

TRIAL BRIEF OF DEFENDANT ACTIVISION, INC.

50 AND RELATED CROSS-ACTION.
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ACTIVISION, INC.
 TRIAL BRIEF OF DEFENDANT
 No. C 85 2510 CAL

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NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA
 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 In late 1967, an engineer named William Rusch was assigned
3 to work on a video game project at Sanders Associates in New
4 Hampshire. By that time, Ralph Baer--Rusch's new supervisor at
5 Sanders--had completed work on some simple circuits for playing
6 games on a television display by generating dots, getting the dots
7 to move, detecting coincidence (touching) of the dots, and altering
8 one of the dots in response to that coincidence. Rusch was assigned
9 to develop improvements to the already designed video game. A short
10 time later, Ralph Baer's game was modified--allegedly by Rusch--by
11 the use of a standard television wave form called a "sawtooth" and
12 an off-the-shelf circuit called a flip-flop to "bounce" one dot off
13 the other.^{1/}

14 Fifteen years and a computer revolution later, Magnavox
15 sued Activision, Inc. on the ground that four of Activision's video
16 game cartridges allegedly infringe Rusch's "invention" of "imparting
17 a distinct motion (bounce)."^{2/} (Nine more Activision games were
18

19 ^{1/} For the convenience of the Court, the text of the alleg-
20 edly infringed claims of the Rusch-2 patent are set forth in Appen-
21 dix B to this brief.

22 ^{2/} The seven claims of the Rusch patent at issue in this
23 litigation use the term "imparting a distinct motion" [upon or in
24 response to coincidence of dots or symbols]. The "distinct motion"
25 or "bounce" feature occurs when a hitting symbol (tennis racket,
26 hockey stick) touches a hit symbol (ball, puck) and causes the hit
symbol to reverse direction or transfers to it velocity proportional
to that of the hitting symbol. This definition is discussed in
Statement of Facts III B. Throughout the brief we use the term
"bounce" to mean "imparting a distinct motion."

//

1 added to the list more than a year after the lawsuit was filed and
2 after Activision had provided Magnavox with sales data as to the
3 first four games. Activision has marketed over three dozen game
4 cartridges.) Rusch's patent neither mentions nor contemplates
5 anything even resembling the software which Activision designs and
6 manufactures. Moreover, as Activision will prove, the Rusch patent
7 is itself invalid and never should have been issued by the Patent
8 Office.

11 OVERVIEW

12 Activision's Trial Brief commences with its Statement of
13 Facts, and goes on to address the independent but interrelated
14 issues of patent invalidity for obviousness, lack of contributory
15 infringement, express and implied licenses, and the absence of any
16 "bounce" in nine of the thirteen accused games.

17 The facts relevant to this case span nearly twenty-five
18 years--from the origins of the "prior art" that predates and made
19 obvious Rusch's "invention," to the late 1970s when advances in
20 microprocessor technology made possible the video game cartridges
21 designed and manufactured by Activision. To place the facts in
22 context, a brief overview is provided to Activision's chronological
23 Statement of Facts.

24 In the 1950s and into the late 1960s, television sets and
25 other similar cathode ray tube devices began to be used for playing
26 games and setting up simulations. These efforts were made with

1 public knowledge; for example, thousands of people watched an early
2 tennis video game played at an "open house" at Brookhaven National
3 Laboratories in 1957. By the time Ralph Baer at Sanders Associates
4 began working on a video game project in 1966, all the elements of
5 the prior art were available for his use on that project. Baer
6 filed a patent application in January 1968 for his work described
7 above, which eventually issued as the '480 patent. In mid-1969,
8 Rusch, who worked for Baer, applied for a patent on his improvement
9 to Baer's work, which eventually issued as the '507 patent.
10 (Because the two patents are so similar in both content and the
11 general time frame in which they were first sought, throughout this
12 brief and the trial we will call the 1968 application "Baer-1" and
13 the mid-1969 application "Rusch-2.")^{3/}

14 Sanders Associates tried to find a user for these patents
15 for four years and finally was able to license the Baer-1 and
16 Rusch-2 patents to The Magnavox Company. In the early 1970s,
17 Magnavox manufactured and marketed the Odyssey video game (which was
18 not based on either the Baer-1 or Rusch-2 circuitry). The Odyssey
19 game consisted of a box with the circuits for four games "hardwired"
20 into it and a transparent overlay to be placed over the television
21 screen to provide a background for the games.

23 ^{3/} For the convenience of the Court, in Appendix A to this
24 brief we set out a chronology of how the Baer-1 and Rusch-2 patents
25 proceeded through the Patent Office, and an explanation of the vari-
26 ous numbers assigned to the applications.

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1 Activision, a California corporation based in Mountain
2 View, was founded in 1979 for the specific purpose of designing
3 copyrighted video game cartridges. A video game cartridge is a
4 small plastic box, the size of a tape cassette, which contains a
5 computer program encoded in a "read only memory" (ROM) semiconduc-
6 tor, and placed on a very small printed circuit board. The car-
7 tridges, unlike the limited Odyssey game, are interchangeable and
8 can be played on various "master consoles" (which Activision does
9 not manufacture or sell). The master console is a computer; an
10 Activision video game cartridge is one of many programs which may
11 make use of that computer.

12 Activision has designed and manufactured 42 different
13 video games in cartridges to be played on the user's television set
14 in connection with a master console, primarily the Atari Video
15 Computer System 2600^{4/} ("2600"), and a hand-held control known as
16 a "joystick." The player selects the video game cartridge contain-
17 ing the program for the Activision game of choice, inserts the
18 cartridge into the master console, turns on the television set, and
19 the television set then displays the computer-generated images. The
20 player uses the joystick to control the horizontal and vertical
21 position, velocity and acceleration of the player-controlled object
22 on the display.

23 Activision also designs and manufactures cartridges and
24 disks to be played on home or personal computers. To date,
25

26 4/ Registered trademark of Atari, Inc.

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1 Activision has designed and manufactured 20 such products for per-
2 sonal computers. The video game cartridge or disk is the program
3 for the personal computer. The player inserts into the computer or
4 disk drive the cartridge or disk which contains the program for the
5 Activision game of choice, and the computer then displays the com-
6 puter-generated images.

7 Both the rudimentary device put together by Baer and Rusch
8 and the Activision cartridges (inserted in a master console or home
9 computer and joystick) allow users to play games on a television
10 set. Otherwise, the Baer and Rusch device and the Activision cart-
11 ridges are as dissimilar as a Piper Cub aircraft and the space
12 shuttle.

13 In 1982, this lawsuit was filed. Since that time, the
14 Primary Examiner in the Patent and Trademark Office has found that
15 the relevant claims of the Baer-1 patent--on which the Rusch-2
16 patent is premised--are invalid as "obvious" in light of the prior
17 art.

18
19 STATEMENT OF FACTS

20 I.

21 THE PRIOR ART.

22 A. The Prior Art Before
23 Sanders Associates'
Video Game Effort.

24 Video games and video simulation training devices long
25 pre-date the patent that is the subject of this lawsuit. There are
26 numerous examples of relevant "prior art, each of which "teaches"

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1 used to simulate a lunar excursion module landing on the moon, a
2 rendezvous in outer space in which the lunar excursion module docks
3 with the command module, a tank game, an airplane landing at an
4 airport and on an aircraft carrier.

5
6 Drumheller Pool Game

7 In San Francisco at the Fall 1966 Joint Computer Confer-
8 ence sponsored by the American Federation of Information Processing
9 Societies and the Association of Computing Machineries, a video game
10 for playing pool, written by John Drumheller, was publicly demon-
11 strated and played. The Drumheller pool game was similar in appear-
12 ance to the Michigan pool game. In Drumheller's version, the
13 player-controlled symbol was the cue stick, and the distinct motion
14 imparted to the cue ball, when hit by the cue stick, was propor-
15 tional to the velocity with which the cue stick was moved.

16
17 RCA Pool Game

18 In 1967, RCA held an open house for the 25th anniversary
19 of the David Sarnoff Research Center in Princeton, New Jersey. A
20 pool game similar to Drumheller's pool game was demonstrated to and
21 played by visitors at the open house.

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1 to be manipulated by the participant, means for generating vertical
2 and horizontal synchronization signals, means for the player to move
3 the dot the player controls, means for generating dots whose motion
4 is non-player controlled (automatic), means for detecting coinci-
5 dence, and means for altering a dot in response to coincidence.

6 By this time, Baer's game concept had matured into seven
7 distinct games which were demonstrated by Baer to his superiors at
8 Sanders on June 18, 1967. The games included a game called "Fox
9 Hunt" where a white spot (hunter) controlled by a player chased a
10 red spot (controlled by another player); when the spots touched, the
11 red spot would disappear by a change in background color. In
12 another game, "Fox & Hounds Chase," the player controlled a "red
13 fox" trying to maneuver past three machine controlled spots repre-
14 senting hounds whose movement was controlled by the machine. Baer
15 also developed a target shooting game where one player attempted to
16 shoot at either a stationary spot, a player controlled spot, or a
17 randomly moving spot on the screen. Two other games developed by
18 Baer were "pumping games" where each player would pump a switch as
19 fast as possible to see who could raise the level of "water" dis-
20 played on the screen.

21 On January 15, 1968, Baer applied for the patent even-
22 tually issued as U.S. Patent No. 3,728,480. This patent (the "'480
23 patent" or "Baer-1 patent") describes circuitry for playing games on
24 a television display by generating dots, getting the dots to move
25 and "hit" each other, detecting coincidence of the dots, and alter-
26 ing one of the dots in response to coincidence. When Baer applied

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1 for the patent, neither Baer nor Sanders disclosed to the Patent
2 Office the existence of the pool games, Higinbotham tennis game,
3 Space War, Spiegel patent, and the G.E./NASA scene generator.^{6/}
4 Moreover, none of this prior art was considered by the Patent Office
5 prior to the issuance of the Baer-1 patent.
6

7 2. William Rusch Comes
8 To Work For Baer.

9 Although William Rusch, an engineer at Sanders Associates,
10 formally was assigned to work for Ralph Baer on the video game
11 effort in July of 1967, Rusch's notebooks reflect the fact that
12 Rusch's first work on video games began toward the end of September,
13 1967. By then, Baer already had completed work on the device
14 claimed in his patent and successfully tested it, i.e., reduced it
15 to practice. In fact, counsel for Sanders conceded to the Patent
16 Office that Rusch's work was only an attempted "improvement" started
17 after Baer had finished his work.

18 Before Rusch began any work on Sanders Associates' video
19 game project, Rusch became thoroughly familiar with all of Baer's
20 and Harrison's ideas, designs, circuits and working models. Thus,
21 prior to Rusch's formal assignment to Baer's group in July 1967,
22 Rusch attended an informal meeting with Baer and Harrison at which
23 the three discussed possible game ideas. After the meeting Rusch
24

25 ^{6/} We do not argue here that Baer or Sanders deliberately
26 withheld these references. Rather, it is undisputed that the Patent
Office did not consider them in issuing the patent.

1 wrote a memorandum summarizing the discussion. Less than two months
2 after Rusch began working on his improvement of Baer's patent, Rusch
3 had reduced his game concept to practice.

4 On or about February 2, 1968, Rusch completed a "Patent
5 Disclosure Sheet" (an in-house form at Sanders) and sent it to
6 Sanders' patent counsel. In his signed and witnessed Patent Disclo-
7 sure Sheet, Rusch informed Sanders' patent counsel that he wanted to
8 patent some circuitry that would "provide[] another positioning
9 method for spots on TV screen." Rusch informed patent counsel that
10 the idea for his circuitry was suggested by the "desire to have
11 voltage control and spot shapes other than rectangular. (Round spot
12 for example.)" By way of his patent disclosure, Rusch informed
13 Sanders Associates that the "basic theory" of his circuits was
14 similar to Baer's. As Rusch described the connection, Baer had
15 "thought of generating spots and patterns" on television sets for
16 various games, and Rusch had drawn circuits that used a different
17 method of generating spots and patterns.

18 In his Patent Disclosure Sheet, Rusch did not use the term
19 "imparting a distinct motion" in describing the function of his
20 circuits, nor did he identify this element of his circuitry in the
21 sections on the form where he was to identify "Problem solved,"
22 "Idea of the invention was suggested by the following factors,"
23 "Disadvantages of old apparatus or method," "Advantages of new
24 apparatus or method," or "Features believed to be new." According
25 to his Patent Disclosure Sheet, the features Rusch thought were new
26 were only those of "Simple voltage control of spot positioning.

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1 Price per spot less. Round spots, hollow 'ring' spots, etc., gen-
2 erated easily."

3 William Harrison constructed the circuits for Rusch, as he
4 had for Baer. Rusch's circuits were tested by Harrison, Baer and
5 Rusch.

6 On May 27, 1969, Rusch applied for the patent eventually
7 reissued as U.S. Patent Re. No. 28,507 ("the '507 patent" or
8 "Rusch-2 patent"). Consistent with his Patent Disclosure Sheet,
9 Rusch's patent application did not use the words "imparting a dis-
10 tinct motion" to describe Rusch's "invention." Moreover, neither
11 Rusch's patent application nor his patent, when it issued, included
12 any detailed description of specific "flip-flop" circuitry to be
13 used to impart a distinct motion upon detection of coincidence. A
14 flip-flop was and is a simple, well known type of electrical circuit
15 with two states which could automatically change voltage.^{7/} As
16 with Baer's patent application, the prior art was not disclosed by
17 Rusch to the Patent Office. Moreover, Baer's pending application
18 for the Baer-1 patent was not cited to the Patent Office as prior
19 art, but only cross-referenced as a related application. The Patent
20 Office examiner thus did not consider the impact of Baer's pending
21

22 ^{7/} Rusch states that the dots are generated by "developing
23 current pulses proportional to predetermined portions (slices) of
24 horizontal and vertical sawtooth waves." Of course, electricity can
25 move in waves of differing shapes and frequencies. The "sawtooth"
26 is so named because it looks like the teeth of a saw. Every tele-
vision set uses a sawtooth wave to generate the picture on the
screen, and therefore the use of a sawtooth wave to control spots on
a screen is inherent in the nature of television itself.

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1 patent on the validity or scope of the Rusch patent.

2
3 3. The Baer-Rusch-Harrison
4 Patent.

5 On August 21, 1969, Baer, Rusch and Harrison together
6 applied for a patent eventually reissued as U.S. Patent Number
7 28,598 ("the '598" or "BRH-3" patent). This patent purports to
8 describe circuitry for playing games on a television display by
9 generating dots, getting the hitting dot(s) to move and "hit" the
10 hit dot(s), detecting coincidence of the dots, and "imparting a
11 distinct motion" or "altering the motion upon coincidence" of the
12 hit dot(s). Once again, the prior art was not disclosed to or
13 considered by the Patent Office, nor was the pending Baer-1 patent
14 considered on the issues of validity or scope.

15 According to Magnavox and Baer's own testimony, the BRH-3
16 contained superior circuits to those described in the Rusch-2
17 patent. The BRH-3 patent disclosed and claimed Harrison's circuits
18 for generating spots on the screen, i.e., spot generators. The
19 BRH-3 patent disclosed circuitry which could generate screen-width
20 walls off of which spots could bounce. By contrast, the Rusch-2
21 patent neither disclosed nor claimed wall generator circuitry or
22 digital spot generators.

23
24 4. The Patents Issue.

25 On April 25, 1972, the Rusch-2 patent was issued to
26 Sanders Associates as assignee of Rusch. The same day, the BRH-3

1 patent was issued to Sanders Associates as assignee of Baer,
2 Harrison and Rusch. On April 17, 1973, the Baer-1 patent was issued
3 to Sanders Associates as assignee of Baer, although its application
4 was the first of the three patents to be filed.

5
6 5. Reissue Applications Are
7 Sought Shortly Thereafter.

8 Pursuant to the terms of 35 U.S.C. Section 251, a patent
9 holder may file an application for reissue when the patent is
10 "deemed wholly or partly inoperative or invalid, by reason of a
11 defective specification or drawing, or by reason of the patentee
12 claiming more or less than he had a right to claim in the pat-
13 ent" Thus, on April 25, 1974, Rusch filed an application
14 for reissue of the Rusch-2 patent with the U.S. Patent and Trademark
15 Office.

16 Rusch's application for reissue of the Rusch-2 patent
17 stated that as the patent then read, it was "partly inoperative by
18 reason of a defective specification." Rusch stated that his sole
19 reason for seeking reissue was to cover displays on television
20 monitors, as well as television receivers. (A monitor is a tele-
21 vision set that cannot change channels.) To this end, claims 60
22 through 64 were added to the patent.

23 Again, none of the relevant prior art was disclosed to nor
24 considered by the Patent Office prior to the reissue of Rusch-2, and
25 the reissue application was allowed by the Commissioner.

26 //

1 Also on April 25, 1974, Baer, Harrison and Rusch filed an
2 application for reissue of the BRH-3 patent with the U.S. Patent and
3 Trademark Office. The reissue was allowed on October 28, 1975.
4 Shortly thereafter, the claims of the BRH-3 patent alleged to be
5 infringed in Magnavox Co. v. Chicago Dynamic Industries, 201
6 U.S.P.Q. 25 (N.D. Ill. 1977) were found by the court to be invalid
7 and obvious in light of the Rusch-2 patent.

8 On June 27, 1977, Baer filed an application for reissue of
9 his patent with the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office, stating that
10 as the Baer-1 read, it was "partly inoperative or invalid" because
11 Baer had claimed more than he had a right to claim in the patent.
12 Baer's "error" was to include claims in the Baer-1 that "appear to
13 be too broad" in light of the invention described by Fritz
14 Spiegel.

15 During the more than 7½ years that the Baer-1 reissue
16 application has been sought, the Patent Office, on five separate

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1 occasions, has rejected various of Sanders Associates' claims, and
2 Sanders has filed at least five amendments to its application. Baer
3 had submitted 96 claims which purported to set out the metes and
4 bounds of his "invention." On April 23, 1982, the Patent Office
5 Primary Examiner finally rejected substantially all of the relevant
6 submitted claims. Specifically, 78 of the claims were rejected,
7 primarily because the teachings of the Spiegel patent, combined with
8 the teachings of the video game Space War, made the Baer-1 obvious
9 to one skilled in the art. The 18 remaining claims relate primarily
10 to very specific circuitry and to a light detecting target shooting
11 game unrelated to Activision's video games here in suit. The simi-
12 larity between the Baer-1 claims rejected by the Primary Patent
13 Examiner and the claims of Rusch-2 at issue in this suit is strik-
14 ing. But for the element "imparting a distinct motion," each of the
15 relevant elements of the Rusch-2 at issue in this lawsuit has been
16 rejected as obvious by the Patent Office in considering the Baer-1
17 reissue application. 8/

18
19 8/ For example, rejected Claim 50 of the Baer-1 reissue
20 application closely tracks the elements of Claim 52 of Rusch-2. To
21 make this more vivid, we have inserted in brackets the relevant
22 Rusch-2 elements in the text of rejected Claim 50 of Baer-1:

22 "50. Apparatus for . . . generating dots upon
23 the screen of the television receiver to be manip-
24 ulated by a participant; [Rusch-2: 'apparatus for
25 generating symbols upon the screen of a television
26 receiver to be manipulated by at least one partici-
27 pant'] said apparatus comprising:

(continued)

1 In 1982, Baer appealed the Final Rejection of the Baer-1
2 reissue application to the U.S. Patent Office Board of Appeals. The
3 Primary Patent Examiner filed its Answer to Baer's appeal in October
4 1983. The matter is still pending before the Patent Board of
5 Appeals. 9/

6
7
8 II.

9 SANDERS ASSOCIATES ATTEMPTS TO
10 LICENSE ITS PATENTS.

11 For the four years between January 1968 and January 1972,
12 Sanders tried without success to sell or license the Baer-1,

13
14 8/ (footnote continued)

15 a control unit for generating signals repre-
16 senting the "dots" to be displayed [Rusch-2:
17 "means for generating a hitting symbol; and
18 means for generating a hit symbol] . . . and
19 means for detecting coincidence of two of said
dots on said screen at any time during the
playing of a game; [Rusch-2: "means for ascer-
taining coincidence between said hitting symbol
and said hit symbol] . . ."

20 The only Rusch-2 element not literally included is "imparting
21 a distinct motion." Notably, rejected Claim 83 in the Baer-1
22 reissue application included the very similar language:
"altering . . . one of said 'dots' in response to said
coincidence."

23 9/ Whether the relevant claims of the Baer-1 patent are
24 ultimately rejected as invalid by the U.S. Board of Patent
25 Appeals is not in any way dispositive of the outcome of this
26 lawsuit, since even if the Baer-1 patent were valid, its
teachings render the Rusch-2 patent obvious and thus invalid.
See Argument, Part I, infra.

//

1 Rusch-2, and BRH-3 patents. Finally, on January 27, 1972, Sanders
2 and Magnavox entered into an agreement under which Magnavox became
3 the exclusive licensee of the Baer-1, Rusch-2, and BRH-3 patents.
4 Magnavox also acquired the right to sub-license these three patents.

5 In 1972, Magnavox manufactured and sold a game marketed in
6 the United States under the trademark "Odyssey." Odyssey was a
7 battery-operated unit which came with transparent plastic overlays
8 with different printed backgrounds, which the user would tape
9 to the face of the television screen depending on the choice
10 of game. The first model Odyssey game unit commercially
11 introduced by Magnavox was based entirely on the circuitry
12 described in the BRH-3 patent. The Rusch-2 patent was never
13 embodied in a commercial product marketed by Magnavox or its
14 sublicensees.

15 Thus, to the extent Sanders Associates developed an idea
16 for playing video games on home television sets, that idea was
17 developed by Baer, not Rusch, and was embodied in the Baer-1 patent.
18 To the extent Sanders Associates developed circuitry for playing
19 video games on home television sets, that circuitry was embodied in
20 the BRH-3 patent.

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1 B. The Baer Prior Art--Work
2 At Sanders Associates.

3 1. Ralph Baer And The
4 '480 Patent.

5 From 1961 through the early 1970's, Ralph Baer was the
6 Division Manager for the Equipment Design Division of Sanders
7 Associates. As part of his job, Ralph Baer oversaw the development
8 of electronic display systems that Sanders designed for the
9 military.

10 In September of 1966, Baer wrote a memorandum indicating
11 that he was considering the development of video games. The memo-
12 randum fails to describe any circuitry or other means for implement-
13 ing Baer's video game. Baer himself stated in an early deposition
14 that, "any person skilled in the art, [i.e., a basic electronics
15 technician] would have been able to develop the circuitry [to
16 implement Baer's memorandum]." In fact, in early 1967, Baer gave
17 his memorandum to his technician William Harrison, and told Harrison
18 to make some electronic circuitry to implement the memorandum.
19 Harrison shortly thereafter constructed this circuitry, in part by
20 using a "Heathkit" Baer had purchased.

21 The simple electronic analog circuitry Harrison designed
22 to implement Baer's memorandum generated two moveable spots on a
23 television screen and ascertained coincidence between the two spots.
24 By June of 1967, Baer had constructed and tested his control box
25 which used a television set to play games. The control box was
26 attached to the antenna terminals of his television set, and
 included means for generating dots on the screen of a television set

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1 III.

2 MAGNAVOX AND SANDERS ASSOCIATES
3 FILE SUIT.

4 A. The Particular Games
5 Allegedly Infringing.

6 In 1982, Magnavox and Sanders brought suit against Acti-
7 vision for allegedly contributorily infringing certain claims of the
8 Rusch-2 patent. After a year and a half of discovery by Magnavox,
9 and with the trial at that time less than two months away, Magnavox
10 still was unable and unwilling to specify which of Activision's more
11 than three dozen games allegedly infringed their patent.^{10/}

12 Initially Magnavox asserted that only four Activision games in-
13 fringed, but after Activision provided Magnavox with sales data as
14 to the four games, Magnavox attempted to enlarge its potential
15 recovery in this case by adding another "at least" nine games to the
16 list of allegedly infringing games. Finally, nearly two years after
17 this lawsuit was filed and with the hearing date set for argument on
18 Activision's motion to compel interrogatory answers, Magnavox
19 limited its contentions to 13 of Activision's video games.^{11/}

20 ^{10/} In light of the inability of the Magnavox/Sanders expert
21 team to interpret and apply their own "invention," it is remarkable
22 that they persist in accusing Activision of willful infringement.

23 ^{11/} The timing of Magnavox' "discovery" of allegedly infring-
24 ing Activision games has a history worth relating. On September 28,
25 1982, Magnavox filed this lawsuit, but did not allege which
26 Activision game cartridges, when used with a master console, alleg-
edly infringed the Rusch-2 patent. In February 1983, in response to
Interrogatories from Activision, Magnavox alleged that "as presently
advised" the following games were at issue: Tennis, Ice Hockey,

(continued)

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Atari

Coleco

Mattel

Boxing	x		
Fishing Derby	x		
Tennis	x		
Stampede	x		x

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1 III.

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	<u>Atari</u>	<u>Coleco</u>	<u>Mattel</u>
Boxing	x		
Fishing Derby	x		
Tennis	x		
Stampede	x		x
Ice Hockey	x		
Barnstorming	x		
Grand Prix	x		
Sky Jinks	x		
Keystone Kapers	x	x	
Dolphin	x		
Enduro	x		
Decathlon	x	x	
Pressure Cooker	x		

The Atari, Coleco and Mattel master consoles which play the 13 games are sublicensed by Magnavox under the Rusch-2 patent. Although Activision also manufactures another version of the Activision Decathlon in disk form to be played on an Atari home computer, Magnavox does not allege that this disk or any other home computer software manufactured by Activision infringes Rusch-2.

12/ (footnote continued)

Court denied Magnavox' motion, and Magnavox' subsequent motion that the Court reconsider its decision. Later, Activision agreed to dismiss its second counterclaim so long as Magnavox would covenant that it would not ever sue Activision for infringement of the Baer-1 patent. Magnavox agreed to these terms. See Stipulation Re Dismissal of Activision Inc.'s Second Counterclaim; Stipulation Regarding Covenant Not to Sue for Alleged Infringement of U.S. Patent 3,728,480, both filed with the Court on October 29 and 30, 1984, respectively.

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1 B. The Activision Software
2 Does Not Infringe The
3 Rusch-2 Patent.

4 Activision game cartridges are computer software. The
5 cartridge itself does not generate dots, detect coincidence, or
6 provide a means for imparting a distinct motion. Magnavox has
7 conceded that no Activision game cartridge embodies the elements of
8 the Rusch-2 patent. Each Activision cartridge, depending upon the
9 theme of the particular video game, contains a computer program
10 which instructs the microprocessor in the master console to perform
11 certain functions.

12 The Rusch-2 patent does not describe or disclose the use
13 of video game cartridges such as those made, designed and sold by
14 Activision, and there is nothing in any of the language of the
15 patent to indicate that use of interchangeable cartridges or other
16 replaceable memory devices was contemplated to be a part of the
17 Rusch-2 device. Moreover, the computer and video game cartridge
18 technology that forms the basis of Activision's product is not
19 equivalent to Rusch-2.

20 During the prosecution of the Rusch-2, the Patent Office
21 Primary Examiner required Rusch to define what he meant by "hit
22 symbol" and "hitting symbol." In the course of his response, Rusch
23 described the two types of movement that could be imparted to the
24 "hit" spot (e.g., the ball) upon being hit by the "hitting" spot
25 (e.g., the player-controlled symbol). Either the hit spot would
26 reverse direction, or the hit spot would "travel in a direction and
with a velocity proportional to the direction and velocity of the

1 'hitting' spot, causing it to move toward an off-screen position,
2 whereupon it will bounce away from the screen in the same fashion as
3 a ball would." These are the only types of motion disclosed by
4 Rusch-2. The terms "hit symbol", "hitting symbol," and "imparting a
5 distinct motion" in Rusch-2 are thus limited to situations where the
6 "hit" spot reverses direction and/or travels in a direction and with
7 a velocity proportional to the direction and velocity of the "hit-
8 ting" spot.^{13/}

9 In nine of the Activision video games which Magnavox
10 alleges infringe the '507 patent, there is no imparting of a dis-
11 tinct motion to the hit symbol upon coincidence with the hitting
12 symbol. These games are: Fishing Derby, Stampede, Barnstorming,
13 Grand Prix, Sky Jinks, Keystone Kapers, Dolphin, Enduro, and
14 Decathlon. This is apparent from simply playing the games and
15 watching what happens on the television screen.

16
17 ^{13/} The legal principle of "file wrapper estoppel" limits the
18 meaning and scope of these terms to Rusch's definition as recited
19 above. Quite simply, the principle is that if the patent applicant
20 is required to limit or change his claims to get through the Patent
21 Office review (as Rusch was), the patent holder cannot expand those
22 claims later. See Argument, Part IV, infra.

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IV.

CONSUMER EXPECTATIONS REGARDING USE
OF MASTER CONSOLES TO PLAY ACTIVISION
SOFTWARE.

A. Magnavox Gives Atari And
Its Customers An Express
License To Purchase All
Compatible Video Game
Cartridges.

In June, 1976, Magnavox and Atari entered into a settle-
ment agreement and license agreement, in which Magnavox specifically
released Atari and all of Atari's customers from liability for
infringement, and covenanted that it would not sue them, in exchange
for a paid-up license (i.e., fixed sum) from Atari to Magnavox.
This open-ended release of Atari customers and covenant not to sue
in effect gave consumers an express license to purchase Activision
video game cartridges for use with their licensed Atari master
consoles. The express license is fully discussed at Argument III A.

B. Implied License.

The consumers of master consoles reasonably believe that
they may purchase Activision cartridges or compatible cartridges
made by any manufacturer without violating any law or infringing any
patent. Thus, by 1982 an estimated one-half of the 10 million homes
with an Atari master console had at least one Activision cartridge.
Magnavox has been well aware of the consumer's expectations and
actions and has taken no steps, either directly or through their
licensees, to change the consumer's expectations or resulting

1 actions. The existence of desirable, saleable cartridges obviously
2 enhances the sale of master consoles.

3 Video game cartridges are marketed in toy stores, depart-
4 ment stores, video/electronics specialty stores, chain stores and
5 catalogue showrooms. The master consoles with which these video
6 game cartridges are compatible generally are located nearby, the one
7 serving as advertising for the other. Joysticks for use with master
8 consoles and video game cartridges also are located nearby. Each
9 and every Atari, Mattel and Coleco master console is manufactured,
10 offered for sale and sold under a Magnavox patent license which
11 includes the Rusch-2 and Baer-1 patents. There are no warnings in
12 the sales area nor on any products or literature which would alert a
13 consumer or the retailer to Magnavox' assertion in this case that
14 only Atari cartridges may be used with Atari master consoles, Mattel
15 cartridges with Mattel consoles, or Coleco cartridges with Coleco
16 consoles. The consumer sees only that certain cartridges are com-
17 patible with certain master consoles without restrictions.

18 There is a substantial market for consumer joysticks of
19 varying models, styles and features, manufactured and sold by third
20 parties who do not also manufacture master consoles or software. No
21 manufacturer of consumer joysticks only has purchased a license from
22 Magnavox under the Baer-1 or Rusch-2 patent nor has Magnavox sought
23 to obtain any such license.

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V.

PRIOR LAWSUITS.

Over the last ten years, Magnavox has sued various manufacturers for alleged infringement of the Baer-1 and Rusch-2 patents. The findings, decisions and outcomes have no binding effect on this lawsuit as a matter of law. Activision was not a party to nor in privity with any party to either Magnavox Co. v. Chicago Dynamic Industries, 201 U.S.P.Q. 25 (N.D. Ill. 1977) or Magnavox Co. v. Mattel, Inc., 216 U.S.P.Q. 28 (N.D. Ill. 1982). Moreover, a brief description of the background and circumstances of some of these suits places Magnavox' litigation strategy and its "victories" in a more realistic context, and shows how radically different this lawsuit is from the earlier ones.

Magnavox Co. v. Chicago Dynamic Industries was initiated in 1974 in the Northern District of Illinois against several defendants. One of the defendants, Atari, Inc., sued Magnavox for declaratory relief in the Northern District of California and, after a battle over venue, the Atari case was consolidated for trial in Illinois. Venue was critical because during this period, patent holders received significantly disparate results depending on the federal judicial circuit in which the infringement action was brought. During the same period, it was generally known to counsel who practiced patent litigation that the Seventh Circuit was significantly more favorable to patent holders than the Ninth

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1 challenging validity,^{15/} Mattel could not contest the validity of
2 the Rusch-2 patent in that lawsuit and did not do so. Mattel
3 manufactured and sold complete units, i.e., television master
4 consoles, joysticks, and educational and game cartridges for their
5 master console.

6 No software-only manufacturer of video game programs has
7 purchased a license from Magnavox under any of their video game
8 patents. Unlicensed software program manufacturers include Imagic,
9 Parker Brothers, Broderbund, Synapse, Epyx, Sierra, Electronic Arts,
10 Spinnaker, and CBS. Also unlicensed are most manufacturers of home
11 computers which play video games, including IBM, Apple and
12 Commodore.

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14 ^{15/} Since the patent was not found invalid in the first case
15 brought by Magnavox in the same court, Seventh Circuit precedent
16 (which is contrary to the new Federal Circuit rule) would have bound
17 Mattel to that earlier finding, in the absence of "persuasive new
evidence of invalidity." See American Photocopy Equipment Co. v.
Rovico, Inc., 384 F.2d 813, 815 (7th Cir. 1967), cert. denied, 390
U.S. 945 (1968).

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1 ARGUMENT

2 I.

3 THE RUSCH-2 PATENT IS INVALID
4 BECAUSE THE CLAIMED INVENTION
5 IS OBVIOUS UNDER 35 U.S.C. SECTION 103.

6 A. Legal Standard Of
7 Invalidity For
8 Obviousness.

9 1. Sections 102 and 103.

10 The intention of the statutory monopoly conferred by the
11 patent laws is to encourage true invention. See U.S. Const. art. I,
12 §8 cl.8. Because the statutory monopoly created by the patent laws
13 is an exception to the general social and economic policy against
14 monopolies, the patent laws carefully delimit the conditions under
15 which a claimed "invention" can be patented. See generally Graham
16 v. John Deere Co., 383 U.S. 1, 5-11 (1966).

17 The specific limitations on the patentability of an inven-
18 tion are contained in 35 U.S.C. Sections 102 and 103. Section 102
19 lists seven factors, any one of which will invalidate a claimed
20 invention:

- 21 (a) if the invention was previously known;
22 (b) if the invention was patented, used or sold more than
23 one year prior to application for the patent;
24 (c) if the invention was abandoned;
25 (d) if the invention applied for was first patented
26 outside the United States more than one year prior to patent
application;

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1 (e) if the invention was described in another patent
2 application before the invention by applicant;

3 (f) if the invention was made by someone other than
4 applicant; and

5 (g) if the invention was first made by someone other than
6 applicant.

7 Section 103 imposes an additional requirement on patentability:
8 if the subject matter of the invention would have been
9 obvious to one with ordinary skill in the art, then the patent
10 is invalid for obviousness.^{16/} Section 103 provides as follows:

11 "§103. Conditions for patentability; non-obvious
12 subject matter

13 A patent may not be obtained though the invention is not identically disclosed or described as
14 set forth in section 102 of this title, if the differences between the subject matter sought to be
15 patented and the prior art are such that the subject matter as a whole would have been obvious at the
16 time the invention was made to a person having ordinary skill in the art to which said subject matter
17 pertains. Patentability shall not be negated by
18 the manner in which the invention was made."
(Emphasis added)

19 ^{16/} In the argot of the patent law, "anticipation" and "obviousness" are terms of art. A patent is said to be "anticipated" and
20 thus invalid in a situation where a single prior art reference is identical in all respects to the patent at issue. For example, an
21 inventor claims to have invented a chair with wheels. The prior art includes a German patent for a chair with wheels. The patent is
22 "anticipated" by the prior art. If instead the prior art references include (1) a chair and (2) a table with wheels, the patent is
23 "obvious" in light of the prior art, and also invalid, because it would have been obvious to one with ordinary skill to combine the
24 teachings of the table with wheels and the chair to produce a chair with wheels.

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1 2. Burden of Proof.

2 As the party challenging validity of Rusch-2, Activision
3 has the procedural burden of coming forward with clear and convinc-
4 ing evidence, and the burden of persuasion on the issue of patent
5 invalidity, despite the fact that patent validity is conceptually
6 part of the plaintiff's case in chief. This is all that is meant by
7 the "presumption"^{17/} of patent validity. See, e.g., Stratoflex,
8 Inc. v. Aeroquip Corp., 713 F.2d 1530, 1534 (Fed. Cir. 1983) (find-
9 ing patent invalid as obvious and non-infringed). The Federal
10 Circuit has clearly enunciated the maxim that the party challenging
11 the validity of the patent is "more likely to carry the burden of
12 persuasion imposed by 35 U.S.C. §282 when art more pertinent than
13 that considered [by the PTO] is introduced." Medtronic Inc. v.
14 Cardiac Pacemakers, Inc., 721 F.2d 1563, 1566-67 (Fed. Cir. 1983)
15 (only one piece of pertinent prior art considered by PTO; two other
16 relevant patents plus advertisements considered for first time at
17 trial where claims found invalid) (emphasis in original); 35 U.S.C.
18 §282.^{18/} See also EWP Corp. v. Reliance Universal Inc., No.

19 _____
20 ^{17/} See Fed. R. Evid. 301 ("a presumption imposes on the party
21 against whom it is directed the burden of going forward with evi-
22 dence to rebut or meet the presumption, but does not shift to such
23 party the burden of proof in the sense of the risk of nonpersuasion,
which remains throughout the trial upon the party on whom it was
originally cast").

24 ^{18/} 35 U.S.C. Section 282 provides:

25 "A patent shall be presumed valid. . . . The
26 burden of establishing invalidity of a patent or any
claim thereof shall rest on the party asserting such
invalidity."

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1 case law?" See EWP Corp. v. Reliance Universal Inc., supra, at 13,
2 16.

3 The asking and answering of this hypothetical question by
4 the Federal Circuit in EWP to find the patent in that case invalid
5 for obviousness is instructive here. In EWP, the court determined
6 that the "problem faced by Francois" (the inventor) was to find a
7 way to use a lattice configuration of wires for reinforcing concrete
8 bell and spigot pipe without breaking some circular wires in the
9 lattice. Id. at 13. Francois' "solution" was to include in the
10 lattice some "warp wires" which could be elongated. Francois'
11 patent itself explained that it was "already known to employ a
12 lattice for reinforcing concrete tubular elements"; and thus
13 Francois made no attempt to claim that as his "invention." Id.
14 at 13. The court wrote, "we can say the solution would have been
15 obvious to the hypothetical person of ordinary skill postulated by
16 [Section] 103 if we find evidence of prior art which shows he would
17 have been presumed to know that the way to make a reinforcing wire
18 expansible is to corrugate or crimp it." Id. at 14. Finding such
19 prior art, the Court held in finding the patent invalid: "We cannot
20 escape the conclusion that Francois did no more than apply the
21 presumed knowledge of the art to provide an obvious solution to a
22 simple problem: use crimped wire where there is a need in a subse-
23 quent forming step to expand or stretch it." Id. at 15.

24 Similarly, in the case of one of the patents at issue in
25 Graham v. John Deere Co., the Supreme Court considered the "problem"
26 the inventor (Graham) sought to meet, and whether or not the

1 solution would have been "obvious." There, the problem was how to
2 keep the shanks of chisel plows from breaking when the chisels hit
3 buried rocks. Graham v. John Deere Co., 383 U.S. 1 (1966). The
4 "solution" was to manufacture a "spring clamp." Even assuming that
5 the prior art did not disclose all of the elements of the alleged
6 invention, the Court, placing itself in the position of "a person
7 having ordinary skill in the prior art," found that such a person
8 "would immediately see that the thing to do was what Graham
9 did" Id. at 25.

10
11
12 B. The Prior Art Renders
13 The Rusch-2 Patent Invalid
14 As Obvious.

15 1. The Starting Place--The
16 "Problem" Facing Rusch.

17 The analysis of obviousness begins by asking what was the
18 "problem" confronting William Rusch. The question has been answered
19 by Rusch himself: to improve Baer's video game--which itself
20 involved moving dots on a TV screen, detecting coincidence, and
21 altering one of the dots in response--by adding "bounce." As
22 Activision will establish at trial, the prior art teaches one ordi-
23 narily skilled in the art with Rusch's problem in mind to do exactly
24 what Rusch did.

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1 2. Scope And Content
2 Of The Art And Ordinary
 Skill In The Art.

3 In determining whether a patent is invalid as obvious, a
4 court must appraise "what would have been obvious to one of ordinary
5 skill in the art aware of the disclosures of all of the prior art."
6 The legal conclusion is "not based on the operation of the [inven-
7 tor's] brain," and it is "irrelevant whether or not [the inventor]
8 was aware of [the prior art]." EWP v. Reliance Universal, Inc.,
9 supra, at 13, 16 (emphasis in original). Knowledge of prior art is
10 constructive or "presumed" knowledge. Whether William Rusch was
11 actually aware of the prior art is completely irrelevant. See
12 generally Kimberly-Clark Corp. v. Johnson & Johnson, No. 83-1066,
13 slip op. at 21-33 (Fed Cir. Oct. 9, 1984).

14 Since Rusch's task was the generation and manipulation of
15 spots on a video receiver, the scope of the art clearly includes the
16 achievements of those who had previously developed means and devices
17 for doing this job. Three disciplines immediately suggest them-
18 selves as areas where relevant work could have occurred: (1) use of
19 video displays to play games; (2) use of video displays to simulate
20 and train;^{19/} and (3) the television sciences, i.e., the electron-
21 ics of generating pictures (composed of myriad dots) for the enjoy-
22 ment of viewers. The "ordinary skill in the art" is the skill
23 possessed by those whose careers in 1969 would have involved the
24

25 ^{19/} The Patent Office classification manual specifically
26 groups training and simulation with gaming devices.
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1 tools and study of video display and simulation; and whose back-
2 ground and/or expertise included electrical engineering and computer
3 applications.^{20/}

4 Prior use of video displays to play games included
5 (a) Higinbotham Tennis; (b) the pool games; (c) Space War; (d) the
6 G.E./NASA Scene Generator Tank Game; and (e) Ralph Baer's Fox and
7 Hounds and other games.^{21/} None of these was considered by the
8

9 ^{20/} Rusch had both a bachelor's and a master's degree in elec-
10 trical engineering by 1968; Harrison, who actually built Rusch's
11 circuits, had not completed a bachelor's degree, although he had
12 several years' experience as an electronics technician. However, it
13 is not the skills of these two men which are relevant. A novice
14 might achieve what he considers a breakthrough because it is beyond
15 his ordinary skills, but it is certainly not an invention if those
16 of ordinary knowledge and sophistication in the field either already
17 knew of the "breakthrough" or would have found the breakthrough
18 obvious. See Kimberly-Clark Corp. v. Johnson & Johnson, supra, at
19 33 ("[r]eal inventors, as a class, vary in their capacities from
20 ignorant geniuses to Nobel laureates"; the courts have "always
21 applied a standard based on an imaginary worker of their own devis-
22 ing whom they have equated with the inventor.")

23 ^{21/} There is no doubt that Baer-1 qualifies under Section
24 102(g) as prior art to Rusch-2 for the purposes of an analysis of
25 obviousness under Section 103, even though Baer and Rusch both
26 worked at Sanders. See, e.g., Kimberly-Clark Corporation v.
Johnson & Johnson, supra (finding that in-house work at
Kimberly-Clark was prior art to another patent from Kimberly-Clark
which was the subject of lawsuit); Magnavox Co. and Sanders
Associates, Inc. v. Chicago Dynamic Industries, 201 U.S.P.Q. 25
(N.D.Ill. 1977) (finding claims of BRH-3 patent invalid in light of
other in-house work at Sanders Associates--i.e., the Rusch-2 work).

As part of the Patent Law Amendments Act of 1984, enacted
November 8, 1984, Section 103 has been amended. This amendment has
no effect on this lawsuit. See 35 U.S.C. §106(e). ("The amendments
made by this Act shall not affect the right of any party in any case
pending in court on the date of enactment to have their rights
determined on the basis of the substantive law in effect prior to
the date of enactment"). The amendment would disqualify as prior

(continued)

1 patent office in reviewing Rusch-2.

2 Prior use of video displays to simulate and train included
3 (a) Spiegel guided missile simulator; and (b) the G.E./NASA Scene
4 Generator docking, moon landing, and carrier and airport landing
5 programs. Neither of these was considered by the patent office in
6 reviewing Rusch-2.

7 Prior relevant television technology included means for
8 generation of a raster scan, horizontal and vertical synchronizing
9 and pulse circuits for the scan, and the use and properties of the
10 sawtooth wave form.

11 3. Comparison Of Prior Art
12 And Rusch's Improvements.

13 The Higinbotham Tennis Game is a critical piece of prior
14 art because it is a video tennis-type game on a cathode ray tube.
15 In the Higinbotham Tennis Game, the two viewers played a game of
16 tennis on a cathode ray tube which displayed a ball that bounced off
17 the net, reversed motion and moved realistically from one side of
18 the net to the other when a player "hit" it by pushing a button.
19 The manner in which each player "aimed" determined the velocity and
20 angle with which the ball would move. The bounce was achieved by
21 use of a flip-flop circuit exactly like the one Rusch employed. The
22 position of Higinbotham's tennis ball was determined
23

24 21/ (footnote continued)

25 art under Section 103 subject matter developed by another person
26 which qualifies as prior art only under Section 102(f) or (g).

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1 by voltage control, the same method used by Rusch.^{22/}

2 The pool games are directly relevant to Rusch's problem of
3 video display of bounce. In each of the games the player hit the
4 cue ball which then hit the object ball and imparted to it a velo-
5 city proportional to that of the cue ball. The balls disappeared
6 when they went into a pool table pocket and bounced in the
7 appropriate direction with the appropriate speed when they hit a
8 cushion or another ball. The ordinary artisan would learn from the
9 pool games computer or machine control of symbols and the use of a
10 computer program to generate symbols, detect coincidence, and
11 "impart distinct motion."

12 Space War achieved enormous popularity among computer
13 enthusiasts in the 1960's. Space War was played on corporation
14 computers and on college campuses from Boston to Palo Alto. The
15 game had been played at Sanders Associates before William Rusch
16 began his video game improvement effort. In Space War the space-
17 ships moved realistically, crashed into each other, shot visible
18 torpedoes, and bounced off the edges of the screen or disappeared at
19 one edge and then reappeared at the opposite edge. Thus, from Space
20 War the person skilled in the art learns generation of movable
21

22 ^{22/} It will be more than a little interesting to hear what
23 plaintiffs say to attempt to avoid the prior art video games and
24 simulations. One thing plaintiffs cannot do is tell us that the
25 prior games are not relevant because they are computer games and
26 then assert that Activision's computer software cartridges for
devices such as the Atari 2600 are "equivalent", i.e., functionally
the same as their device. See Argument, Part II C, infra, regarding
the relationship between narrowing of an invention to avoid prior
art and a claim of infringement.

1 player controlled symbols as well as non-player controlled, moving
2 symbols (e.g., torpedos). The game also teaches detection of coin-
3 cidence and resulting alteration of the hit symbol (explosion) as
4 well as bounce off the edge of the screen.

5 The G.E./NASA scene generator tank game was played on a
6 television (i.e., raster scan) display. The appearance, graphics
7 and operation of this game and the other G.E. designed software are
8 remarkably similar to that sold by Activision. In the tank game the
9 player uses a control similar to a joystick to fly an airplane over
10 an area in which a tank is maneuvering under computer control and
11 the player shoots bullets at the moving tank. When the tank was
12 hit, it changed shape to indicate coincidence. The shape was varied
13 (the size of explosion changed) depending upon the number of bullets
14 which hit the tank. The other G.E./NASA simulations disclosed a
15 multitude of computer generated symbols for display on raster scan
16 cathode ray tube devices. These included operator (player) con-
17 trolled and displayed "spots" such as the lunar module or its shadow
18 and machine controlled and displayed "spots" such as the command
19 spaceship, the moon surface, the airport runway, and an aircraft
20 carrier deck. Each simulation provided sync signals, spot genera-
21 tion and movement, coincidence detection, and--in the case of the
22 docking simulation--motion upon coincidence. This prior art tells
23 the individual how to generate dots on a television screen, move
24 them through player and non-player controls, generate horizontal and
25 vertical synchronization signals, and detect coincidence and alter
26 the hit dot in response to coincidence.

1 In the lunar landing simulation, the view on the televi-
2 sion set was of the surface of the moon (with a target area on which
3 to land), with outer space in the background. The object of the
4 simulation was for the user to move the user-controlled symbol (the
5 lunar module) so that it would touch down on the moon. The computer
6 detected when the lunar module touched the moon and stopped its
7 apparent motion.

8 In the docking simulation, the engineer or astronaut
9 controlling the lunar module used a device similar to a joystick to
10 maneuver the lunar module until it docked successfully with the
11 command ship. The simulation was programmed to provide, upon
12 docking, a transfer of momentum from the lunar module to the command
13 ship, although the resulting motion was slight inasmuch as
14 significant motion could only result from velocities which would
15 cause the ships to crash. Once the ships docked they moved
16 together.

17 In the tank game, the view on the screen was a battlefield
18 seen from the perspective of an airplane. The player-controlled
19 airplane fired bullets at a moving tank. The player did not control
20 the movement of the tank. Depending upon the number of bullets that
21 hit the tank, the tank would change shape and the "explosion" would
22 grow in size in proportion to the size of the hit. The tank game
23 "taught" the programming of a computer to detect coincidence and to
24 proportionately alter the shape of a symbol upon coincidence.

25 In the airplane landing simulations, the view on the
26 screen was an aircraft carrier or an airport from the perspective of

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1 a pilot in an airplane. The pilot controlling the airplane, using a
2 device similar to a joystick, landed the airplane on the deck of the
3 carrier or on the ground, depending on the simulation.

4 Spiegel-Messerschmidt, as described by the Patent Officer
5 Examiner in analyzing the validity of Baer-1, "discloses an educa-
6 tional simulator employing an average conventional television
7 receiver modified for active participation by players/users whereby
8 'dots' or small picture point symbols are generated for dis-
9 play . . . and are moved and steered" The Spiegel patent
10 teaches spot generation, synchronization, and coincidence detection
11 using a box connected to the antenna terminals of a standard
12 television.

13 It is important to note that Baer's development of his
14 games prior to Rusch's initial efforts included every necessary
15 element except perhaps "imparting distinct motion." In Fox and
16 Hounds, Baer generated on the screen of a conventional television
17 set a player controlled spot (fox) which had to avoid hitting
18 machine controlled spots (hounds). The Baer circuitry detected
19 coincidence upon touching and after that, in Ralph Baer's own words:

20 A. "Well a variety of things can happen. In fact,
21 there is no limit to the number of things that
22 can happen."^{23/}

23 The person of ordinary skill in the art would know that
24 television generates its raster scan with a sawtooth wave and

25 ^{23/} The question posed to which Baer was responding was, "Q:
26 What happens when those spots coincide or meet each other [in
Baer-1]?"

1 horizontal and vertical synchronization signals. Using voltage
2 control, any system to generate dots therefore must use a wave of
3 varying voltage, such as sawtooth wave and standard raster scan
4 length and width to position dots. The flip-flop was an ordinary
5 device which was known to any technician, which could be built with
6 a standard college text and parts from an electronics store, and
7 which was, in any event, used in Higinbotham's tennis game. Rusch-2
8 is invalid as obvious in light of the prior art.

9
10 4. Magnavox Cannot Narrow
11 The Prior Art.

12 Magnavox will attempt to argue that the prior art
13 described above is not pertinent, since some of it deals with simu-
14 lation technology, such as the Spiegel patent. This argument previ-
15 ously was attempted without success on the Patent and Trademark
16 Office during the Baer-1 reissue proceedings where the relevant
17 claims of Baer-1 were held invalid. Since the Rusch-2 purports to
18 be only an improvement on Baer-1, the PTO's determination of the
19 scope of the prior art is crucial. The PTO made clear that
20 Magnavox' "[a]ttempts to restrict the pertinent art only to that of
21 amusement devices is not believed to be a viable attitude in this
22 art." Examiner's Answer at 23. Quoting language from an unrelated
23 district court decision, the Primary Patent Examiner wrote that
24 "[h]uman knowledge cannot be compartmentalized or pigeon holed" for
25 the purposes of determining the relevancy of prior art. Id. at 25.
26 The Primary Patent Examiner then gave further support for his

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1 reasoning by quoting from a Ninth Circuit case involving electro-
2 optic star and missile tracking, for which prior art relating to
3 electro-optic bottle inspection was applied:

4 "It may be that at an earlier time in our history
5 most inventions relating to locks were made by lock-
6 smiths and most inventions relative to plows were
7 made by those who made or used plows. At that time
8 . . . perhaps the 'subject matter' of the invention
9 was the art of lock plow and the 'art' the art of
10 lock and plow making. In today's world, a world of
11 extensive and rapid communication of scientific and
12 industrial knowledge--a world of institutions of
13 higher learning and private laboratories which gather
14 men of all disciplines and direct their talents not
15 only to the discovery of basic truths but to the
16 solutions of specific problems, the questions arising
17 in a particular industry are answered not only by
18 those who have learned the lessons of that industry
19 but also by those trained in scientific fields having
20 no necessary relationship to the particular industry
21 . . . the word 'art' includes not only the knowledge
22 accumulated with respect to a problem in a particular
23 industry but that accumulated in those scientific
24 fields the techniques of which have been commonly
25 employed to solve problems of a similar kind in the
26 particular and closely related fields." (Examiner's
Answer at 23, quoting George J. Meyer Manufacturing
Co. v. San Marino Electronic Corp., 165 USPQ 23 (9th
Cir. 1970))

18 Thus, the Primary Patent Examiner determined that the pertinent
19 prior art to the Baer-1 patent "deals with applying video and 'com-
20 puter' technologies to the amusement discipline. One ordinarily
21 skilled in this particular art would have possessed a background in
22 those areas, and would, therefore, have had the 'ability to select
23 and utilize knowledge from other arts reasonably pertinent to' the
24 particular problem." Patent Examiner's Answer at 26. The Primary
25 Patent Examiner thus concluded over Magnavox' protest that the
26 ordinary artisan would have found the Spiegel patent "and the other

1 applied teachings," including Space War to be relevant prior art to
2 Baer-1. Id.^{24/}

3 Magnavox also will attempt to argue that certain other
4 prior art is not pertinent because it involved video games played on
5 oscilloscope displays (rather than a television set) or games where
6 the spots were generated by computer. Thus, Magnavox will argue
7 that the Higinbotham tennis game, Space War, and the computer pool
8 games are simply irrelevant. Reflecting the same underlying policy
9 that human knowledge cannot, and should not be so pigeonholed, the
10 Federal Circuit has made clear that prior art is not to be construed
11 so narrowly. For example, the court in Stratoflex, Inc. v. Aeroquip
12 Corp., 713 F.2d 1530 (Fed. Cir. 1983) employed an "obviousness"
13 analysis by asking the question as to what "problem [was] confront-
14 ing" the inventor. In this case, it was how to prevent electro-
15 static buildup in PTFE tubing in aircraft fuel hoses caused by
16 hydrocarbon fuel flow, while precluding leakage of fuel. The court
17 considered as pertinent prior art references in "rubber hose art,"
18 finding that "[t]here is no basis for finding that a solution found
19 for a problem experienced with one material would not be looked to
20 when facing a problem with the other." Id. at 1535. Thus con-
21 sidered, the patent was invalid.

22
23 ^{24/} The courts support the position of the Primary Patent
24 Examiner in Baer-1. See, e.g., In re Wood, 599 F.2d 1032 (C.C.P.A.
25 1979) (upholding Patent Office rejection of claims for obviousness;
26 appropriate to consider as prior art all references "reasonably
pertinent to the particular problem with which the inventor was
involved").

//

1 Further, a prior art reference "must be considered for
2 everything it teaches by way of technology and is not limited to the
3 particular invention it is describing and attempting to protect."
4 EWP Corp. v. Reliance Universal, Inc., No. 84-711, slip op. at 15
5 (Fed. Cir. Feb. 21, 1985) (emphasis in original). Thus, in EWP, a
6 German patent teaching the corrugation or crimping of wires was
7 pertinent prior art and in fact, combined to render the patent in
8 EWP invalid, even though the German patent did not relate to the
9 same type of pipe as the pipe used in the claimed invention.
10
11

12 C. The "Secondary Considerations"
13 Of Obviousness Also Indicate That
14 The Rusch-2 Patent Is Invalid.

15 Magnavox will want to avoid the foregoing comparison of
16 Rusch-2 and the prior art, and will instead seek to argue that
17 notwithstanding the prior art Rusch-2 is saved from invalidity
18 because it was such a "commercial success." In so doing, Magnavox
19 will seek to invoke the so-called "secondary considerations" of
20 invention. These "secondary considerations" were set forth by the
21 Supreme Court in Graham v. John Deere Co., 383 U.S. 1 (1966):

22 "Such secondary considerations as commercial success,
23 long felt but unsolved needs, failure of others,
etc., might be utilized to give light to the circum-
stances surrounding the origin of the subject matter
sought to be patented." (Id. at 17-18)

24 These so-called "secondary considerations" must be considered "en
25 route to a determination of obviousness" to make certain that an
26 invention which otherwise appears to have been obvious in light of

1 the prior art actually is obvious. Stratoflex, Inc. v. Aeroquip
2 Corp., 713 F.2d 1530, 1538 (Fed. Cir. 1983). As we will show below
3 and at trial, Magnavox' efforts to save Rusch-2 from invalidity by
4 invoking these "secondary considerations" must fail.

5 To paraphrase the Court in Graham v. John Deere Co.,
6 supra) the circumstances in which the "secondary considerations"
7 might apply are quite unlike the "circumstances surrounding the
8 origin" of Rusch-2. A classic case for application would be where
9 people had been struggling for a long time to solve a particular
10 problem, without success ("long felt but unsolved needs, failure of
11 others"), which when resolved resulted in immediate "commercial
12 success." If this were the origin of a patent, it would be diffi-
13 cult to conclude that the alleged "invention" was so obvious as to
14 be unpatentable.

15 No such circumstances surround the origin of Rusch-2.
16 There is no evidence that people had been struggling for a long time
17 to develop the Baer-1 device, on which Rusch-2 is based, nor is
18 there any evidence to suggest Rusch struggled to improve the Baer-1
19 device. Rusch was in fact the first person assigned to improve
20 Baer's video game by adding "bounce," and it took him less than two
21 months from the time he was assigned to do so until he reduced it to
22 practice.

23 There is no evidence that the Rusch-2 device met with
24 immediate success. It took Sanders four years to get Magnavox
25 interested in its videogame patents, and then Magnavox waited
26 another year to come out with the first commercial Odyssey unit. As

1 discussed above, the original Odyssey game was a commercial failure
2 and was terminated as a product line in 1978. The four years which
3 passed before Sanders could find just one licensee (Magnavox)
4 clearly rebuts their argument that Rusch-2 met any special or
5 pressing need for bounce games that could be played on TV sets. Cf.
6 Stratoflex, Inc. v. Aeroquip Corp., 713 F.2d 1530, 1539 (Fed. Cir.
7 1983) ("[a] nexus is required between the merits of the claimed
8 invention and the evidence offered").

9 Moreover, recent cases from the Federal Circuit have given
10 meaning to these "secondary considerations" and belie Magnavox'
11 argument. For example, in In re Vamco Machine and Tool, Inc., No.
12 84-1383, slip op. (Fed. Cir. Jan. 17, 1985), the patent holder made
13 broad claims to commercial success of his "invention" (held invalid
14 as obvious) of a "self-contained feed roll for power punch presses"
15 (the "Eyberger feeder"). In rejecting this attempt by the patent
16 holder to claim for itself the success which had ensued many years
17 after the patent application, the court stated:

18 "[T]he commercial success of a machine 'claimed' may
19 be due entirely to improvements or modifications
20 made by others to the invention disclosed in a patent.
21 Such success, we are holding, is not pertinent to
22 the non-obviousness of the invention disclosed."
23 Id. at 25.

22 Further, the court in Vamco found that on closer examination, the
23 "Eyberger feeder" set out in the claims of the patent was not the
24 basis for the success the defendant Vamco Machine and Tool Company
25 had with its feeders. The Vamco Company was undoubtedly successful
26 in marketing its feeders, but its success came from a much more

1 advanced "Vamco Feeder" whose elements were not disclosed by the
2 Eyberger feeder that was the subject of the patent. The parallels
3 to this case are obvious, where Magnavox attempts to take credit for
4 the microprocessor-based technology not taught by Rusch-2--which
5 technology is itself the basis for success in the videogame
6 industry.

7 Magnavox' licensing program is no indication of the com-
8 mercial success of the Rusch-2 patent. As the Federal Circuit found
9 in EWP Corp. v. Reliance Universal Inc., supra, on facts similar to
10 this case, a licensing program is not reliable proof of commercial
11 success:

12 "When, as happened here, the PTO [Patent and Trade-
13 mark Office] issues a patent because the examiner
14 did not consider prior art teaching the very tech-
15 nique essential to the claimed invention . . . it is
16 not unusual to see astute businessmen capitalize on
17 it by erecting a temporarily successful licensing
18 program thereon. Such programs are not infallible
19 guides to patentability. They sometimes succeed
20 because they are mutually beneficial to the licensed
21 group or because of business judgments that it is
22 cheaper to take licenses than to defend infringement
23 suits, or for other reasons unrelated to the obvious-
24 ness of the licensed subject matter. Such a 'second-
25 ary consideration' must be carefully appraised as
26 to its evidentiary value and we have tried to do
that here." (Id. at 17)

21 The parallels to this case are again apparent. The
22 Rusch-2 patent issued without any consideration by the Patent Office
23 of pertinent prior art. Under the threat of litigation, various
24 manufacturers of arcade games and manufacturers of both videogame
25 master consoles and cartridges obtained licenses. Contrary to the
26 impression Magnavox would like to create, Activision is not the