A vigorous debate has emerged regarding the expansion of trademark owners' rights to have exclusive control over their marks in the paid search environment. A common practice in paid search is for advertisers to purchase other companies' trademarks as keywords for search engine results. Comparing the similarities between the current struggles concerning trademark use as paid search keywords to the evolution of the right to a digital public performance for sound recording owners, this comment proposes a model that allows purchasers of other entities' trademarks to use those marks in a Congressionally regulated fashion in a similar way section 114 of the Copyright Act regulates the digital public performance of sound recordings.
TRADEMARK USE AS KEYWORDS: A COMPARATIVE LOOK AT TRADEMARK USE AS KEYWORDS IN PAID SEARCH AND DIGITAL PUBLIC PERFORMANCE RIGHTS FOR SOUND RECORDINGS

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INTRODUCTION

Using someone else’s trademark on the Internet can be either illegal or brilliant. The difference depends on the space and media in which the mark appears.

Companies often purchase other companies’ trademarks as keywords for search engine results. In one of the millions of searches that occur on Google every day, the primary natural results from the search appear on the web page based upon their accuracy as determined by the “Google algorithm.” Also appearing on the page are “sponsored links” that Google sells when someone uses a particular word or phrase in a search. This practice of selling keywords is not confined to Google. To complicate this situation, a party can purchase a trademark that it does not own as a keyword in paid search. This business method, therefore, uses the other party’s trademark to drive business to its own website through the sponsored link. Until recently the courts were split on whether use of a trademark as a keyword in paid search constituted “use in commerce” under the Lanham Act, and therefore whether the use created a likelihood of confusion.

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1 See Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 125–26 (2d Cir. 2009) (offering an overview of Google’s AdWords program).


4 See, e.g., Yahoo! Terms and Conditions Applying to Local Advertising, http://www.yahoo.infoservegroup.com/demo/termsandconditions.html (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) [hereinafter Yahoo!’s Local Advertising Terms and Conditions] (defining a Sponsored Link as “an advertisement (also known as a ‘featured listing’) that is served on the Site in relation to a search request by a user, and which is paid for by a Customer and which includes the Sponsored Link Information”).


6 See id.


8 See Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 131 (2d Cir. 2009) (overturning the district court’s dismissal of plaintiff’s keyword trademark infringement claims against defendant for failure to demonstrate use in commerce); Google Inc. v. Am. Blind & Wallpaper Factory, Inc., No. C 03-5340, 2007 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 32450 at *21 (N.D. Cal. Apr. 18, 2007) (holding that selling a trademarked term as a keyword is use in commerce); Edina Realty, Inc. v. TheMLSonline.com, No. 04-4371, 2006 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 13775, at *10 (D. Minn. Mar. 20, 2006) (holding the plaintiff’s mark was used commercially when sold as a keyword and in general); Buying for the Home, LLC v.
This comment compares the similarities between the current struggles concerning trademark use as paid search keywords to the evolution of the right to a digital public performance that sound recording owners received in 1995. Part I provides background information on the use of trademarks as paid search keywords. It also describes how courts have defined various paid search terms and practices. This section then explains the structure of the digital public performance right for sound recordings. Part II analyzes the current court decisions regarding use of trademarks as keywords in paid search and compares them to the statutory requirements for the digital public performance licenses and royalties. Part III sets forth various models to protect trademark owners' rights in paid search and proposes a model that allows would-be infringers, or purchasers of other entities' trademarks, to use those marks in a Congressionally regulated fashion in a similar way section 114 of the Copyright Act regulates the digital public performance of sound recordings.

I. BACKGROUND

At first glance, the history of trademark use in paid search programs may appear incongruous with the history of the public performance right for digital transmissions of sound recordings. The two concepts, however, both encompass a distinct right that intellectual property owners have fought to preserve or acquire in the digital space. This section outlines issues that trademark owners have encountered regarding the use of their marks as keywords in paid search, as well as why sound recording owners needed a public performance right for digital audio transmissions of their copyrighted works. First, it provides background information on keyword and paid search terminology, and defines the issues in using trademarked keywords within paid search. Next, the section provides background

9 See discussion infra Part II.
10 See discussion infra Part I.
11 Id.
12 Id.
13 See discussion infra Part II.
14 See discussion infra Part III.
15 See generally In re Trade-Mark Cases, 100 U.S. 82, 94 (1879) (holding Congress derives power to pass trademark laws based upon the Constitution's Commerce Clause, not the Copyright Clause); see also Graeme B. Dinwoodie & Mark D. Janis, Confusion Over Use: Contextualism in Trademark Law, 98 TRADEMARK REP. 1086, 1099 (2008) (discussing how in the Trade-Mark Cases the Court differentiated between the bases of copyright and trademark law).
16 See Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc. v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U.S. 913 (2005) (showing copyright holders' fight for stricter enforcement of their rights due to peer-to-peer file-sharing technology); Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123 (2d Cir. 2009) (showing trademark owners' asserting their rights in the paid search environment).
17 See discussion infra Part I.A-B.
information on the public performance right for digital audio transmissions of sound recordings.\textsuperscript{18}

\textit{A. General Paid Search Terms and Definitions}

A keyword is a word or phrase that a user enters into an Internet search engine, such as Google or Yahoo!\textsuperscript{19} Once the user enters a keyword and clicks “Search” in the search engine, the search engine presents links to the most relevant web pages related to the keyword.\textsuperscript{20} Typically, a search engine presents two types of results when a user performs a search: sponsored links and natural search results.\textsuperscript{21} Sponsored links appear in a labeled section at the top, side, or bottom of the page, and natural search results are listed in the primary section of the webpage, typically below the sponsored links.\textsuperscript{22}

Advertisers pay for sponsored links to appear on a search engine in response to a user’s search request.\textsuperscript{23} Search engine marketing (“SEM”) firms help to facilitate this paid search practice.\textsuperscript{24} These firms serve as liaisons between the advertisers and search engines.\textsuperscript{25} An advertiser can also work directly with a company that operates a search engine to purchase keywords.\textsuperscript{26}

Advertisers bid on keywords depending on the size and scope of an advertising campaign.\textsuperscript{27} Advertisers can purchase and use as many keywords as they wish, and typically use more than less because more purchased keywords usually results in more impressions.\textsuperscript{28} This provides the advertiser with greater online visibility.\textsuperscript{29} An example of a campaign would be for women’s sweaters.\textsuperscript{30} A company that sells women’s sweaters would create a campaign around this category with any number of keywords that can be attributed to this category, including manufacturers or retailers of these products, color information, size information, or type of material.\textsuperscript{31} An SEM firm can help determine the right keywords for the campaign and on which

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{18} See discussion infra Part I.C.  \\
\textsuperscript{19} See Brookfield Commc’n, Inc. v. W. Coast Entm’t Corp., 174 F.3d 1036, 1045 (9th Cir. 1999).  \\
\textsuperscript{20} See id.  \\
\textsuperscript{22} See id.  \\
\textsuperscript{23} See id.  \\
\textsuperscript{24} See Shoemoney Media Group, Inc. v. Keyen Farrell, No. 8:09CV131, 2009 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 40942, at *10 (stating an example of a search engine marketing firm as a company that manages pay-per-click campaigns).  \\
\textsuperscript{25} See id.  \\
\textsuperscript{26} See AdWords Beginner’s Guide, supra note 3.  \\
\textsuperscript{27} See Shoemoney Media Group, 2009 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 40942 at *12 (discussion strategies in purchasing keywords for paid search).  \\
\textsuperscript{29} See id.  \\
\textsuperscript{30} See, e.g., id. (showing how the defendant purchased a number of keywords, including the plaintiff’s trademark, in an effort to sell a specific product, money clips).  \\
\textsuperscript{31} See, e.g., Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 456 F. Supp. 2d 393, 396–97 (N.D.N.Y. 2006) (showing an example of various types of search terms an advertiser may choose to use as keywords in paid search).
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search engines to launch those campaigns based on the advertiser’s budget and other advertising needs.\textsuperscript{32}

Three major search engines dominate the US market: Google, Yahoo!, and Microsoft's Bing (formerly “MSN”).\textsuperscript{33} In September 2009, Google accounted for seventy-one percent of all U.S. searches, Yahoo! accounted for sixteen percent, and Bing accounted for nine percent.\textsuperscript{34} Each search engine has a slightly different approach to trademark use in keywords within paid search, with Yahoo!’s and Bing’s policies being more restrictive than Google’s.\textsuperscript{35}

Yahoo! allows parties to bid on another party’s trademarked terms if the purchaser resells the trademarked good, the use is informative, not competitive, or the use is generic or non-trademark related.\textsuperscript{36} Bing restricts the purchase of trademarked terms to resellers of the trademarked good, informational websites, or when the keyword is used as a dictionary term.\textsuperscript{37}

Google’s AdWords program dominates the keyword search market,\textsuperscript{38} and its keyword marketing practices differ greatly from Yahoo!’s and Bing’s.\textsuperscript{39} Before June 15, 2009, Google would investigate a complaint of trademark infringement through keywords in the country in which the trademark owner has rights, except for the United States, Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom.\textsuperscript{40} In these four countries, Google left the finding of infringement up to the company that claimed infringement.\textsuperscript{41} Once the trademark owner found the alleged infringement, Google would investigate and remove the sponsored link if the trademarked term appeared

\textsuperscript{32} See Shoemoney Media Group, 2009 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 40942 at *10 (discussing how an SEM manages a paid search campaign).


\textsuperscript{34} Id.

\textsuperscript{35} Compare Legal guidelines from Yahoo! Search Marketing (formerly Overture)—Trademarks, http://searchmarketing.yahoo.com/legal/ trademarks.php (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) [hereinafter Yahoo! Trademarks] (stating Yahoo!’s policy that bidding on trademarked terms is only allowed when the purchaser is a reseller of the trademarked good, the use is informative, not competitive, or the use is generic or non-trademark related), and Microsoft Ad Content Guidelines, http://advertising.microsoft.com/learning-center/ad-content-guidelines (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) [hereinafter Microsoft Ad Content Guidelines] (stating Microsoft’s (which includes Bing) policy that restricts the purchase of trademarked terms to purchasers that are resellers of the trademarked good, the website it is used to promote is an informational site only, or the term is used as a dictionary term), with What is Google’s AdWords and AdSense trademark policy?—AdWords Help, http://adwords.google.com/support/aw/bin/answer.py?hl=en&answer=6118 (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) [hereinafter Google AdWords Trademark Policy] (stating the region in which the trademark owner’s rights are recognized determines whether Google will investigate the use of trademarks in advertisement text only or in advertisement text and keywords, and whether Google will disable the keywords in response to the trademark complaint).

\textsuperscript{36} Yahoo! Trademarks, supra note 35.

\textsuperscript{37} Microsoft Ad Content Guidelines, supra note 35.

\textsuperscript{38} See Press Release from Hitwise, supra note 33.

\textsuperscript{39} See Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note 35.


\textsuperscript{41} See id.
in the copy of the sponsored link.42 Google did not and still does not investigate or 
remove keywords based on a trademark infringement complaint.43 
For trademark owners with rights in countries other than the aforementioned 
four, Google would investigate complaints of trademark use in keywords or copy and 
remove the trademarked term from the copy or keyword list if the trademark was in 
fact being used and the trademark owner so requested.44 Google amended its policies 
in June 2009 to add approximately 190 countries to the list of those Google will not 
investigate the use of trademarks as keywords in its AdWords program.45 In addition 
to broadening the scope of where Google will no longer investigate keywords, the new 
policy allows advertisers to use other parties' trademarks in the copy of their 
sponsored links.46 

B. Litigation History of Trademark Use in Keywords 

The Lanham Act provides federal registration and protection for trademarks 
used in commerce.47 The Lanham Act broadly defines a trademark as “any word, 
name, symbol, or device, or any combination thereof [that is] (1) used by a person, or 
(2) which a person has a bona fide intention to use in commerce . . . .”48 The Lanham 
Act defines “use in commerce” as, “[T]he bona fide use of a mark in the ordinary 
course of trade, and not made merely to reserve a right in a mark.”49 Trademarks do 
not need federal registration for protection against unauthorized use.50 For example, 
a trademark owner may register a mark at the state level,51 or may receive federal 
protection for unregistered marks.52 
Section 1114(1) of the Lanham Act creates civil liability for a party who uses, in 
commerce, a counterfeit, copy, or reproduction of a registered mark without 
permission.53 This liability can emerge when the party sells, distributes, or 
advertises any goods or services in connection with the mark in a manner that causes 
c confusion.54 Section 1125(a)(1)(B) of the Lanham Act imposes civil liability for the 
use of another's registered or unregistered mark that “misrepresents the nature, 
characteristics, qualities, or geographic origin of, [the other] person's goods, services, 
or commercial activities . . . .”55 In order to establish a case of trademark 
infringement, a trademark owner must first show that the use was in commerce, and 
then establish that this use created a likelihood of confusion and/or diluted the

42 See id.
43 See Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note 35.
44 See Nafziger, supra note 40, at 2.
45 See Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note 35.
46 See id.
48 Id. § 1127.
49 Id.
50 Id. § 1125(a)(1).
51 See, e.g. 765 ILL. COMP. STAT. ANN. 1036/1-999 (West 2009) (Illinois Trademark Registration 
and Protection Act).
54 Id.
55 Id. § 1125(a)(1)(B).
mark. U.S. courts generally agree that a trademarked term sold as a keyword for use in paid search constitutes use in commerce. The major issue confronting courts now is whether that use constitutes trademark infringement by creating a likelihood of confusion.

Courts in the Third, Fourth, Eighth, and Ninth Circuits have held that selling or purchasing trademarks as keywords through paid search is use in commerce. For example, in Google, Inc. v. American Blind & Wallpaper Factory, Inc., Google sold American Blind’s trademarked terms as keywords through its AdWords program to American Blind’s competitors. The trademarked keywords triggered sponsored links on Google’s search results page. Google acknowledged that it sold trademarked terms as keywords but claimed that doing so did not constitute use in commerce as defined by the Lanham Act.

American Blind argued that Google not only sold its trademarked terms as keywords to a competitor, but that Google then refused to disable those keywords once American Blind alerted Google to the infringing act. At the time of this case, Google’s policies and procedures for complaints about its AdWords program stated that Google would not disable keywords in response to a trademark complaint. The court held that the sale of trademarked terms in Google’s advertising program was a use in commerce for the purposes of the Lanham Act. The court, however, did not determine whether Google’s AdWords program violated the Lanham Act. The court, in denying most of Google’s motion for summary judgment of American Blind’s trademark infringement claims, stated that the large number of businesses and users

\[\text{9:553 2009} \quad \text{The John Marshall Review of Intellectual Property Law} \quad 558\]

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56 Id. §§ 1114, 1125.
57 See Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 131 (2d Cir. 2009) (overturning the district court’s dismissal of plaintiff’s keyword trademark infringement claims against defendant for failure to demonstrate use in commerce); Google Inc. v. Am. Blind & Wallpaper Factory, Inc., No. C 03-5340, 2007 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 32450 at *21 (N.D. Cal. Apr. 18, 2007) (holding that selling a trademarked term as a keyword is use in commerce); Edina Realty, Inc. v. TheMLSonline.com, No. 04-4371, 2006 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 13775, at *10 (D. Minn. Mar. 20, 2006) (holding the plaintiff’s mark was used commercially when sold as a keyword and in general); Buying for the Home, LLC v. Humble Abode, LLC, 459 F. Supp. 2d 310, 323 (D.N.J. 2006) (holding use of the competitor’s mark by purchasing the mark as a keyword was use in commerce under the Lanham Act); Gov’t Employees Ins. Co. v. Google, Inc., 330 F. Supp. 2d 700, 704 (E.D. Va. 2004) ("When defendants sell the rights to link advertising to plaintiff’s trademark, defendants are using the trademarks in commerce in a way that may imply that defendants have permission from the trademark holder to do so.").
58 See Rescuecom, 562 F.3d at 131 (finding use in commerce but not deciding whether this use created a likelihood of confusion).
59 See Buying for the Home, 459 F.Supp. 2d at 323.
60 See Gov’t Employees Ins., 330 F. Supp. 2d at 704.
63 Id. at *4.
64 Id.
65 Id. at *7.
66 Id. at *5.
67 Id. at *4-5.
68 Id. at *21.
69 Id. at *42.
of Google's AdWords program "indicates that a significant public interest exists in determining whether the AdWords program violates trademark law."\(^7\)

Courts in the Second Circuit held the minority opinion that a trademark used as a keyword did not constitute use in commerce until April 2009, when the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit reversed and remanded Google's motion to dismiss against Rescuecom.\(^7\) In Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., Rescuecom claimed Google infringed its registered trademark by selling its mark as a keyword in its AdWords program.\(^7\) The District Court for the Northern District of New York held that the AdWords program use of trademarks in keywords did not constitute use in commerce for trademark purposes.\(^7\) The court separated out the Lanham Act elements of "use" and "in commerce" and held that AdWords did commercially use Rescuecom's trademark.\(^7\) The use, however, was not substantial enough to equate to the Lanham Act definition of "use in commerce."\(^7\) The court granted Google's motion to dismiss.\(^7\)

Rescuecom appealed this decision to the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit.\(^7\) On April 3, 2009, the Second Circuit reversed and remanded the District Court's decision.\(^7\) The Second Circuit did not express whether Rescuecom could prove a Lanham Act violation, but held that Google's practice of recommending and selling a trademarked term as a keyword to an advertiser was a use in commerce.\(^7\)

C. Digital Public Performance License and Royalty Structure

1. General Industry Terms and Definitions

It would be an understatement to say that the music industry has confronted significant copyright challenges in the digital age.\(^8\) Much like the current debate in trademark law over what constitutes use in commerce and likelihood of confusion, the courts and Congress have had to determine what types of digital transmissions and what media should be considered protected under copyright law, and how this protection should occur.\(^8\)

\(^7\) Id.
\(^7\) Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123 (2d Cir. 2009) (reversing the District Court's holding, deeming use of a trademark as a keyword is use in commerce, but not deciding the likelihood of confusion issue).
\(^7\) Id. at 124.
\(^7\) Id. at 400.
\(^7\) Id.
\(^7\) Id. at 404.
\(^7\) Rescuecom, 562 F.3d at 123.
\(^7\) Id. at 131.
\(^7\) Id.
\(^8\) See Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc., v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U.S. 913, 919 (2005) ("[O]ne who distributes a device with the object of promoting its use to infringe copyright, as shown by clear expression or other affirmative steps taken to foster infringement, is liable for the resulting acts of"
According to the Copyright Act, music has two components: 1) a song written by a composer called a musical work, which is typically co-owned with a publisher; and 2) the recorded version of the song called a sound recording, which is typically owned by the record label that produces the sound recording.

This bifurcation of a song carries particular importance when determining public performance rights. The owner of the musical work, or the writer/publisher, is the only copyright owner of a song that earns royalties for an analog (i.e. traditional radio) performance of this song. Both the owner of the musical work and the owner of the sound recording get paid when a song is played via a digital transmission. The Copyright Act defined a "digital transmission" as, "[A] transmission in whole or in part in a digital or other non-analog format." Examples of a digital transmission include Internet radio such as Pandora and satellite radio such as SIRIUS XM Radio.

A performance rights organization ("PRO") facilitates public performance royalty payments to the owners of musical works and sound recordings. Three PROs in the United States collect public performance royalties for musical works: The Association Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers ("ASCAP"), Broadcast Music, Inc ("BMI"), and Society of European Stage Authors & Composers ("SESAC"). These groups collect and distribute royalties to song writers or publishers of musical works for any analog or digital public performance of a musical work. SoundExchange collects royalties for digital public performances of sound recordings. Currently, the owner of a sound recording does not have a public performance right for analog transmissions.

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See id.

See id.

See 37 C.F.R. § 261.4(c) (2009) (designating SoundExchange as the performance rights organization to collect and distribute digital performance royalties for artists and sound recording copyright owners).

See 17 U.S.C. § 106 (stating owners of sound recording copyrights do not include analog public performances).
2. Licensing Structures for Analog and Digital Public Performances

Various forms of licenses exist within the music industry, including compulsory and negotiated.\textsuperscript{94} The compulsory or mechanical license under section 115 of the Copyright Act grants the right to re-record a musical work.\textsuperscript{95} A compulsory license under section 115 applies to analog and digital sales.\textsuperscript{96} It requires the licensee to pay the licensor a statutory dollar amount per song per copy reproduced.\textsuperscript{97}

Except for limited exceptions, any party that wishes to publicly perform a musical work in the United States must secure a license to do so from ASCAP, BMI, or SESAC.\textsuperscript{98} Up until 1971, however, the United States did not recognize a federal copyright in sound recordings.\textsuperscript{99} Congress enacted the Sound Recording Act of 1971 ("SRA") to prevent "piracy due to advances in duplicating technology."\textsuperscript{100} The act granted sound recording copyright owners a limited bundle of rights of reproduction, distribution, and adaptation.\textsuperscript{101} The act did not grant public performance rights, under the "presumption that the granted rights would suffice to protect against record piracy."\textsuperscript{102}

In the years following the implementation of the SRA leading up to the Copyright Act of 1976, Congress heard testimony from the Register of Copyrights and others lobbying for a public performance right for sound recordings.\textsuperscript{103} Broadcasters and others who publically performed sound recordings opposed the adoption of such a right.\textsuperscript{104} In 1978, the U.S. Copyright Office ("USCO") again recommended a sound recording public performance right.\textsuperscript{105} In a report issued to Congress, the USCO wrote, "[A] sound recording performance right, applicable to all public performances, would be 'entirely consonant with the basic principles of copyright law generally, and with those of the 1976 Copyright Act specifically.'"\textsuperscript{106} The USCO recognized that advancing technology could provide sound recording owners with substantial revenue streams.\textsuperscript{107}

In spite of these recommendations, Congress failed to enact any legislation for the next 13 years.\textsuperscript{108} In 1991, the USCO issued a report that addressed the future of sound recording copyrights.\textsuperscript{109} It stated that "[d]igital represents such a technological advance in sound delivery that it is certain to be the audio transmission

\textsuperscript{94} See BRABEC, supra note 89, at 287.
\textsuperscript{95} 17 U.S.C. § 115(a).
\textsuperscript{96} Id.
\textsuperscript{97} Id. § 115(c). The current rate is 9.1 cents per copy per song or 1.75 cents per minute of playing, whichever is greater. Mechanical License Royalty Rates, http://www.copyright.gov/carp/m200a.pdf (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) [hereinafter Copyright Compulsory License].
\textsuperscript{98} See BRABEC, supra note 89, at 287.
\textsuperscript{100} See id.
\textsuperscript{101} See id.
\textsuperscript{102} See id.
\textsuperscript{103} See id.
\textsuperscript{104} See id.
\textsuperscript{105} See id. at 10–11.
\textsuperscript{106} See id. at 11.
\textsuperscript{107} See id.
\textsuperscript{108} See id.
\textsuperscript{109} See id.
medium of the future." The report recommended, once again, that Congress extend a public performance right to sound recordings.

Based on the 1991 USCO report, the House Judiciary Subcommittee on Courts and Intellectual Property hosted discussions with several groups, including broadcasters, cable and satellite digital audio service providers, and music copyright owners, to build consensus over sound recording legislation. Broadcasters lobbied against adding the right, arguing that the public performance of sound recordings drove sales of the sound recordings that were being performed. On the other hand, the sound recording copyright owners argued that digital public performances did not drive sales, but rather led to music piracy resulting in decreased sales. Balancing these varying interests, Congress created a digital public performance right for sound recordings with the Digital Performance Right in Sound Recordings Act of 1995 ("DPRSRA"). Analog performances of sound recordings, in particular traditional radio, were not covered in the Act.

In 1998, Congress passed the Digital Millennium Copyright Act ("DMCA"). The DMCA indicated that the "digital audio transmission" included the webcasting business. This act created a new statutory license that provided a blanket license to Internet radio stations. This license allowed the Internet radio stations to play any music without fear of copyright infringement or the burden of having to negotiate individual licenses from each label group. The DMCA, however, did not establish a statutory rate for the license. The USCO established the Copyright Arbitration Royalty Panel ("CARP") to determine what the royalty rate would be between 1998–2005.

The structure for creating statutory royalties proved controversial due to the resistance of small webcasters to the high licensing fees established by the USCO. The Librarian of Congress rejected the rates set by CARP and as a result revised the rates downward. Congress intervened by enacting the Small Webcaster Settlement Agreement ("SWSA") of 2002 and by appointing SoundExchange to collect

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111 See id.
112 See id. at 12.
119 Id. § 114(1).
120 Id.
121 Id. § 114(2)(A).
122 Id. § 114(2)(B).
124 See id.
and distribute the royalties. The traditional PRO's were not set up to handle the additional administrative tasks of paying digital royalties directly to sound recording owners, so the USCO appointed SoundExchange to collect and distribute all sound recording owners’ royalties.

The Copyright Royalty and Distribution Reform Act of 2004 abolished CARP and created the Copyright Royalty Board (“CRB”). In March 2007, the CRB announced royalty rates for 2006–10. Small webcasters did not respond well to these rates either. As a result, Congress enacted the Webcaster Settlement Act of 2008, which gave SoundExchange a limited statutory authority to negotiate and enter into alternative royalty fee arrangements with webcasters from 2006–10. Another opportunity to negotiate alternative fee arrangements was given to webcasters and SoundExchange in 2009 through the Webcaster Settlement Act of 2009. This act treated sites differently depending on their size and business model. For example, it required large Internet radio stations, such as Pandora, to pay the greater of twenty-five percent of their revenue or a specific fee each time a song is heard. Smaller sites, such as AccuRadio, will be required to pay between twelve to fourteen percent of revenue in royalties. This is only the latest chapter in the ongoing struggle of digital public performance rights of sound recordings.

II. ANALYSIS

A. Finding the Nexus Between the Public Performance Right of Digital Sound Recordings and Trademark Use in Paid Search

Understanding the monetary impact that trademark use in keywords in paid search has had on trademark owners would help to craft and expedite a solution to this issue. A comparable lost revenue exigency led to the creation of the performance right for digital transmissions of sound recordings. Copyright owners

125 37 C.F.R. § 270.5(c) (2009).
126 Id.
128 See id.
129 See id.
130 See id.
131 See id.
133 See id. at 40,615; see also Claire Cain Miller, Music Labels Reach Deal With Internet Radio Sites, N.Y. TIMES, July 8, 2009, at B2 (explaining the terms of the Webcaster Settlement Act of 2009).
134 See Claire Cain Miller, supra note 133.
of sound recordings quantified their revenue loss through lost CD sales. No party has quantified trademark owners' lost revenue and decrease in value of their marks due to competitors' use of their marks as keywords in paid search. Trademark owners generally believe that this use results in lost sales, but no hard data exists to back up this assertion. The loss to the trademark owner becomes harder to quantify because this use can decrease brand value, public perception of a mark, and the goodwill that a party has garnered for its mark. U.S. courts do not have clear guidance from the Lanham Act regarding trademark use as keywords in search engine advertising programs. The solution to clarify this gray area in the law lies within the United States Supreme Court or Congress. The Supreme Court could interpret the Lanham Act as banning the use of another entities' trademark in keywords in paid search programs altogether. Alternatively, Congress could address this issue as it did with digital transmissions of sound recordings by bringing the Lanham Act up to date with technology and providing an additional revenue stream for trademark owners.

As two forms of intellectual property, copyrights and trademarks possess different protection needs in the digital space. The similarities of the struggles, however, to keep the respective intellectual property statutes current with technological advances and how consumers encounter copyrights and trademarks through technology is strikingly similar. At the crux of the issue for both copyright and trademark owners lies the issue of lost revenues. These similarities provide a foundation to begin the analysis of how the evolution of the copyright royalty structure for digital transmissions of sound recordings can be applied to the current

138 See id.
139 But see Storus Corp., 2008 WL 449835, at *4. Aroa had purchased Storus' mark as a keyword as well as used the mark in its Google AdWords ad copy. Id. Storus provided the court with metrics around how many times the ad appeared (impressions) as well as how many times the ad was clicked on (click-through-rate). Id. The court accepted the click-through-rate to "establish the requisite use." Id. at *6.
140 See Mark Bartholomew, Making a Mark in the Internet Economy: A Trademark Analysis of Search Engine Advertising, 58 OKLA. L. REV. 179, 196 (2005) (describing the need for more empirical evidence to show the impact of trademark use as keywords in paid search).
142 See Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 140-41 (2d Cir. 2009) ("It would be helpful for Congress to study and clear up this ambiguity.").
143 See id.
144 See, e.g., H.B. 450, 2009 Gen. Sess. (Utah 2009) (proposing the ban of the use of trademarks as keywords within a "qualified interactive information service" within the state of Utah).
145 See 17 U.S.C. § 114(d) (2006); see also Paul Goldstein, INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY: THE TOUGH NEW REALITIES THAT COULD MAKE OR BREAK YOUR BUSINESS 127 (Penguin Books 2007) (describing how trademark owners need to lobby Congress for additional rights in a similar manner in which copyright owners went to Congress).
146 See Goldstein, supra note 145, at 127.
147 See id.
trademark use issues within new technology and how to appropriately compensate trademark owners.  

B. Digital Public Performance Rights and Licenses

1. Issues that Caused the Digital Public Performance Right for Sound Recording Copyright Owners to Come Into Being

The public performance right for sound recording copyright owners went through a similar evolution that trademark law is currently experiencing. Throughout the life of the 1909 Copyright Act, analog formats such as player pianos, jukeboxes, and radio were the primary media available for public performances of sound recordings. Per the Copyright Act of 1976, the owner of a sound recording does not have the exclusive right to a public performance of the recording. The historic reasoning behind this was that the public performance was essentially advertising for the owner of the sound recording, which led to more sales of the sound recording (in hard copy—usually CD format), thus allowing the owner of the sound recording to get paid.

Advances in technology reframed this traditional model. Initially, duplicating technology allowed consumers to obtain copies of sound recordings without purchasing them. This traditional model was further disrupted by the availability of high-quality versions of songs over satellite or cable systems, sometimes on demand. Next, and more significantly, downloading and streaming music over the Internet made sound recordings available through means that did not promote CD sales. The owner of a sound recording did not receive remuneration for performances of his works streamed or downloaded over the Internet, legally or illegally. A website could provide a sound recording to the end user, who then had the ability to capture this recording onto his own computer or listening device and

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150 See BRABEC, supra note 89, at 107.
155 See id. at 13–14.
156 See id. at 14.
157 See, e.g., Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc. v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U.S. 913, 920 (2005) (stating that peer-to-peer networks were used to share and download copyrighted works without compensating the sound recording copyright owner for the public performance).
158 See, e.g., id.
circumvent any payment requirement for the sound recording. This caused copyright owners of sound recordings to seek additional protection.

Sound recording owners were losing CD sales and not being paid for the public performances of digital transmissions of their music. The theory that the analog public performance promotes sales has validity. The sales-leader argument becomes substantially weaker, however, relative to digital public performances. When an FM radio station broadcasts a sound recording, the only way a listener can obtain a copy of that sound recording is to record the actual transmission. This practice is cumbersome and most likely results in a poor-quality recording. To obtain a quality copy of the recording, a consumer must either purchase a hard copy of it or purchase an electronic copy via a service such as iTunes. Traditional analog radio, therefore, helps to drive sales. On the other hand, when the sound recording is performed publicly in a digital format, the listener can easily capture on a computer a precise replication of the sound recording. The issues of access or timing no longer exist with a digital public performance.

The sound recording copyright owners' outcry led to the creation of the digital public performance right. This created a new revenue stream for sound recording owners. Copyright law grants the copyright owner a bundle of exclusive rights on his copyrights. The copyright owner may choose to not allow anyone to use the work, or may choose to freely allow anyone to use it, with or without compensation.

Congress intervened regarding the digital public performances of sound recordings when it realized that the Copyright Act as applied to the marketplace presented an unfair situation for sound recording owners. Congressional

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159 See id.
161 See id.
163 See, e.g., Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, 545 U.S. at 920 (showing the digital access to copyrighted works via peer-to-peer file sharing in this case can easily infringe the owner’s rights).
165 See Recording Indus. Ass’n of Am. v. Diamond Multimedia Sys. Inc., 180 F.3d 1072, 1073 (9th Cir. 1999) (explaining how sound quality degenerates with each successive recording from an analog source).
166 See id.
168 See Recording Indus. Ass’n of Am., 180 F.3d at 1073.
169 See id.
172 Id.
173 Id.
174 Id.
intervention is not necessary to make the law comply with every advance in technology.\footnote{See Carolina Saez, Enforcing Copyrights in the Age of Multimedia, 21 RUTGERS COMPUTER \& TECH. L.J. 351 (1995) (discussing how contracts may be used to deal with licensing issues arising out of new technologies).} In some instances, the market will normalize whatever impact the technology has had on the rights holder or the courts will interpret the existing law relating to new technology.\footnote{See, e.g., Sony Corp. of Am. v. Universal Studios, Inc., 464 U.S. 417, 431 (1984) (explaining that the Court must interpret the existing law without explicit guidance from Congress).}

In the realm of digital music, the marketplace in the mid-1990s was broken, with the rights holders losing sales.\footnote{See S. REP. No. 104-128, at 14 (1995), reprinted in 1995 U.S.C.C.A.N. 356, 361 ("[C]urrent copyright law is inadequate to address all of the issues raised by these new technologies dealing with the digital transmission of sound recordings . . . .").} A culture of theft had embedded itself into the marketplace, and without legislative and judicial intervention, the rights holders would not have received compensation.\footnote{See id.; Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc. v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U.S. 913, 920 (2005).} In granting a public performance right for digital transmissions of sound recordings, Congress gave sound recording owners a new revenue stream.\footnote{17 U.S.C. § 114(0 (2006).} This new revenue stream, however, created a complicated new set of problems.\footnote{See id.} Congress had to set a fair royalty rate and establish a system to collect and pay out the royalties.\footnote{See H.R. REP. NO. 111-139, at 2 (2009) (stating the rates for digital performance of sound recordings proved difficult to negotiate for webcasters and sound recording owners).} Congress enacted CARP in 1998, and replaced it with CRB in 2002 to solve these issues.\footnote{See id.} Congress then allowed SoundExchange to negotiate alternative royalty rates in 2009.\footnote{See Notification of Agreements Under the Webcaster Settlement Act of 2009, 74 Fed. Reg. 40,614, 40,618, 40,622, 40,625–26, (Aug. 12, 2009) (to be codified at 17 U.S.C. § 114(f)(5)) (explaining the various rate structures negotiated for different types of webcasters).} The primary issue with the rates has been the impact on the long tail of the digital music marketplace—the small webcasters who could potentially have had to pay more in royalties than their Internet radio stations brought in.\footnote{See H.R. REP. NO. 111-139, at 2.} A new rate plan that offered fair rates to small webcasters was established in 2009 with the assistance of SoundExchange.\footnote{Id.}

When this public performance right first came into place, the existing PRO's, ASCAP, BMI, and SESAC, were in the business of handling public performance royalties for musical works.\footnote{See BRABEC, supra note 89, at 31.} SoundExchange, on the other hand, provides sound recording owners accurate data relative to the sound recordings performed in the digital realm, including what work, when it was performed, and how many times it was performed.\footnote{SoundExchange, http://www.soundexchange.com (follow “About” hyperlink; then follow “Royalty Distribution and SX Methodology” hyperlink) (last visited Jan. 21, 2010) (explaining the data source collection methodology) [hereinafter “SoundExchange”].} Therefore, the USCO
appointed SoundExchange as the PRO for all digital transmissions and public performances of copyrighted sound recordings.¹⁸⁹

Overall, it took almost twenty-five years for sound recording owners to obtain a recognized public performance right from the time they were first granted a copyright in their sound recordings.¹⁹⁰ It appears that the trademark use in keywords debate is heading down a similar path in terms of the time it is taking to figure out how to respond to the rights owners.¹⁹¹

C. Trademark Use in Keywords Through Paid Search Today

The majority of U.S. courts have held that the purchase of a trademark as a keyword through paid search constitutes a use in commerce; however, to date, none have held this use to constitute a likelihood of confusion.¹⁹² The litigation surrounding this issue can be attributed, at least in part, to the evolution of technology that allows companies to market their goods by using their trademarks as keywords in paid search programs.¹⁹³ Search engines like Google and Yahoo! have provided new business models in the advertising space that allow advertisers to narrowly target their audiences through the search engine’s technology.¹⁹⁴ Given these practices, search engine marketing has created challenges for trademark owners to protect their marks.¹⁹⁵ Trademarks are bought and sold from business to business as keywords without consumers knowing about this practice.¹⁹⁶ This has created the potential for confusion because consumers are not aware that the mark is being used by the competitor.¹⁹⁷ The confusion can occur with the end user believing

¹⁹¹ See, e.g., Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 131 (2d Cir. 2009) (showing that more than 10 years after the first cases dealing with trademark use as keywords, courts still have not come to consensus as to the state of the law, and are still acting without Congressional direction).
¹⁹² See Rescuecom, 562 F.3d at 131 (overturning the district court’s dismissal of plaintiff's keyword trademark infringement claims against defendant for failure to demonstrate use in commerce; however also stating that it was not for the court to judge as to whether the practice is confusing); Buying for the Home, LLC v. Humble Abode, LLC, 459 F. Supp. 2d 310, 323 (D.N.J. 2006) (holding use of the competitor's mark on the Internet by purchasing the mark as a keyword was in commerce and was in connection with goods or services under 15 U.S.C. § 1127); Edina Realty, Inc. v. TheMLSonline.com, No. 04-4371, 2006 U.S. Dist. LEXIS 13775, at *10 (D. Minn. Mar. 20, 2006) (holding the plaintiff's mark was used commercially when sold as a keyword and in general, based on the plain meaning of the Lanham Act, the purchase of search terms is a use in commerce); GoV't Employees Ins. Co. v. Google, Inc., 330 F. Supp. 2d 700, 704 (E.D. Va. 2004) (“[W]hen defendants sell the rights to link advertising to plaintiff's trademarks, defendants are using the trademarks in commerce in a way that may imply that defendants have permission from the trademark holder to do so.”).
¹⁹³ See GOLSTEIN, supra note 145, at 125.
¹⁹⁵ See Rescuecom, 562 F.3d at 131.
¹⁹⁷ See, e.g., Brookfield Comm'n, Inc. v. W. Coast Entm't Corp., 174 F.3d 1036, 1066 (9th Cir. 1999) (holding that using a competitor's trademark in metatags is likely to cause initial interest confusion).
the trademark owner sanctioned the site, or that the trademark owner is connected with the site the end user lands on.\textsuperscript{198} While the majority of U.S. courts have held that trademark use in paid search keywords is a use in commerce, the issue of whether this use has created a likelihood of confusion within the Lanham Act has yet to be determined in any case.\textsuperscript{199}

1. Impact of Current Issues to the Paid Search Industry and Trademark Owner

Search engines claim it is not their responsibility to police trademark use within keywords.\textsuperscript{200} In the U.S. Google, for example, does not restrict any trademark use in relation to keywords or copy.\textsuperscript{201} Yahoo! and Bing, on the other hand, restrict trademark use to fair uses, descriptive or resellers.\textsuperscript{202}

The monetary impact of this issue on the trademark owner can be quantified through damages awarded in court cases; however, most cases have settled out of court, with few allotting for damages.\textsuperscript{203} Another method of quantifying the impact is to measure key performance indicators ("KPI") of the keyword in question.\textsuperscript{204} The court in \textit{Storus Corp. v. Aroa Marketing} measured the impact of the infringing activity by looking at the number of impressions and clicks generated by the infringing advertisement.\textsuperscript{205} A method also exists to view conversions, which are the clicks that result in sales.\textsuperscript{206} By measuring conversions by use of the keyword in sponsored search results, it is possible to quantify the monetary impact trademark use in keywords can have on the trademark owner.\textsuperscript{207}

In search engine marketing where companies bid on keywords, typically the more popular keywords cost more than less popular keywords.\textsuperscript{208} This presents a classic case of supply and demand.\textsuperscript{209} If a trademark owner bids on his own mark as

\textsuperscript{198} See Gov't Employees Ins. Co. v. Google, Inc., 330 F. Supp. 2d 700, 704 (E.D. Va. 2004) (stating when trademarks are used as links in advertising, an implication exists that the trademark owner has given permission for the use).

\textsuperscript{199} See Rescuecom, 562 F.3d at 131 (remanding to the district court to determine whether the practice of trademark use in keywords within paid search is confusing).

\textsuperscript{200} Compare Yahoo! Trademarks, supra note 35, and Microsoft Ad Content Guidelines, supra note 35, with Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note supra note 35.

\textsuperscript{201} See Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note 35.

\textsuperscript{202} See Yahoo! Trademarks, supra note 35; Microsoft Ad Content Guidelines, supra note 35.


\textsuperscript{205} See id.

\textsuperscript{206} See STEPHANIE DIAMOND, WEB MARKETING FOR SMALL BUSINESSES: 7 STEPS TO EXPLOSIVE BUSINESS GROWTH 112 (Sourcebooks 2008) (defining conversions).

\textsuperscript{207} See id. at 168 (explaining how to track online campaign results through conversions).

\textsuperscript{208} See id. at 152 (explaining that generic keywords cost more than niche keywords).

\textsuperscript{209} See id.
a keyword and his competitor also bids on that same mark as a keyword, the cost of
that keyword rises. This situation raises the advertising price for the trademark
owner for his own mark within the search engine sponsored advertising space.
This situation can cause companies to have to bid on their own brand name terms to
reduce consumer confusion within search engines, even though they may normally
not spend their marketing dollars in that way.

The situation that the company Rosetta Stone has confronted concerning the use
of its trademarks in paid search constitutes a vivid example of this scenario. The
company actively chose to not use its trademarks within search engine marketing;
however, they were savvy enough to understand that competitors were using their
trademarks in search engine marketing to sell either competing products or
counterfeit products online. Rosetta Stone began to bid on its own trademarks in
order to outrank the competitors or counterfeiters within the sponsored links section
of a search engine results page. Not only does Rosetta Stone have to pay to protect
its marks, it has to pay a premium because it competes with a competitor to use its
own marks.

2. Information Indexing for Natural Results vs. Paying for the Indexing in the
Sponsored Links

The Lanham Act does not expressly make a party liable for using another's
trademark as an information indexing tool. In Brookfield Communications, Inc. v.
West Coast Entertainment Corp., the court held that the embedded use of a
trademark name and site name in metatags was sufficient to create a likelihood of
confusion. At the time of this case, search engines used metatags as an indexing
tool to rank the organic results. Two fundamental shifts have occurred in web
advertising since this case. First, major search engines no longer use metatags for
indexing natural search rankings. This reduces the impact of using a trademark

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210 See Jonathan J. Darrow & Gerald R. Ferrera, The Search Engine Advertising Market:
factors that impact the cost of a keyword).
211 See id.
2009) (complaining that Google’s practice of allowing non-trademark owners to bid on the Rosetta
Stone mark as a keyword forced Rosetta Stone to also purchase this mark, and advertise on Google,
“to reduce the likelihood that web users will be diverted to other websites”).
213 See id.
214 See id.
215 See id.
216 See id. at ¶67.
217 See Stacey L. Dogan & Mark A. Lemley, Grounding Trademark Law Through Trademark
218 174 F.3d 1035, 1059 (9th Cir. 1999).
219 See id. at 1045.
220 See Mark A. Thurmon, Recent Developments in Trademark Law, 9 WAKE FOREST INTELL.
221 See id. at 42 (“Courts . . . ignore what Google and others have said over and over again:
keyword metatags are not indexed by Google and, therefore, have no impact on search results
obtained using Google.”).
Second, the trademark use issue has gone from use within metatags for natural search result indexing to use as keywords within paid search results. When a trademark is used in metatags for organic rankings, the trademark is not paid for by the party using the mark and consumers do not see or interact with the trademark.

A debate exists regarding the scope of trademark owners’ control over their marks in paid search. One side argues that mark owners possess a property right in their mark, and therefore should retain tight controls over the mark’s use. The other side of the debate argues that such controls would result in a world where consumers cannot obtain access to all relevant information. Natural search results are a combination of the quality score of the website within the search engine and a proprietary algorithm that the engine uses to rank the sites based on consumer interaction. Consumers, in general, get the most relevant links within the natural search results when using a search engine.

The relevancy of the results in the sponsored links is a completely different matter. Google argues that its AdWords program creates relevant search results in its sponsored links because parties pay a fee to appear in this section. Google claims it changed its AdWords policy to allow trademark usage in copy in order to offer more relevant search results to consumers. This argument has flaws. The sponsored links results cost advertisers money. Unless every single entity on the Internet advertises on Google, the company could not possibly give consumers the

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222 See id.
223 See id. at 42–46.
224 See JERRY LEE FORD, JR. & WILLIAM R. STANEK, INCREASE YOUR WEB TRAFFIC IN A WEEKEND 46–47 (Thomson Course Technology, 5th ed. 2008) (explaining how meta data is used within a website).
225 See Dogan, supra note 217, at 1345 (2008) (“The debate over ‘trademark use’ has become a hot-button issue in intellectual property... law.”).
226 See, e.g., Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 126–27 (2d Cir. 2009) (offering an example of a mark owner asserting that it should retain exclusive control of its mark in paid search).
228 See DIAMOND, supra note 206, at 149 (explaining how natural listings are displayed within search engines).
229 See id.
230 See Miguel Helft, Companies Object to Google’s Policy on Trademarks, N.Y. TIMES, May 14, 2009, at B1 (offering Google’s acknowledgment that relevancy of sponsored links is a different matter than those in the organic listings).
231 See id.
232 See id.
233 But see Mike Gordon & Peppi Kiviniemi, Google Wins Ground in Ad Case, WALL ST. J., Sept. 23, 2009, at B6 (“Internet users expect more information to be returned as a result of a search than just the products of the firms that own the trademarks.”).
most relevant searches within the sponsored links section.\textsuperscript{235} The more relevant links appear in the natural results of the search.\textsuperscript{236}

When an advertiser pays to appear within Google's sponsored links, it does not create a "relevant" result.\textsuperscript{237} Rather, it simply creates a result that is relevant to the price that the term garnered in the marketplace.\textsuperscript{238} A consequence of Google expanding its policy is that the prices for branded or trademarked keywords will be higher by allowing more companies to bid on them.\textsuperscript{239} Google stands to increase its revenue by opening the flood gates on trademark use within its AdWords program.\textsuperscript{240} This practice, however, will lead to trademark owners having significantly less control over the use of their marks in the paid search marketplace.\textsuperscript{241}

Just as owners of sound recordings faced significant legal hurdles with procuring digital public performance rights, trademark owners are confronted with myriad obstacles in protecting their rights within paid search.\textsuperscript{242} These range from whether the use of a trademark as a keyword constitutes a use in commerce, to whether it rises to the level of likelihood of confusion, to ancillary issues such as trademark use within the ad copy text.\textsuperscript{243} My proposal aims to rectify this issue by monetizing the system through a licensing model.\textsuperscript{244}

III. PROPOSAL

The issues facing trademark owners today on the Internet should lead to new legislation similar to how the outcry of sound recording copyright owners led to legislation that resulted in a new right and revenue stream for the copyright owner.\textsuperscript{245} The legislation can do one of two things. First, it could ban the use of a

\textsuperscript{235} See DIAMOND, supra note 206, at 149 (explaining that Google's natural results are relevant because Google uses proprietary technology that indexes the vast majority of web pages).

\textsuperscript{236} See id.

\textsuperscript{237} See id.

\textsuperscript{238} See GREGORY H. SISKIND, DEBORAH MCMURRAY & RICHARD P. KLAU, THE LAWYER'S GUIDE TO MARKETING ON THE INTERNET 124-25 (American Bar Association, 3d ed. 2007) (explaining the factors that impact the cost of clicks).

\textsuperscript{239} See Helft, supra note 230 (quoting a digital marketing executive who asserted that the new policy will raise the cost of bids on brand terms).

\textsuperscript{240} See id.

\textsuperscript{241} See id. (showing advertisers' resentment at the increased ability of third parties to bid on their marks as keywords).

\textsuperscript{242} See RescueCom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 131 (2d Cir. 2009) (overturning the district court's dismissal of plaintiff's keyword trademark infringement claims against defendant for failure to demonstrate use in commerce; however also stating that it was not for the court to judge as to whether the practice is confusing); Storus Corp. v. Aroa Mktg., Inc., No. C-06-2454-MMC, 2008 WL 449835, at *7 (N.D. Cal. Feb. 15, 2008) (holding that Aroa infringed Storus' trademark by using the mark in the copy of the advertisement within its Google AdWords program).

\textsuperscript{243} See RescueCom, 562 F.3d at 131; Storus, 2008 WL 449835, at *7.

\textsuperscript{244} See discussion infra Part III.

\textsuperscript{245} See S. REP. NO. 104-128, at 10 (1995), reprinted in 1995 U.S.C.C.A.N. 356, 357 (explaining the purpose of giving sound recording copyright owners copyright protection was to protect their livelihood in light of new technology).
competing trademark as keywords in paid search programs altogether. Alternatively, it could create a model that allows purchasers of other entities' trademarks as keywords in paid search programs to use those marks in a Congressionally regulated fashion in a similar way section 114 of the Copyright Act regulates the digital public performance of sound recordings and royalty payments.

I propose the second option. If Congress legislated a royalty structure for the use of a competitor's trademark as keywords in paid search, it would face many issues similar to those it worked through regarding the performance right for digital transmissions of sound recordings. These include how the rate should be measured, to whom and for what the fees should apply, who should collect the rate, and who is responsible for enforcing this system.

A. Setting and Applying a Rate Structure

The fee for using a keyword in paid search should apply to any party that purchases a trademarked keyword for use of that keyword within paid search. The rate could be calculated several different ways: 1) percent of the click cost of the trademarked keyword; 2) flat fee per click; 3) flat fee per thousand impressions; or 4) flat fee based on a blanket license. The United States Patent and Trademark Office ("USPTO") would have to enforce the rate structure in a similar manner that the Copyright Royalty Board enforces the digital public performance royalty rate structure.

1. Percent of Click Cost of the Trademarked Keyword

For this rate system, when a party places a bid on a trademarked keyword, a percent of the cost of that keyword would go back to the trademark owner as a royalty or licensing fee for the use of that trademark. In general, search engines

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246 See, e.g., Brookfield Commc'n, Inc. v. W. Coast Entm't Corp., 174 F.3d 1036, 1066 (9th Cir. 1999) (holding use of a competitor's trademark in the metatags of one's website is likely to cause confusion and is "exactly what the trademark laws are designed to prevent").
248 See S. REP. No. 105-190, at 2-8 (1998) (describing the process Congress worked through to create a digital public performance sound recording right).
250 See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 124–25 (describing paid search programs).
251 See id. (discussing the cost per-click form of payment method in online advertising).
252 See BRABEC, supra note 89, at 287 (stating that the fees for blanket licenses for musical works can be a flat fee).
253 See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 127 (describing what cost per impressions ("CPM") is and how advertisers use the model).
254 See MICHAEL A. ACZON, THE MUSICIAN'S LEGAL COMPANION 34–35 (Course Technology, 2d ed. 2008) (describing blanket licenses and how they are used to license small performance copyrights through the PRO's).
256 See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 124–25 (discussing the cost per-click form of payment method in online advertising).
and SEM firms collect the required information for this structure based on the common cost per click ("CPC") model and could likely report on the specific trademarked terms.\(^{257}\) The CPC model allows for the advertiser to run its ad on a search engine but only pay for the ad if a consumer clicks on it.\(^{258}\) This rate structure is popular within SEM firms and advertisers because firms can manage an advertiser's budget to a narrow ROI range that the advertiser sets.\(^{259}\) In addition, search engines, SEM firms, and advertisers are familiar with this system.\(^{260}\)

Because the advertiser only pays for the click cost if the ad is clicked on, the trademark owner would only be paid each time the ad clicked on is triggered by the trademarked keyword.\(^{261}\) The CPC model allows the market to determine the number of clicks the term gets and a percentage-based model allows for the market to determine the amount of fees collected by the trademark owner.\(^{262}\) If the cost of a trademarked keyword goes up or down, so would the trademark owner's fee.

This model would likely require additional administrative work by the entity that would collect and distribute the fees.\(^{263}\) The entity would need to possess the ability to separate the trademarked terms from non-trademarked terms in order to calculate which trademarked terms were clicked on and what the number of clicks were, as well as whether the owner bid on that term or another person or entity.\(^{264}\)

The larger search engines currently have technology that separates out the trademarked terms from the generic terms as it is in use today to determine the costs of the trademarked vs. generic keywords to either the advertiser directly or the SEM firm.\(^{265}\) Depending on the platform used, some SEM firms also have this capability as they sometimes offer varying fee structures for trademarked vs. generic keywords.\(^{266}\)

2. Flat Fee Per Click of the Trademarked Keyword

A flat fee per click system would charge a flat rate per click of a trademarked term, regardless of the cost of the keyword.\(^{257}\) This model varies from the percent of the trademarked keyword cost because this structure is a flat fee per click, regardless of the cost of the keyword or click.\(^{268}\) In this model, the market would not determine

\(^{257}\) See, e.g., In re DoubleClick Inc. Privacy Litigation, 154 F. Supp. 2d 497, 504–05 (S.D.N.Y. 2001) (explaining the way DoubleClick, the largest Internet advertising service provider at the time, collected and stored data from users of DoubleClick affiliated websites).

\(^{258}\) See Siskind, supra note 238, at 124–25.

\(^{259}\) See Siskind, supra note 238, at 143 (describing how a program may be run to a specific ROI set by an advertiser).

\(^{260}\) See, e.g., In re DoubleClick, 154 F. Supp. 2d at 500.

\(^{261}\) See Siskind, supra note 238, at 124–25.

\(^{262}\) See id.

\(^{263}\) See, e.g., 37 C.F.R. § 261.4(b–c) (2009).

\(^{264}\) See id.

\(^{265}\) See Siskind, supra note 238, at 124–25.

\(^{266}\) See, e.g., In re DoubleClick Inc. Privacy Litigation, 154 F. Supp. 2d 497, 504–05 (S.D.N.Y. 2001).

\(^{267}\) See Brabec, supra note 89, at 287 (stating that the fees for blanket licenses for musical works can be a flat fee).

\(^{268}\) See id.
the flat fee per click; however, it would drive the number of clicks each trademarked
term received, thus having an impact on the fees generated for the trademark
owner.\textsuperscript{269}

The same administrative issues within the percent of click cost model apply to
this model.\textsuperscript{270} The difference is how the fee itself is calculated, which is less of a
technological issue and more of an accounting issue that is easily solved.\textsuperscript{271}

3. Flat Fee Per Impressions of the Trademarked Keyword

A flat fee per impressions would charge a flat fee for each time an ad is
generated under the sponsored links section as a result of a trademarked keyword
search.\textsuperscript{272} A cost per thousand impressions ("CPM") model is used primarily for
advertisers that are looking for brand awareness or are lead generators, and not
necessarily online retailers.\textsuperscript{273} The impressions are the important factor for these
advertisers, as they simply want their message to get to as many consumers as
possible, within the confines of their budget and target audiences.\textsuperscript{274} The
impressions are measured and priced by the thousand.\textsuperscript{275} The number of impressions
is typically exponentially greater than the number of clicks.\textsuperscript{276}

The trademark owner's fee per impression would likely be much lower than the
fee per click, but the quantity of impressions much higher.\textsuperscript{277} This balances the
resulting fee to the trademark owner to be similar to the flat-fee-per-click model.\textsuperscript{278}
The market impact is different than the per click model. Since the key indicator is
impressions and not clicks, the driver of the fee is not the click-through rate but
rather simply the search itself on that keyword.\textsuperscript{279} This means that if the consumer
searches on a specific keyword but immediately looks at something else on the page,
the trademark owner would still be compensated if his sponsored link showed up in
the results.\textsuperscript{280}

The threshold for the trademark owner being paid is much lower based on
market demand than that of the flat-fee-per-click model.\textsuperscript{281} The search engine and
cost per keyword drive the eventual success for the advertiser more so than market
demand.\textsuperscript{282} If two advertisers bid on the same trademarked term, the cost of the

\textsuperscript{269} See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 124–26 (describing how the market impacts advertisers'
cost for keywords).

\textsuperscript{270} See, e.g., 37 C.F.R. § 261.4(b–c) (2009).

\textsuperscript{271} See id.

\textsuperscript{272} See id.

\textsuperscript{273} See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 127 (explaining how cost per impression advertising is used
in the marketplace).

\textsuperscript{274} See id.

\textsuperscript{275} See id.

\textsuperscript{276} See id.

\textsuperscript{277} See id.

\textsuperscript{278} See id.

\textsuperscript{279} See id.

\textsuperscript{280} See id.

\textsuperscript{281} See id.

\textsuperscript{282} See id.
The impression that the consumer ultimately sees is primarily based on the fact that the advertiser paid more for the search term than the other party. Thus, the cost of the keyword should come into play when calculating the trademark owner's fee for this model. The same administrative and market impact factors apply to this model as the flat fee per click model.

4. Flat Fee Based on a Blanket License

A blanket license would be an annual license issued through a centralized organization similar to SoundExchange for the digital sound recording public performance royalty. This could consist of a flat-rate minimum fee for the use of the trademarked keyword. The system could consist of a tiered rate structure based on the market value of the keyword, the market demand of the keyword, or the size of the organization that owns the trademarked keyword.

This model could mirror the set-up of the Small Webcaster's Settlement Agreement of 2009 ("SWSA") regarding the digital sound recording public performance royalty. The SWSA allows smaller webcasters to play music over the Internet without being cost prohibitive, but still provides a royalty to the sound recording owners of the webcast. It sets up a model that allows webcasters to negotiate a rate with SoundExchange somewhat based on the webcaster's own revenue stream. The SWSA fee ends up being anywhere from twelve to twenty-five percent of the advertising revenue of the webcaster. This rate structure could be mimicked in the paid search market.

Search engine marketing firms are ideally situated to collect this type of fee and administer the payments to the trademark owners. SEM firms work with multiple search engines, already collect the data needed for payment (regardless of the rate model adopted), and have relationships with many advertisers involved in these types of transactions. Regardless of the type of firm that would administer these royalties, it would need to be a non-profit, Congressionally sanctioned organization,
similar to what SoundExchange is today to the digital public performance royalty administration.296

B. Compulsory Use vs. Compulsory Rate Structure

Another issue Congress must address is whether the use of the trademark or the rate or rate structure imposed on the trademark use should be compulsory.297 I propose that the rate should be compulsory but the use optional.

1. Compulsory Use and Rate

Compulsory use of a trademark would mean that the trademark owner could not prevent another entity from bidding on and using its trademark in paid search.298 This would also mean that a rate for the use of the trademark as the keyword would be compulsory.299 While this model works well in copyright for mechanical licensing, it would probably not bode well in the trademark world where likelihood of confusion is the primary concern.300 The inherent value in a trademark is that no person or company may use it without the owner’s permission (fair use exceptions aside) due to the public perception and goodwill that the mark is determined to represent and the potential likelihood of confusion that may ensue from another’s use.301 If the use of the mark were compulsory, this would essentially impinge on the owner’s most basic rights within the mark to protect their own market perception and goodwill.302

2. Compulsory Rate Only

Another possible solution is to make only the rate compulsory, not the use.303 If an advertiser wanted to use another entity’s trademark as a keyword in a search, the trademark owner would need to give permission, but would not be able to set the rate.304 The rate would be legislatively set, per one of the models explained above.305 This model would require a centralized organization to administer the licenses between trademark owners and the licensees.306 While potential licensees could track down trademark owners individually, this would be an impracticable and cost

298 See id.
299 See id.
300 See id. § 1114 (setting forth likelihood of confusion as the primary element for trademark infringement).
301 See id.
302 See id.
303 See, e.g., Copyright Compulsory License, supra note 97 (describing the compulsory license rates for recording and distributing musical works).
304 See, e.g., id.
305 See, e.g., id.
prohibitive practice for licensees to undertake. An organization would need to be established for the licensing and royalty structure that would administer the licenses and royalties, similar to the function that SoundExchange provides in the digital public performance royalty administration.

3. Administering a Compulsory Model

Regardless of whether the use and rate are compulsory or just the rate, this proposed model would result in increased administrative needs for both search engine marketing firms and search engines. Both entities would need to enhance their technologies that currently differentiate between a trademarked term and a non-trademarked term to also delineate a licensed trademarked term from and a non-licensed trademarked term.

An additional issue emerges when deciding who would police the use: the centralized agency that handles the licensing, the search engine, the search engine marketing firm, or the trademark owner. This management issue should be determined based on the technology that is developed to track the use and where that technology resides.

C. For Profit or Pass-Through Rate?

In light of the additional resources required to administer any of these monetized models, a consideration is whether the fee, regardless of structure or compulsory nature, is for profit for the entity that administers this structure or a straight pass-through of the royalties (less administrative fees) to the trademark owner.

1. For Profit

If the rate were for profit, the first question is who receives the profit. The trademark owner would receive the rate itself. The profit would seemingly go to the organization that administered the rates, licenses, or meets the general needs of
the structure adopted.316 The search engines, however, would likely want a cut of this profit, if the bulk of the model’s success relied on their technology to aggregate the data needed to administer the model.317 The profit would likely go to the firm or engine that developed the technology which allowed for the management of the licensed trademarked keywords within paid search.318

The second question is at what percentage this profit would be set.319 The market could determine the profit if it were a set margin or markup of the cost of the keyword.320 The more demand for the keyword, the higher the cost, and the higher the cost, the more profit would be generated.321 Congress would need to determine whether the rate would include a profit or portion for the administrative entity, or whether this profit would be set by the entity that administered the model.322 This would likely drive the cost of the keyword up, and possibly make it cost prohibitive to license the trademark to use as a keyword.323

2. Pass Through Model

A pass through model sets a rate for the trademark owner, but allows for a percentage of the rate to be withheld by the administering entity to cover its costs.324 This would essentially make the administering entity a non-profit organization.325 The percentage withheld would be legislated to make it a standardized amount.326 This may increase the costs of the legislated rate, but likely not as much as a potential for-profit model.327 This model would allow trademark owners to take control of the use of their mark.328 They may choose to not allow anyone to use it as a keyword, or may choose to allow other companies to license the mark.329 Companies should have the right to opt out of allowing other companies to license their mark, and they should not lose the right to litigate infringing uses of their mark.330 Essentially, a trademark would not be able to be used as a keyword unless the owner of the trademark grants permission through a license.331

316 See id.
317 See id.
318 See id.
319 See id.
320 See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 125 (explaining how the market determines the cost per click in paid search).
321 See id.
323 See SISKIND, supra note 238, at 125.
324 See 17 U.S.C. § 114(g) (offering SoundExchange two-and-a-half percent of the royalty fee as an administrative fee).
325 See id.
326 See id.
327 See id.
328 See 15 U.S.C. § 1114(1) (indicating that a trademark owner must consent to the use of his mark by a third party, otherwise the third party potentially infringes the mark if he uses it in commerce).
329 See id.
330 See id.
331 See id.
This licensing model would not change the fair uses of trademarks in keywords, but would attempt to define them better.\(^3\)\(^2\) Currently, courts determine the fair use based upon the facts specific to the case.\(^3\)\(^3\) This legislation would clarify this use so as to delineate it from the license requirement.\(^3\)\(^4\)

**D. Counter-Arguments to this Paid Search Licensing System**

The primary issue presented by these proposals is why a company would choose to license its mark for use in paid search.\(^3\)\(^5\) The solutions proposed are primarily aimed at the "long tail" within the paid search industry.\(^3\)\(^6\) This segment comprises advertisers who pay a minimum amount of money to maintain a presence online within paid search.\(^3\)\(^7\) They may manage their paid search program in-house or work with a smaller SEM firm to handle it for them for a minimal fee.\(^3\)\(^8\) These advertisers would not necessarily litigate the use of their trademarks, or possibly even know that other companies are using their marks.\(^3\)\(^9\)

If the advertiser does not know about this activity, he may not be able to stop it.\(^3\)\(^10\) If he is unaware of it, then the tendency is to think that the impact to his business is minimal.\(^3\)\(^11\) But this is not necessarily the case. When SoundExchange began to administer the digital public performance royalty system, an issue emerged with sound recording copyright owners not claiming their royalties.\(^3\)\(^4\) A similar situation may be happening with trademark owners who are unaware that their marks are being purchased by other advertisers. While the sound recording copyright owner was not directly losing money by his work being publicly performed, the trademark owner may be losing traffic to his website or sales of his goods, and may be experiencing a loss of reputation or dilution of his mark.\(^3\)\(^4\)\(^3\)

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\(^3\)\(^3\) See id.


\(^3\)\(^6\) See CHRIS ANDERSON, THE LONG TAIL: WHY THE FUTURE OF BUSINESS IS SELLING LESS OF MORE (Hyperion 2008) (discussing how technology allows businesses to provide their goods and services to niche markets).

\(^3\)\(^7\) See, e.g., Storus Corp. v. Aroa Mktg., Inc., No. C-06-2454-MMC, 2008 WL 449835, at *1 (N.D. Cal. Feb. 15, 2008) (showing an example of an advertiser with a narrow online marketing focus within paid search).

\(^3\)\(^8\) See id. at *4.

\(^3\)\(^9\) See STEPHEN ELIAS & RICHARD STIM, TRADEMARK LEGAL CARE FOR YOUR BUSINESS & PRODUCT NAME 256–57 (NOLO, 8th ed. 2007) (describing the cost of trademark infringement litigation).

\(^3\)\(^10\) See, e.g., Ben Sisario, Old Songs Generate New Cash For Artists, N.Y. TIMES, at E1 (Dec. 28, 2004) (explaining how many sound recording copyright owners did not know about the sound recording copyright and therefore did not collect).

\(^3\)\(^11\) See id.

\(^3\)\(^12\) See id.

\(^3\)\(^13\) See, e.g., Storus Corp. v. Aroa Mktg., Inc., No. C-06-2454-MMC, 2008 WL 449835, at *4 (N.D. Cal. Feb. 15, 2008) (looking at impressions and clicks as indicators of the infringing impact);
This proposal tends to go against the responsibility that a trademark owner has in policing his mark. However, trademark owners do not have control of the use of their marks in paid search programs currently. While the limited litigation on this issue has shown that the use of a trademark in keywords within paid search does constitute a use in commerce within the meaning of the Lanham Act, no case has determined whether this use has created a likelihood of confusion. Therefore, the current paid search system can legally continue to sell trademarks as keywords.

This proposal seeks to extend the control that a trademark owner has over his mark and take it out of a virtual purgatory regarding how he may police use of his marks in paid search programs. This proposal will statutorily retain the strength of the mark as it relates to its use as a keyword in paid search without the owner having to employ extensive policing tactics. In the new system, rather than third parties having a right to use another’s mark in paid search without the mark owner’s permission and without compensating the mark owner, the mark owner would retain control of whether his mark was licensed by third parties. Part of the responsibility of the firm that administers the royalties would be to ensure compliance from mark owners. If a mark is licensed, it would be because the owner has given strict permission as to that particular licensee.

Another issue is the potential for trademark abandonment if a mark owner allows for another advertiser to license his mark but does not participate in paid search himself. Not outbidding a competitor for one’s own mark or disallowing a competitor to use one’s own mark does not constitute abandonment of the mark today. Mark owners may have this concern today, but under this proposal, they would no longer have this issue.

This proposal would allow advertisers to ban the use of their marks if they choose. It also creates a revenue stream for mark owners for an activity that currently takes place.


See 3 J. THOMAS MCCARTHY, MCCARTHY ON TRADEMARKS AND UNFAIR COMPETITION § 17:17 (4th ed. 2009) (explaining how failure to police one’s mark may cause the mark to lose significance in the marketplace, but that litigating “every possible infringing use to avoid a holding of abandonment” is not required).

See, e.g., Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123 (2d Cir. 2009).

See id. at 131 (remanding to the district court to determine if a likelihood of confusion exists when using a trademarked term as a keyword in paid search).

See Google AdWords Trademark Policy, supra note 35.

See Dogan, supra note 217, at 1347 (discussing the need for more clear guidance in trademark law on use of a trademarked keyword within paid search).

See MCCARTHY, supra note 344.


See MCCARTHY, supra note 344.

See id.


CONCLUSION

The magnitude of the impact of search engine marketing on trademark law has only recently started to come into focus. As technology evolves and creates new streams of commerce, the laws to protect advertisers' and consumers' intellectual property rights rarely keep pace. We witnessed this in the copyright arena with digital public performance rights for sound recording owners, and we are witnessing it again in the trademark arena with the increased use of trademarks within paid search programs.

Congress needs to decide whether advertisers who use competitor's trademarks in their own keywords for paid search are brilliant marketing strategists or are infringing the trademark owner's rights.

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358 See, e.g., Rescuecom Corp. v. Google, Inc., 562 F.3d 123, 131 (2d Cir. 2009) (holding Google's use of Rescuecom's trademark as a keyword in its AdWords program was a use in commerce).

359 See, e.g., Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc. v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U.S. 913 (2005) (showing copyright holders' fight for stricter enforcement of their rights due to peer-to-peer file-sharing technology): Rescuecom, 562 F.3d 123 (showing trademark owners' asserting their rights in the paid search environment).


361 See Rescuecom, 562 F.3d 123.