
 10 *Hanna*, 48 Cal. 3d 1, 8 (1989). Here, CalECPA explicitly limits government access  
 11 to information by prohibiting “government entities” from compelling the  
 12 production of electronic communication information or electronic device  
 13 information without appropriate legal process, like a search warrant, wiretap order,  
 14 or subpoena. Cal. Pen. Code §1546.1(a)–(c).

15           This prohibition applies to all “government entities,” and is not limited to  
 16 criminal actions. CalECPA defines “government entity” as “a department or  
 17 agency of the state or a political individual acting for or on behalf of the state or a  
 18 political subdivision thereof.” Cal. Pen. Code §1546(5)(i). And the City of Los  
 19 Angeles is a political subdivision of the state, both under California law<sup>9</sup> and

20 \_\_\_\_\_  
 21           <sup>9</sup> Statutory definitions of “political subdivision” throughout California law  
 22 include cities. *See* Cal. Gov. Code § 8698 (a political subdivision is defined as “the  
 23 state, any city, city and county, county, special district, or school district or public  
 24 agency authorized by law”); Cal. Gov. Code § 8557 (defining “political  
 25 subdivision” as any city, city and county, county, district, or other local  
 26 governmental agency or public agency authorized by law”); Cal. Elec. Code  
 27 § 14026 (a political subdivision is defined as “a geographic area of representation  
 28 created for the provision of government services, including, but not limited to, a  
 general law county, charter city, charter city and county, school district,  
 community college district, or other district organized pursuant to state law”); Cal.  
 Pub. Util. Code § 1402 (a political subdivision is defined as “a county, city and  
 county, city, municipal water district, county water district, irrigation district,

(cont’d)

1 federal ECPA.<sup>10</sup> The Court’s analysis should end here: as a government entity, the  
 2 City of Los Angeles must comply with CalECPA.

3 Even if the Court were to seek further inquiry, CalECPA’s placement in the  
 4 Penal Code is irrelevant, as demonstrated by the directly analogous Federal ECPA.  
 5 Like CalECPA, the limitations on government access to information in federal  
 6 ECPA apply to all “governmental entities,” defined as “a department or agency of  
 7 the United States or any State or political subdivision thereof.” 18 U.S.C.  
 8 § 2711(4). Agencies with solely civil law-enforcement authority like the Federal  
 9 Trade Commission must comply with ECPA’s limits.<sup>11</sup> *See F.T.C. v. Netscape*  
 10 *Commc’ns Corp.*, 196 F.R.D. 559, 559 (N.D. Cal. 2000) (holding that the FTC  
 11 could not compel production of documents because of ECPA’s limits on  
 12 government entities’ access to information). This is despite the fact that, like  
 13 CalECPA, federal ECPA is located in the section of the United States Code  
 14 addressing crimes and criminal procedure, Title 18. Like its federal precursor,  
 15 CalECPA applies to *all* government entities seeking access to information, and is  
 16 not limited by its location in the code.

17 Other provisions of CalECPA confirm that it applies beyond criminal  
 18 actions. First, one way that government entities can comply with CalECPA is  
 19 through “a subpoena issued pursuant to existing state law,” so long as that  
 20 subpoena is “not sought for the purpose of investigating or prosecuting a criminal  
 21 offense.” Cal. Pen. Code §1546.1(b)(4). Similarly, CalECPA allows government

22 \_\_\_\_\_  
 23 public utility district, or any other public corporation”); Cal. Lab. Code § 1721 (a  
 24 political subdivision “includes any county, city, district, public housing authority,  
 or public agency of the state, and assessment or improvement districts”).

25 <sup>10</sup> *Doe v. City of San Diego*, No. 12-CV-0689-MMA DHB, 2013 WL  
 26 2338713, at \*4 (S.D. Cal. May 28, 2013) (holding that “the City of San Diego and  
 the San Diego Police Department are clearly ‘governmental entities’ within the  
 27 meaning of [ECPA].”).

28 <sup>11</sup> The Federal Trade Commission is directed by statute to certify any  
 criminal matters to the Department of Justice. 15 U.S.C. § 56(b).

1 entities to “use an ... administrative or civil discovery subpoena” to reach certain  
2 kinds of information. Cal. Pen. Code § 1546.1(i). CalECPA simply cannot be  
3 limited to criminal actions when some provisions apply *only* if the government is  
4 *not* investigating or prosecuting a crime.

5 Second, CalECPA’s exceptions demonstrate that all government demands  
6 for electronic information are within its scope. In particular, Section 1546.1(j)  
7 allows the Public Utilities Commission (“PUC”) and State Energy Resources  
8 Conservation and Development Commission (“SERCDC”) to obtain energy or  
9 water supply and consumption information under applicable state laws. Cal. Pen.  
10 Code § 1546.1(j). If CalECPA only applied to criminal proceedings, there would  
11 be no need for an exception for access to energy and water-supply information by  
12 regulatory agencies like the PUC and SERCDC. *See TRW Inc. v. Andrews*, 534  
13 U.S. 19, 31 (2001) (it is a “cardinal principle of statutory construction” that the  
14 statute be interpreted such that “no clause, sentence, or word shall be  
15 superfluous”) (internal citation omitted); *City of San Jose v. Superior Court*, 5 Cal.  
16 4th 47, 55 (1993) (“We ordinarily reject interpretations that render particular terms  
17 of a statute mere surplusage”).

18 Finally, Section 690 of the Penal Code is not to the contrary. That section,  
19 passed in 1951, specified that Part II of the Penal Code applied to “municipal and  
20 inferior courts.” *People v. Ross*, 221 Cal. App. 2d 443, 446 (Ct. App. 1963).  
21 Section 690 therefore expanded application of certain rules to courts where they  
22 might not previously have applied. It did not, as LADOT argues, limit the legal  
23 requirements in the Penal Code from applying to contexts outside of criminal  
24 prosecutions. CalECPA itself leaves no doubt as to its scope: all government  
25 entities, including cities, must comply.

26 **B. CalECPA gives Plaintiffs the right to seek relief in this Court for**  
27 **the unlawful collection of their location information.**

28 LADOT contends that Plaintiffs are unable to seek relief in this Court

1 because CalECPA Section 1546.4(b) provides that the Attorney General can  
 2 commence a civil action to compel compliance with CalECPA. Mot. at 16–17.  
 3 LADOT is incorrect.

4 Under Section 1546.4(c), “an individual whose information is targeted” in a  
 5 manner inconsistent with the federal or state constitutions or CalECPA can seek  
 6 “to void or modify the warrant, order, or process, or to order the destruction of any  
 7 information” unlawfully obtained. Cal. Pen. Code § 1546.4(c). Service providers  
 8 who receive unlawful process have the same right. *Id.* MDS targets Plaintiffs’  
 9 information in violation of CalECPA and the U.S. and California Constitutions.  
 10 Compl. ¶¶ 42–60. CalECPA’s legislative history shows that these rights to address  
 11 violations in court, held by the Attorney General, service providers, and  
 12 individuals whose information was targeted by unlawful process, were all aspects  
 13 of a single goal: to provide “authorization to affected entities and the Attorney  
 14 General to take action to uphold” CalECPA.<sup>12</sup>

15 LADOT’s motion to dismiss focuses on Penal Code Section 1546.4(b), but  
 16 offers no argument for why Plaintiffs cannot seek relief under the Penal Code  
 17 Section that forms the basis for their claim here: Section 1546.4(c). Mot. at 16–17;  
 18 Compl. ¶ 60. CalECPA gives Plaintiffs that right. For the aforementioned reasons,  
 19 LADOT’s motion to dismiss should be denied.

### 20 **III. PLAINTIFFS PROPERLY NAME LADOT AS A DEFENDANT.**

21 LADOT also moves to dismiss the Department of Transportation, arguing  
 22 that it is not a “person” subject to suit under 42 U.S.C. § 1983.<sup>13</sup> LADOT’s motion

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23  
 24 <sup>12</sup> See Assem. Comm. on Privacy & Consumer Protection, Analysis of SB  
 25 178, as amended June 2, 2015, p. 8 (explaining that CalECPA “requires reasonable  
 26 notification to the target of the request, prohibits the use in court of information  
 27 obtained in violation of these requirements, and *provides authorization to affected  
 28 entities and the Attorney General to take action to uphold these requirements.*”) (emphasis added).

<sup>13</sup> LADOT does not seek dismissal of the Department of Transportation with respect to Plaintiffs’ claims under CalECPA.



1 should be denied for two reasons. First, LADOT misstates the holding of *United*  
2 *States v. Kama*, 394 F.3d 1236, 1239 (9th Cir. 2005) as “holding municipal police  
3 departments are not considered ‘persons’ within the meaning of 42 U.S.C. § 1983.”  
4 Mot. at 17. In fact, *Kama* says nothing of the sort. Rather, *Kama* held that a  
5 defendant had waived an objection to the district court’s purposed abuse of  
6 discretion. *Kama*, 394 F.3d at 1238. A concurring opinion in *Kama* includes a  
7 passing reference to the question of whether municipal departments are subject to  
8 suit under Section 1983, but nothing more. *Id.* at 1239. *Kama* does not command  
9 dismissal of LADOT.

10 Second, *Hurth v. County of Los Angeles* provides the appropriate framework  
11 for analyzing the Department of Transportation’s presence in this case. No. 09-  
12 5423 SVW (PJWx), 2009 WL 10696491, at \*5 (C.D. Cal. Oct. 28, 2009). In that  
13 case, the court denied the County of Los Angeles’ motion to dismiss the Los  
14 Angeles County Sheriff’s Department, rejecting the reasoning of some courts that  
15 have held municipal departments are not “persons” under Section 1983. Noting  
16 that *Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services*, 436 U.S. 658, 660–61  
17 (1978), permitted a Section 1983 suit against a city department, the court in *Hurth*  
18 held that municipal departments may be subject to suit. *Hurth*, 2009 WL  
19 10696491, at \*5. Under *Hurth*’s reasoning, LADOT should remain a defendant.

## 20 CONCLUSION

21 For the foregoing reasons, Plaintiffs respectfully request the Court deny  
22 LADOT’s Motion to Dismiss.

23  
24 DATED: August 21, 2020

Respectfully submitted,

By:           /s/ Mohammad Tajsar          

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