

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT  
NORTHERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

IN RE: VOLKSWAGEN “CLEAN DIESEL”  
MARKETING, SALES PRACTICES, AND  
PRODUCTS LIABILITY LITIGATION

MDL No. 2672 CRB (JSC)

This Order Relates To:  
MDL Dkt. Nos. 4583, 4584

**ORDER RE: DEFENDANTS’  
MOTIONS TO DISMISS  
HILLSBOROUGH AND SALT LAKE  
COUNTIES’ AMENDED  
COMPLAINTS**

*Environmental Protection Commission of  
Hillsborough County v. Volkswagen,  
No. 16-cv-2210 (N.D. Cal.)*

*Salt Lake County v. Volkswagen, No. 16-cv-  
5649 (N.D. Cal.)*

In approximately 585,000 new vehicles that it sold in the United States, Volkswagen installed software that caused the vehicles’ emission controls to perform one way during emissions testing, and another (less effective) way during normal driving conditions. The software constituted a “defeat device,” and Volkswagen violated the Clean Air Act and EPA regulations by installing it. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 7522(a)(3); 40 C.F.R. §§ 86.1803–01, 86.1809–01, 86.1809–10, –12.

Certain states and counties have asserted that Volkswagen’s defeat device also violated state and local laws that prohibit tampering with vehicle emission controls. Last year, the Court considered Volkswagen’s motion to dismiss one of these actions, which was a case filed by the State of Wyoming. The Court held that, because the only alleged conduct by Volkswagen that could have violated the State’s tampering law took place during vehicle manufacturing, the State’s tampering claim was preempted by the Clean Air Act. *See In re Volkswagen “Clean Diesel” Mktg., Sales Practices, & Prod. Liab. Litig. (“Wyoming”),* 264 F. Supp. 3d 1040 (N.D. Cal. 2017).

Two counties—Hillsborough County, Florida and Salt Lake County, Utah—have filed

1 tampering claims against Volkswagen that are similar to Wyoming's, except the Counties also  
2 allege that Volkswagen modified its defeat device to operate more effectively, and perhaps even  
3 added new defeat devices, through software updates during vehicle maintenance and post-sale  
4 recalls. The central question addressed in this Order is whether these new allegations save the  
5 Counties' tampering claims from preemption.

6 Hillsborough County has also named Robert Bosch LLC as a defendant, and Salt Lake  
7 County has also filed three additional state law claims against Volkswagen. The Court will also  
8 consider whether the tampering claim against Bosch and Salt Lake's additional claims are  
9 preempted.

10 **I**

11 Volkswagen's defeat device is able to detect whether the vehicles in which it is installed  
12 are undergoing emissions testing, or being driven normally on the road. During emissions testing,  
13 the device causes the vehicles' emission controls to perform in a mode that satisfies EPA's  
14 emission standards. When the vehicles are on the road, the device reduces the effectiveness of the  
15 emission controls, causing the vehicles to emit nitrogen oxides (NOx) at levels that are sometimes  
16 40 times higher than EPA's standards. (Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 2-3; Salt Lake Compl. ¶¶ 4-5, 39-  
17 41.)

18 Volkswagen installed its defeat device in 2.0-liter and 3.0-liter TDI diesel engine vehicles,  
19 covering eight model years (model years 2009 through 2016) and a variety of model types—  
20 including Volkswagen's Jetta, Beetle, Golf and Passat models, Audi's A3, A6 and A8 models, and  
21 the Porsche Cayenne. (Audi and Porsche are subsidiaries of Volkswagen.) For each model year,  
22 Volkswagen misrepresented to EPA that these vehicles complied with the agency's emission  
23 standards. (Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 1-7, 36-37, 44; Salt Lake Compl. ¶¶ 2-5.)<sup>1</sup>

24 After independent, on-road testing in 2014 called Volkswagen's representations into  
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26 <sup>1</sup> The Counties have also named Audi of America LLC and Porsche Cars North America, Inc. as  
27 defendants. (Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 16-17 & nn. 6-7; Salt Lake Compl. ¶¶ 28, 30.) Because the  
28 parties have not made Audi or Porsche specific arguments in their briefing on the motions to  
dismiss, and because Audi and Porsche are subsidiaries of the Volkswagen Group, the Court uses  
the umbrella term "Volkswagen" to refer to all defendants other than Bosch LLC.

1 question, EPA began an investigation. Throughout 2014 and the first half of 2015, Volkswagen  
2 employees responded to EPA's inquiries by offering software and hardware fixes, without  
3 revealing the underlying reason for the discrepancies. (Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 82-86.) By the  
4 second half of 2015, however, it became clear that the fixes had not worked; and with EPA  
5 threatening not to certify model-year 2016 vehicles for sale in the United States, Volkswagen  
6 finally explained, in the fall of 2015, that certain of its vehicles used defeat device software. EPA  
7 subsequently issued Notices of Violation of the Clean Air Act, and Volkswagen admitted publicly  
8 that it had deliberately cheated on emissions tests. (*Id.* ¶¶ 90-94, 102.)

9 The United States, on behalf of EPA, responded by filing civil and criminal actions against  
10 Volkswagen for violations of the Clean Air Act. The criminal charges included conspiracy to  
11 defraud the United States by making false statements in submissions to EPA, in violation of 42  
12 U.S.C. § 7413(c)(2)(A); and the civil charges included tampering with vehicle emission controls,  
13 and unlawfully installing a defeat device, in violation of 42 U.S.C. § 7522(a)(3). (*See United*  
14 *States v. Volkswagen AG*, No. 16-CR-20394, Dkt. No. 32 (E.D. Mich. Mar. 10, 2017); *United*  
15 *States v. Volkswagen AG*, No. 16-CV-00295, Dkt. No. 1 (N.D. Cal. Jan. 4, 2016).) Volkswagen  
16 pled guilty to the criminal charges and settled the civil claims. The resulting plea agreement and  
17 civil consent decrees require Volkswagen to remove from the road or fix at least 85 percent of the  
18 affected vehicles, to pay \$4.3 billion in criminal and civil penalties, to fund \$2.0 billion in Zero  
19 Emission Vehicle investments, and to contribute \$2.925 billion to a mitigation trust, the  
20 beneficiaries of which are the states and federal Indian tribes. (*See Volkswagen AG*, No. 16-CR-  
21 20394, Dkt. No. 68 (plea agreement); MDL Dkt. Nos. 2103, 3155, 3228 (civil consent decrees).)  
22 Volkswagen also settled related claims that were brought by classes of consumers. (*See* Dkt. Nos.  
23 2102, 3229 (2.0-liter and 3.0-liter consumer class action settlement approval orders).) The 2.0-  
24 liter settlement requires Volkswagen to establish a \$10.033 billion funding pool to buy back its  
25 2.0-liter TDI vehicles and to pay the owners and lessees of those vehicles restitution. (Dkt. No.  
26 2102 at 19.)

27 As part of Volkswagen's plea agreement, the company agreed to a Statement of Facts that  
28 it stipulated was "true and correct" and that it agreed to "neither contest the admissibility of, nor

1 contradict, . . . in any proceeding.” (Plea Agreement § 1.E.) Therein Volkswagen admitted to,  
2 among other things, making certain modifications to its defeat device in or around April 2013.  
3 The Counties acknowledge in their joint opposition brief that their post-sale software change  
4 allegations are based on these admissions. The Counties have also attached a copy of the  
5 Statement of Facts to their joint opposition to Defendants’ motions to dismiss. (See Dkt. No.  
6 4640-1.) For simplicity, the Court cites to the Statement of Facts throughout this order in  
7 discussing the software change allegations, and addresses any additional or conflicting allegations  
8 from the Counties’ complaints where necessary.<sup>2</sup>

9 As relevant here, Volkswagen has admitted that it modified its defeat device in order to  
10 remedy hardware failures that developed in certain of its 2.0-liter TDI diesel engine vehicles in or  
11 around 2012. (SOF ¶ 47.) The company hypothesized that the failures were the result of a glitch  
12 with the defeat device, whereby the vehicles were staying in testing or “dyno” mode even when  
13 driven on the road, which was placing increased stress on the vehicles’ exhaust systems. (*Id.*) To  
14 solve the problem, the company developed a “steering wheel angle recognition” feature, which  
15 “interacted with the [defeat device] by enabling the vehicles to detect whether [they] were being  
16 tested on a dynamometer (where the steering wheel is not turned), or being driven on the road.”  
17 (*Id.* ¶ 49.) After a Volkswagen supervisor authorized activation of this feature, in or around April  
18 2013, Volkswagen employees “installed the new software function in new 2.0 Liter Subject  
19 Vehicles being sold in the United States, and later installed it in existing 2.0 Liter Subject Vehicles  
20 through software updates during maintenance.” (*Id.* ¶ 50.) Volkswagen also modified these  
21 vehicles so that they would start in “street mode,” and then shift to “dyno mode” when the defeat  
22 device recognized that the vehicles were undergoing emissions testing. (*Id.*)

23 Deviating from Volkswagen’s plea agreement somewhat, Hillsborough alleges that  
24 Volkswagen not only modified its defeat device, but also installed “[a]t least two new defeat  
25 devices . . . through post-sale recalls.” (Hillsborough Compl. ¶ 88.) Yet Hillsborough describes  
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27 <sup>2</sup> Volkswagen AG, a German corporation, is the entity that was charged and pled guilty in the  
28 federal criminal case, whereas Volkswagen Group of America, Inc., a Volkswagen AG subsidiary,  
is the defendant in this case. This distinction is not material for purposes of this Order, as the  
Counties allege that both Volkswagen entities engaged in the conduct at issue.

1 these “new” defeat devices in a manner that mirrors the defeat device modifications described in  
2 Volkswagen’s plea agreement. (*See id.* (describing one new defeat device as a “steering wheel  
3 angle function” device, and another new defeat device as a “start function” device that started the  
4 vehicles in one mode and switched them to the other mode during testing).) Hillsborough also  
5 alleges that Bosch LLC, as an engineering and electronics company, assisted with developing the  
6 defeat device and with implementing the post-sale software changes. (*Id.* ¶¶ 38-42, 89.)

7 The Hillsborough Environmental Protection Commission (EPC) and the State of Utah have  
8 both adopted vehicle tampering laws. These laws generally prohibit anyone from removing or  
9 rendering inoperable a vehicle’s emission control system. *See* EPC Rule 1-8.05(1), (6); Utah  
10 Admin. Code R307-201-4. The Counties allege that Defendants violated these laws (1) by  
11 manufacturing the defeat device and installing it in vehicles that were ultimately registered in the  
12 Counties; and (2) by modifying the defeat device in vehicles that were in use within the Counties.  
13 (Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 143-44; Salt Lake Compl. ¶ 55.) A violation of either Hillsborough’s or  
14 Salt Lake’s tampering law is punishable by a civil penalty of up to \$5,000 per offense, with each  
15 day that a violation occurs constituting a separate offense. *See* Hillsborough EPC Enabling Act,  
16 Fla. Laws 84-446 § 17(2) (as amended by Fla. Laws 87-495 (2005));<sup>3</sup> Utah Code Ann. § 19-1-303.  
17 As alleged, at least 1,118 affected vehicles are registered in Hillsborough County, and at least  
18 5,000 affected vehicles are registered in Salt Lake County. (Hillsborough Compl. ¶10; Salt Lake  
19 Compl. ¶ 47.)

20 Salt Lake’s complaint also includes three claims in addition to its tampering claim. These  
21 additional claims are for common law fraud, violation of Utah’s Pattern of Unlawful Activity Act,  
22 Utah Code Ann. §§ 76-10-1601 to -1609, and common law nuisance. (Salt Lake Compl. ¶¶ 58-  
23 78.)

## 24 II

25 Before considering the preemption questions, the Court first addresses Defendants’  
26 statutory arguments—that their conduct does not come within the terms of the Counties’  
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28 <sup>3</sup> Hillsborough has attached a copy of the EPC Enabling Act and the EPC’s tampering rules to its  
complaint. (*See* Dkt. Nos. 4457-1, -2.)

1 tampering rules. The parties have not cited to any judicial decision in which these rules have been  
2 interpreted, or any legislative history with respect to the rules. The Court therefore looks only to  
3 the text of the rules.

4 **A**

5 Salt Lake County alleges that Volkswagen violated the following rule in the Utah  
6 Administrative Code. The Court has added italics to the terms and phrases at issue.

7 Any person *owning or operating* any motor vehicle or motor vehicle  
8 engine registered or principally operated in the State of Utah *on*  
9 *which is installed or incorporated* a system or device for the control  
10 of crankcase emissions or exhaust emissions *in compliance with the*  
11 *Federal motor vehicle rules*, shall maintain the system or device in  
12 operable condition and shall use it at all times that the motor vehicle  
13 or motor vehicle engine is operated. No person shall *remove or*  
14 *make inoperable the system or device* or any part thereof, except for  
15 the purpose of installing another system or device, or part thereof,  
16 which is equally or more effective in reducing emissions from the  
17 vehicle to the atmosphere.

18 Utah Admin. Code R307-201-4 (emphasis added).

19 Volkswagen argues that its conduct, as alleged, does not come within the terms of this  
20 tampering rule for three reasons. First, Volkswagen contends that the rule prohibits tampering  
21 only by those “owning or operating” a motor vehicle, not manufacturers. This argument is based  
22 on the first sentence of the rule: “Any person *owning or operating* any motor vehicle . . . on which  
23 is installed or incorporated a system or device for the control of . . . emissions . . . shall maintain  
24 the system or device in operable condition . . . .” If Salt Lake’s tampering claim was based on that  
25 portion of the rule, Volkswagen’s argument would have merit, as the “owning or operating”  
26 modifier of “any person” can reasonably be read to limit the rule’s coverage to end users of motor  
27 vehicles, not vehicle manufacturers. Salt Lake’s claim, though, is based on the second sentence of  
28 the rule, not the first. And unlike the first sentence, the second does not include the “owning or  
operating” modifier, but instead applies to any person that removes or makes inoperable an  
emission control system or device. *See id.* (“No person shall remove or make inoperable [an  
emission control system or device] . . . .”). The broader scope of the second sentence is not  
surprising. While the conduct proscribed by the first sentence—failing to “maintain” a vehicle’s

1 emission controls—would most naturally apply only to those who use or are responsible for a  
2 vehicle that is in use, the conduct proscribed by the second sentence—tampering with vehicle  
3 emission controls—could be taken by mechanics, manufacturers, parts suppliers, or strangers in  
4 the parking lot. Volkswagen is accordingly within the universe of parties to which the second  
5 sentence of Salt Lake’s rule may apply, and Volkswagen’s focus on the “owning or operating”  
6 modifier in the first sentence is not persuasive.

7 Volkswagen next focuses on the language “remov[ing] or mak[ing] inoperative” in the  
8 second sentence of Salt Lake’s tampering rule. It suggests that “the word ‘remove’ most naturally  
9 connotes extracting a pre-existing emission control device from a used car, and ‘mak[ing]  
10 inoperative’ contemplates a transformation from an operative emissions control system to an  
11 inoperative one.” (Dkt. No. 4583 at 26.) It then contends that the allegations do not support that it  
12 performed either of these actions.

13 Salt Lake is relying on the “mak[ing] inoperative” prong, not the “remov[ing]” prong of  
14 the rule. For example, Salt Lake alleges that, due to post-sale software changes, “the affected  
15 vehicles’ emission control systems were made inoperable most of the time the vehicles were being  
16 operated in Salt Lake County.” (Salt Lake Compl. ¶ 42.) This conduct clearly comes within the  
17 reach of the “mak[ing] inoperative” prong: the allegations just quoted specifically refer to making  
18 the emission control systems inoperable. Salt Lake also alleges that, before the software changes,  
19 Volkswagen’s defeat device could detect when emissions testing was complete, and “would  
20 respond by relaxing emissions controls to permit higher levels of emissions of NOx and other  
21 pollutants.” (*Id.* ¶ 4.) Arguably, “relaxing” emission controls is not the same as making emission  
22 controls “inoperative,” as inoperative suggests that the controls were not functioning, while  
23 “relaxing” suggests that the controls were functioning less effectively. Under the circumstances  
24 alleged here, however, this is a distinction without a difference. Salt Lake alleges that  
25 Volkswagen’s defeat device reduced the effectiveness of emission controls in such a manner that  
26 the vehicles in which it was installed went from complying with EPA’s emission standards to  
27 emitting as much as 40 times the level of NOx permitted by those standards. (*See id.* ¶ 43; *cf.* SOF  
28 ¶ 34 (referring to NOx levels that were sometimes 35 times higher than U.S. standards).) This was

1 a drastic reduction in the effectiveness of the emission controls; so drastic that, for all practical  
2 purposes, the emission controls in the affected vehicles were indeed rendered “inoperable” when  
3 the defeat device began to operate. The Court therefore concludes that Volkswagen’s initial  
4 installation of the defeat device in the affected vehicles, and subsequent post-sale software  
5 changes, come within the scope of the “mak[ing] inoperative” prong of Salt Lake’s tampering rule.

6 Finally, Volkswagen points to the following language in Salt Lake’s rule: “on which is  
7 installed or incorporated a system or device for the control of . . . exhaust emissions in compliance  
8 with the Federal motor vehicle rules.” Volkswagen contends that this clause indicates that Salt  
9 Lake’s tampering rule “does not apply to the original installation or updating of a *noncompliant*  
10 system, as Salt Lake alleges here.” (Dkt. No. 4583 at 26 (emphasis added).) That is, Volkswagen  
11 suggests that because Salt Lake alleges that Volkswagen installed the defeat device in its vehicles  
12 during manufacturing, the vehicles never had compliant emission control systems, and therefore  
13 could not be tampered with under Salt Lake’s rule.

14 The Court does not agree with this interpretation. Salt Lake alleges that Volkswagen  
15 installed emission controls in the affected vehicles that, during emissions testing, *were* able to  
16 satisfy EPA’s standards. The defeat device then rendered the vehicles’ otherwise compliant  
17 emission controls noncompliant when the vehicles were driven on the road. The defeat device,  
18 then, “ma[d]e inoperable [a] system or device” that was “installed or incorporated . . . for the  
19 control of . . . exhaust emissions in compliance with the Federal motor vehicle rules.” Utah  
20 Admin. Code R307-201-4.

21 Volkswagen’s alleged conduct comes within the terms of Salt Lake’s tampering rule.

22 **B**

23 Volkswagen and Bosch also contend that their conduct does not come within the bounds of  
24 the tampering rules invoked by Hillsborough County. Hillsborough relies on two mobile source  
25 rules, which read as follows:

26 No person shall tamper, cause, or allow the tampering of the  
27 emission control system of any motor vehicle.

1 EPC Rule 1–8.05(1).

2 No person shall manufacture, install, sell or advertise for sale,  
3 devices to defeat or render inoperable any component of a motor  
4 vehicle’s emission control system . . . .

5 EPC Rule 1–8.05(6). As used in these rules, “tampering” is defined as “the intentional  
6 inactivation, disconnection, removal or other modification of a component or components of the  
7 emission control system.” EPC Rule 1–8.03(2)(h). An “emission control system” in turn is  
8 defined in part as “the devices and mechanisms installed as original equipment at the time of  
9 manufacture . . . for the purpose of reducing or aiding in the control of emissions.” EPC Rule 1–  
10 8.03(2)(b).

11 Defendants contend that EPC Rule 1–8.05(1) applies only to the modification of “pre–  
12 existing emission control systems.” (Dkt. Nos. 4583 at 27; 4584 at 7–8.) Similarly, Defendants  
13 contend that EPC 1–8.05(6) prohibits only the manufacture or installation of a device “to defeat or  
14 render inoperable” a part of an existing “emission control system,” i.e., one that was already  
15 “installed as original equipment at the time of manufacture.” (Dkt. No. 4583 at 27.) Defendants  
16 then assert that their conduct, as alleged by Hillsborough, does not come within these provisions,  
17 because Hillsborough alleges that they installed a defeat device in the affected vehicles at the same  
18 time that they installed the emission control system. They therefore assert that they did not  
19 modify or render inoperable a pre-existing “emission control system” as required to violate  
20 Hillsborough’s tampering rules.

21 This argument is essentially the same as the third argument addressed above with respect  
22 to Salt Lake’s tampering rule. For the same reasons, it is unpersuasive. As alleged, Defendants  
23 equipped the affected vehicles with emission controls that could—and did—meet EPA’s emission  
24 standards during testing. Defendants also equipped the affected vehicles with a defeat device,  
25 which reduced the effectiveness of the vehicles’ emission controls during normal on-road driving.  
26 Whether the defeat device was installed at the exact same time as the emission controls, or was  
27 installed sometime later during the manufacturing process, the defeat device reduced the  
28 effectiveness of the vehicles’ emission controls during normal vehicle use and therefore

1 “modified” and “render[ed] inoperable” certain “devices and mechanisms installed as original  
2 equipment at the time of manufacture . . . for the purpose of reducing or aiding in the control of  
3 emissions.” EPC Rules 1–8.03(2)(b), 1–8.05(1), (6). The same is true of the alleged post-sale  
4 software changes, which clearly took place after the original emission control systems were  
5 installed in the affected vehicles. (*See* SOF ¶¶ 47–51; *see also* Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 87–88; Salt  
6 Lake Compl. ¶ 42.) The Court accordingly concludes that Defendants’ alleged conduct comes  
7 within the bounds of Hillsborough’s tampering rules.

### III

9 Turning to the preemption analysis, the Court starts on familiar ground. Like the Counties,  
10 Wyoming previously asserted that Volkswagen violated a local tampering law by manufacturing  
11 and installing a defeat device in its vehicles. The Court held that Wyoming’s tampering claim was  
12 expressly preempted by Section 209(a) of the Clean Air Act.

13 Section 209(a) provides that

14 No State or any political subdivision thereof shall adopt or attempt  
15 to enforce any *standard relating to the control of emissions from*  
16 *new motor vehicles* or new motor vehicle engines subject to this  
17 part. No State shall require certification, inspection, or any other  
18 approval relating to the control of emissions from any new motor  
vehicle or new motor vehicle engine as condition precedent to the  
initial retail sale, titling (if any), or registration of such motor  
vehicle, motor vehicle engine, or equipment.

19  
20 42 U.S.C. § 7543(a) (emphasis added).

21 The Act defines “new motor vehicle” as “a motor vehicle the equitable or legal title to  
22 which has never been transferred to an ultimate purchaser.” *Id.* § 7550(3). The Act does not  
23 define a “standard relating to the control of emissions,” but the Supreme Court offered two  
24 examples of such a standard in *South Coast Air Quality*. The first is a rule that a vehicle “not emit  
25 more than a certain amount of a given pollutant.” *Engine Mfrs. Ass’n v. S. Coast Air Quality*  
26 *Mgmt. Dist.*, 541 U.S. 246, 253 (2004). The second is a rule that a vehicle “be equipped with a  
27 certain type of pollution-control device.” *Id.*

28 These “standards” are the same types of rules that Congress requires EPA to enact and

1 enforce in Title II of the Clean Air Act. Specifically, Congress has tasked EPA with setting  
2 emission limits for new vehicles introduced into commerce, 42 U.S.C. § 7521(a); setting standards  
3 governing the use of emission-control devices in those vehicles, *e.g.*, *id.* § 7521(a)(4)(A), (m);  
4 running a certification and testing program to ensure that new vehicles meet these standards, *id.*  
5 § 7525; and enforcing these standards by refusing to certify vehicles that do not meet all  
6 regulatory requirements and by bringing civil enforcement actions against violators, *see id.*  
7 §§ 7522(a), 7524, 7525(a). Section 209(a) prohibits States and political subdivisions from doing  
8 the same.<sup>4</sup> Through this give and take, Congress has created a uniform regulatory regime  
9 governing emissions from new vehicles, which it has done to avoid “the possibility of 50 different  
10 state regulatory regimes” governing vehicle emissions, which would “raise[] the spectre of an  
11 anarchic patchwork of federal and state regulatory programs” and would threaten “to create  
12 nightmares for the manufacturers.” *Engine Mfrs. Ass’n v. EPA* (“EMA”), 88 F.3d 1075, 1079  
13 (D.C. Cir. 1996) (citation omitted).

14 In *Wyoming*, this Court held that EPA’s rule prohibiting the installation of defeat devices  
15 in new vehicles is a “standard relating to the control of emissions from new motor vehicles.”  
16 *Wyoming*, 264 F. Supp. 3d at 1052. In opposing Volkswagen’s motion to dismiss, Wyoming  
17 argued that its tampering claim was nevertheless not an “attempt to enforce” EPA’s rule, but rather  
18 was only an attempt to regulate the use of Volkswagen’s defeat device within the State’s borders.  
19 It was on the roads of Wyoming, the State argued, that the device reduced (and thereby tampered  
20 with) vehicle emission controls. Framed in this way, Wyoming asserted that its claim not only  
21 escaped the reach of Section 209(a)’s express preemption clause, but also was protected by the  
22 Clean Air Act’s savings clause, Section 209(d), which provides that “Nothing in this part shall  
23 preclude or deny any State or political subdivision thereof the right otherwise to control, regulate,  
24 or restrict the use, operation, or movement of registered or licensed motor vehicles.” 42 U.S.C.  
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26 <sup>4</sup> The exception is California: Congress has allowed California to set its own vehicle emission  
27 standards, and allows other states to adopt California’s standards. *See* 42 U.S.C. §§ 7507;  
28 7543(b); *Jensen Family Farms, Inc. v. Monterey Bay Unified Air Pollution Control Dist.*, 644 F.3d  
934, 938 n.3 (9th Cir. 2011). Because of this exception, the California Air Resources Board  
(CARB) also played an important role in investigating Volkswagen’s conduct, as noted in  
Volkswagen’s plea agreement.

1 § 7543(d).

2 The Court did not find Wyoming's in-use argument persuasive. Yes, the defeat device  
3 operated in vehicles within the State, but Volkswagen's conduct took place during manufacturing,  
4 when it installed the defeat device in its new vehicles. Wyoming, then, was attempting to regulate  
5 Volkswagen's conduct before its vehicles were sold to end users. And by doing so, the State was  
6 attempting to enforce a standard relating to the control of emissions from new motor vehicles. *See*  
7 *Wyoming*, 264 F. Supp. 3d at 1056. The Court also noted that, by definition, all defeat devices  
8 work by reducing the effectiveness of emission controls during "normal vehicle operation and  
9 use." *Id.* (quoting 40 C.F.R. § 86.1803–01). Under Wyoming's reading, then, "every defeat  
10 device installed in a new vehicle that is later registered in the State will violate its tampering . . .  
11 rule[], without any additional action by the manufacturer who installed the device." *Id.* Thus, by  
12 regulating the use of defeat devices, Wyoming would "effectively [be] regulating their  
13 installation." *Id.*

#### 14 IV

15 To the extent the Counties' tampering claims are based on the manufacture and installation  
16 of a defeat device in new vehicles that were later registered in the Counties, their claims are  
17 expressly preempted by Section 209(a) for the same reasons identified in *Wyoming*. Although the  
18 defeat device may operate in vehicles within the Counties, Defendants are alleged to have  
19 manufactured the device and installed it in these vehicles before the vehicles were sold to end  
20 users. To the extent the Counties seek to regulate that conduct, they are "attempt[ing] to enforce  
21 [a] standard relating to the control of emissions from new motor vehicles," which states and local  
22 governments cannot do under Section 209(a).

23 The alleged post-sale software changes to the affected vehicles requires a different  
24 analysis. The Counties allege that Defendants modified the defeat device in the affected vehicles  
25 during vehicle maintenance, or installed new defeat devices during post-sale recalls. In either  
26 case, this conduct affected vehicles that had already been sold to consumers and were in use  
27 within the Counties, not "new motor vehicles." The Counties' attempts to regulate Defendants'  
28 post-sale software changes are therefore not expressly preempted by Section 209(a).

1       In arguing to the contrary, Defendants note that Wyoming also attempted to base its  
2 tampering claims in part on certain post-sale software changes, and the Court rejected that attempt.  
3 The Court did so on statutory grounds, however, not on the basis of preemption under Section  
4 209(a). This was because Wyoming alleged that certain software changes by Volkswagen brought  
5 emissions *down* relative to the emissions allowed by the original defeat device. On that basis, the  
6 Court held that the changes “did not violate . . . Wyoming’s tampering provision . . . because the  
7 updates did not ‘render ineffective or inoperative’ the emission control system.” *Wyoming*, 264 F.  
8 Supp. 3d at 1057 n.8. In contrast, the Counties’ allegations support that the post-sale software  
9 changes *increased* emissions. (*See* Salt Lake Compl. ¶ 42; *see also* SOF ¶¶ 50-51 (admitting that  
10 the steering wheel angle recognition feature “improve[d] the defeat device’s precision” and  
11 marked an “expansion of the defeat device,” as this feature reduced the likelihood that the vehicles  
12 in which it was installed would inadvertently operate in testing or “dyno” mode during normal  
13 driving conditions). Unlike Wyoming’s allegations, then, the Counties’ are based on conduct that  
14 could constitute tampering under their respective tampering rules. And because the software  
15 changes were made to vehicles that had already been sold to consumers, the Counties’ attempts to  
16 regulate the changes are not expressly preempted by Section 209(a).

17       Defendants make one additional argument with respect to Section 209(a), asserting that the  
18 relation-back concept discussed in *Allway Taxi, Inc. v. City of New York*, 340 F. Supp. 1120  
19 (S.D.N.Y. 1972), *aff’d*, 468 F.2d 624 (2d Cir. 1972), and cited favorably by EPA in a regulation  
20 implementing non-road vehicle emission standards, *see* 59 Fed. Reg. 31306–01 (June 17, 1994),  
21 brings the Counties’ tampering claims within the scope of Section 209(a). It does not. The idea  
22 behind that concept is that if a state were to adopt “in-use emission control measures that would  
23 apply immediately after a new vehicle or engine were purchased,” this would amount to “an  
24 attempt to circumvent section 209 preemption and would obstruct interstate commerce,” as  
25 manufacturers would feel pressure to ensure that their new vehicles complied with the state’s in-  
26 use control measures. 59 Fed. Reg. at 31330. As a result, courts have reasoned that, even though  
27 such measures would be imposed on vehicles only after they were sold, the measures would relate  
28 back to the vehicle manufacturing process, and would therefore be preempted by Section 209(a).

*See Allway Taxi*, 340 F. Supp. at 1123-24; *EMA*, 88 F.3d at 1086 (“The *Allway Taxi* interpretation, postponing state regulation so that the burden of compliance will not fall on the manufacturer, has prevented the definition of ‘new motor vehicle’ from ‘nullifying’ the motor vehicle preemption regime.”). The Counties’ attempt to regulate Defendants’ post-sale software changes does not raise the same concerns. The Counties are not attempting to impose emission measures that would require manufacturers to change the way they construct new vehicles. Rather, the Counties are attempting to prevent manufacturers from tampering with their vehicles after the vehicles are sold to end users. Because the relation-back concept is not implicated here, it does not bring the Counties’ claims within the preemptive scope of Section 209(a).

That Section 209(a) does not expressly bar the Counties’ attempts to regulate Defendants’ post-sale software changes does not end the preemption analysis, however. This is because “neither an express pre-emption provision nor a saving clause ‘bars the ordinary working of conflict pre-emption principles.’” *Buckman Co. v. Pls.’ Legal Comm.*, 531 U.S. 341, 352 (2001) (quoting *Geier v. Am. Honda Motor Co.*, 529 U.S. 861, 69 (2000)). The Court must therefore also consider whether, “under the circumstances of [this] particular case, the challenged state law stands as an obstacle to the accomplishment and execution of the full purposes and objectives of Congress.” *Atay v. Cty. of Maui*, 842 F.3d 688, 699 (9th Cir. 2016) (quoting *Crosby v. Nat'l Foreign Trade Council*, 530 U.S. 363, 372-73 (2000)). Where a statute “regulates a field traditionally occupied by states, such as health, safety, and land use,” courts “assume that a federal law does not preempt the states’ police power absent a ‘clear and manifest purpose of Congress.’” *Id.* (quoting *Wyeth v. Levine*, 555 U.S. 555, 565 (2009)).

A

The Counties allege that Volkswagen and Bosch made the post-sale software changes at issue on a model-wide basis in thousands of vehicles nationwide. As a consequence, the congressional objective that the Court must identify is how Congress intended for model-wide tampering by vehicle manufacturers and parts suppliers to be regulated. The Counties view Section 209 of the Clean Air Act as answering that question: When vehicles are tampered with when they are new, they contend that Section 209(a) prohibits states and local governments from

1 attempting to regulate that conduct; but when vehicles are tampered with when they are in use,  
2 they contend that Section 209(d) allows states and local governments to regulate that conduct,  
3 regardless of the magnitude of the tampering offense or the identity of the offender, without  
4 interfering with the federal regulatory scheme.

5 The Clean Air Act does not draw such a clear line. For one thing, the Act requires vehicles  
6 to meet EPA's emission standards during their "useful life." 42 U.S.C. § 7521(a)(1). The federal  
7 regulation of vehicle emissions therefore does not stop after vehicles are sold to end users. And  
8 although Congress has looked to both EPA and the states and local governments to enforce these  
9 useful life standards, the enforcement roles of these entities do not entirely overlap. Instead, it is  
10 evident from the statutory scheme and legislative history that Congress intended for EPA and the  
11 states and local governments to serve specific and separate functions in regulating emissions from  
12 in-use vehicles.

13 EPA's primary role after vehicles are put in use is to ensure that entire classes or models of  
14 vehicles remain in compliance with the agency's emission standards. Similar to during the new  
15 vehicle certification process, EPA works with vehicle manufacturers to accomplish this. For  
16 example, pursuant to 42 U.S.C. § 7541(b), EPA has established "[m]anufacturer in-use  
17 verification testing requirements." 40 C.F.R. § 86.1845–04. To comply, vehicle manufacturers  
18 must procure and test a specific number of vehicles in each test group (categorized by, among  
19 other things, engine type) that have been driven at least 10,000 miles (low-mileage testing) and  
20 50,000 miles (high-mileage testing). *See id.* §§ 86.1827–01; 86.1845–04(b), (c). If a  
21 manufacturer's vehicles do not pass these in-use tests, or if EPA otherwise determines that "a  
22 substantial number of any class or category of vehicles or engines, although properly maintained  
23 and used, do not conform to the regulations prescribed," EPA has authority to recall those  
24 vehicles. 42 U.S.C. § 7541(c)(1). Either before or after vehicles are sold to end users, EPA may  
25 also inspect vehicle manufacturers' records related to emissions testing, and may observe activities  
26 at the manufacturers' plants. 42 U.S.C. § 7542. EPA also requires manufactures to report to the  
27 agency emission related defects discovered in used vehicles if the defects affect at least 25  
28 vehicles of the same model year. 40 C.F.R. § 85.1903(a). Emission related defects include

1 defective “software . . . which must function properly to ensure continued compliance with  
2 emission standards.” *Id.* § 85.1902(b)(2).

3 While Congress has tasked EPA with enforcing useful life emission standards on a model-  
4 wide basis, other provisions in the Clean Air Act, and the Act’s legislative history, reveal  
5 Congress’ intent to have states and local governments enforce these standards by inspecting  
6 individual vehicles for compliance. Since Congress first adopted the modern vehicle emissions  
7 scheme, in 1967, it has intended that “States responsibility would be to assume responsibility for  
8 inspection of pollution control systems as an integral part of safety inspection programs . . . .”  
9 S. Rep. 90-403, at 35 (1967). To encourage states to adopt such programs, Congress included a  
10 provision in the Air Quality Act of 1967 that authorizes EPA to “make grants to appropriate State  
11 air pollution control agencies in an amount up to two-thirds of the cost of developing meaningful  
12 uniform motor vehicle emission device inspection and emission testing programs.” Pub. L. 90-  
13 148, § 209, 81 Stat. 502 (1967) (codified as amended at 42 U.S.C. § 7544). In commenting on  
14 minor amendments to this provision as part of the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1970, Congress  
15 also noted that “Effective State emission testing and inspection programs [are] essential . . . to  
16 assur[e] that vehicles, once delivered to the ultimate and subsequent purchasers, continue to  
17 conform to the standards for which they were certified.” S. Rep. 91-1196, at 31 (1970).

18 As Congress has made further amendments to the Clean Air Act, and in particular as it  
19 responded to increasing emissions from vehicles in the 1970s and ’80s, which resulted from the  
20 increasing use of vehicles throughout the nation, it has made some of these state inspection  
21 programs mandatory, at least for states with particularly high levels of certain pollutants. *See*  
22 Clean Air Act Amendments of 1977, Pub. L. 95-95 § 172(b)(11)(B), 91 Stat. 685, 747; Clean Air  
23 Act Amendments of 1990, Pub. L. 101-549, § 182(b)(4), (c)(3), 104 Stat. 2399, 2426. Under the  
24 current Clean Air Act, then, certain states must adopt in-use vehicle inspection programs. *See* 42  
25 U.S.C. § 7511a(b)(4), (c)(3). And these programs must comply with EPA-established minimum  
26 standards with respect to the frequency of inspection, the types of vehicles to be inspected, and the  
27 test methods and measures used. *See id.* § 7511a(a)(2)(B)(i); EPA Inspection/Maintenance  
28 Program Requirements Rule, 57 Fed. Reg. 52950 (Nov. 5, 1992). In states that are required to

1 adopt “enhanced” inspection programs, enforcement through denial of vehicle registration is  
2 required. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 7511a(c)(3)(C)(iv). Many states and local governments, like the  
3 Counties in this case, have also adopted tampering laws to bolster state inspection programs, or as  
4 standalone provisions. These tampering laws generally “prohibit the operation of motor vehicles  
5 when air pollution devices have been removed, altered, or rendered inoperative.” Arnold W.  
6 Reitze Jr., *Air Pollution Control Law: Compliance and Enforcement* § 10–5(d) (2001); *see also* 57  
7 Fed. Reg. 24370-01 (June 9, 1992) (EPA’s approval of Florida’s anti-tampering program); 52 Fed.  
8 Reg. 4921-02 (Feb. 18, 1987) (EPA’s approval of Utah’s inspection and anti-tampering  
9 programs).

10 By their nature, state inspection programs operate on an individual vehicle basis. This is  
11 clear from, among other things, the use of vehicle registration denial as a means of enforcement—  
12 which is a penalty that affects the owners of specific non-compliant vehicles. It is also clear from  
13 Section 207(h)(2) of the Clean Air Act. There, Congress has provided that “Nothing in [Section  
14 209(a)] shall be construed to prohibit a State from testing or requiring testing of, a motor vehicle  
15 after the date of sale of such vehicle to the ultimate purchaser . . . .” 42 U.S.C. § 7541(h)(2). But  
16 the same provision follows with this exception: “(except that no new motor vehicle manufacturer  
17 or dealer may be required to conduct testing under this paragraph).” Through this exception,  
18 Congress has manifested its intent that state inspection programs should not interfere with vehicle  
19 manufacturers.

20 At times, the federal scheme reveals overlap between federal, state, and local enforcement  
21 authority of emission standards. As notable for present purposes, Congress has adopted a federal  
22 tampering provision, which prohibits “any person” from removing or rendering inoperative  
23 emission control devices either before or after the vehicles in which the devices are installed are  
24 sold to ultimate purchasers. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 7522(a)(3)(A). Until 1990, this provision applied  
25 only to manufacturers, dealers, fleet owners, service stations or garage operators, and those in the  
26 business of leasing vehicles. *See* Clean Air Act Amendments of 1977, Pub. L. 95-95 § 219(a), 91  
27 Stat. 685, 761. But in the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990, Congress expanded the reach of  
28 the federal tampering law to also cover individual owners and operators of vehicles. *See* Pub. L.

1 101-549, § 228(b), 104. Stat. 2399, 2507 (codified at 42 U.S.C. § 7522(a)(3)(A)). In this respect,  
2 EPA, similar to states and local governments, can regulate individual vehicle owners' compliance  
3 with emission standards. Although no similar provisions in the Clean Air Act reveal a crossover  
4 going the other way, with states and local governments given authority to supplement EPA's  
5 enforcement authority over vehicle manufacturers' compliance with emission standards. Further,  
6 the legislative history of the 1990 amendments reveals that Congress amended the federal  
7 tampering law only to supplement state efforts to regulate tampering by individual vehicle owners  
8 and operators, as tampering by individuals was proving to be problematic in states with and  
9 without inspection and tampering programs. *See S. Rep. 101-228, at 123 (1989)* (citing tampering  
10 statistics from a 1988 tampering survey). And while the amendments authorized EPA to regulate  
11 tampering by individuals, Congress "[did] not require sweeping new enforcement initiatives to be  
12 undertaken by EPA." (*Id.* at 124.)

13 The division of authority discussed above—with EPA enforcing useful life vehicle  
14 emission standards primarily on a model-wide basis, and at the manufacturer level, and states and  
15 local governments enforcing the same standards on an individual vehicle basis at the end-user  
16 level—is sensible, as it best utilizes the comparative advantages of EPA and the states and local  
17 governments. EPA, as a federal agency, is best positioned to enforce emission standards on a  
18 model-wide basis because model-wide emission problems will almost invariably affect vehicles in  
19 states and counties throughout the country. Further, when investigating model-wide emission  
20 issues, EPA can also rely on testing data it acquired from manufacturers during the new vehicle  
21 certification process, which it can utilize to understand how vehicle models are performing in use  
22 as compared to how they were performing during assembly-line testing. Likewise, because the  
23 new vehicle certification process requires EPA to work directly with vehicle manufacturers, the  
24 agency has preexisting relationships that it can rely on when addressing model-wide emission  
25 defects in used vehicles.

26 States and local governments, in contrast, are in a better position than EPA to enforce  
27 emission standards at the individual user level. Although Congress could theoretically task EPA  
28 with overseeing nationwide vehicle inspection programs—with the agency running testing centers

1 and requiring vehicle owners to have their vehicles checked on a regular basis—states and local  
2 governments can more efficiently do so because they already oversee vehicle registration and  
3 drivers' licensing, and can use state police power to aid enforcement. Indeed, when Congress first  
4 sought to motivate states to create vehicle inspection programs, it did so based on the belief that  
5 states would adopt such programs “as an integral part of safety inspection programs.” S. Rep. 90-  
6 403, at 35 (1967).

7 This is not to say that there is no conceivable scenario, consistent with the Clean Air Act,  
8 in which states and local governments could regulate a vehicle manufacturer’s compliance with  
9 emission standards. If, for example, a manufacturer were to tamper with a single in-use vehicle  
10 during vehicle maintenance, the Clean Air Act would not bar a state or local government from  
11 bringing a tampering claim against the manufacturer if the tampering occurred within its borders.  
12 In such a scenario, the manufacturer is not acting on a model-wide basis, and therefore the  
13 enforcement advantages that EPA has over the states and local governments are not implicated.  
14 But when a manufacturer’s actions affect vehicles model wide, the Clean Air Act manifests  
15 Congress’ intent that EPA, not the states or local governments, will regulate that conduct.

16 **B**

17 The model-wide nature of the post-sale software changes alleged here makes them the type  
18 of conduct that Congress intended EPA to regulate. And indeed, EPA has regulated this conduct.  
19 EPA was instrumental in bringing Volkswagen’s emissions fraud to light, as it began an  
20 investigation in 2014 to determine why on-road emissions from the affected vehicles significantly  
21 exceeded emissions during testing. (*See* Hillsborough Compl. ¶¶ 82-86; SOF ¶¶ 52-63.) And it  
22 was only after EPA threatened not to certify certain model-year 2016 vehicles that Volkswagen  
23 finally admitted that it had equipped the affected vehicles with a defeat device. (*See* Hillsborough  
24 Compl. ¶ 90; SOF ¶ 59.) EPA has also brought civil and criminal actions against Volkswagen  
25 based not only on the company’s initial installation of a defeat device in its vehicles, but also as a  
26 result of the company’s post-sale software changes. (*See* SOF ¶¶ 47-51 (detailing Volkswagen’s  
27 defeat device modifications as part of the factual basis for the company’s guilty plea); *Volkswagen*  
28 *AG*, No. 3:16-CV-00295, Dkt. No. 32-3, EPA Am. Civil Compl. ¶¶ 114-16, 195-97 (detailing

1 Volkswagen's defeat device modifications as conduct that violated the Clean Air Act and EPA  
2 regulations.) These criminal and civil actions have resulted in Volkswagen paying penalties and  
3 remediation payments totaling \$9.23 billion, which is in addition to a \$10.033 billion funding pool  
4 Volkswagen agreed to establish to buy back its 2.0-liter TDI vehicles and to pay the owners and  
5 lessees of those vehicles restitution.

6 The model-wide nature of the post-sale software changes also distinguishes them from  
7 the type of conduct that Congress intended for states and local governments to regulate. State and  
8 local tampering laws are meant to be used as a tool by states and counties to regulate vehicles  
9 within their borders. If a mechanic removes or alters a vehicle's emission control system during  
10 routine maintenance, for example, states and counties are in the best position to penalize that  
11 conduct. But when the tampering at issue involves thousands of vehicles, and the changes are  
12 made through software updates instituted on a nationwide basis, EPA is in a better position to  
13 regulate that conduct, as it can rely on the tools Congress has given it to police vehicle  
14 manufacturers' compliance with emission standards before and after vehicles are put in use.

15 Due to technological advances, manufacturers today also have the ability to impact their  
16 vehicles well after sale to end users. Vehicles are increasingly computerized, and similar to the  
17 types of remote updates that consumers may receive on their phones or computers,  
18 manufacturers may be able to modify software installed in vehicles just as easily. This is not the  
19 type of conduct that states and local governments are in the best position to regulate. Although it  
20 may be characterized as conduct that takes place at least in part within their borders, it is conduct  
21 on a much broader, national scale. And it is not conduct involving an individual consumer's  
22 vehicle; rather, it involves entire vehicle lines, makes, and models. This is the type of conduct that  
23 Congress intended EPA to regulate.

24 Not only is EPA better positioned than the Counties to regulate Volkswagen's post-sale  
25 software changes, but if the Counties were permitted to regulate this conduct, the size of the  
26 potential tampering penalties could significantly interfere with Congress' regulatory scheme.  
27 "The obligation to pay compensation can be, indeed is designed to be, a potent method of  
28 governing conduct and controlling policy." *Cipollone v. Liggett Grp., Inc.*, 505 U.S. 504, 521

1 (1992) (quoting *San Diego Building Trades Council v. Garmon*, 359 U.S. 236, 247 (1959)). This  
2 is because “[e]ven if [a] regulated entity can comply with both state and federal sanctions, the  
3 mere fact of . . . inconsistent sanctions can undermine the federal choice of the degree of pressure  
4 to be employed, ‘undermining the congressional calibration of force.’” *Compass Airlines LLC v.*  
5 *Mont. Dep’t of Labor & Indus.*, No. CV 12-105-H-CCL, 2013 WL 4401045, at \*13 (D. Mont.  
6 Aug. 12, 2013) (quoting *Crosby*, 530 U.S. at 379-80).

7 As relevant here, Congress has set specific penalties for vehicle tampering by  
8 manufacturers. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 7524(a) (up to \$25,000 per violation by manufacturers and  
9 dealers, and up to \$2,500 per violation by any other person). And Volkswagen’s tampering has  
10 triggered those penalties. The Counties now seek to impose additional, significant sanctions for  
11 the same conduct, with a violation of either Hillsborough’s or Salt Lake’s tampering rule  
12 punishable by a civil penalty of up to \$5,000 per offense per day of noncompliance. *See*  
13 Hillsborough EPC Enabling Act § 17(2); Utah Code Ann. § 19-1-303. With at least 1,118 affected  
14 vehicles allegedly registered in Hillsborough County, and at least 5,000 allegedly registered in Salt  
15 Lake County, and with the tampering at issue occurring in or around April 2013, and continuing  
16 for over a year until Volkswagen admitted to using a defeat device in the fall of 2015, the potential  
17 penalties could reach \$30.6 million per day and \$11.2 billion per year—and that is just for two  
18 counties. If other counties and states bring similar claims—and indeed some already have<sup>5</sup>—the  
19 potential penalties could dwarf those paid to EPA, which would seriously undermine the  
20 congressional calibration of force for tampering by vehicle manufacturers.<sup>6</sup>

21 Even if actual penalties are lower, if tampering claims like the Counties’ are allowed to  
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23 <sup>5</sup> Counsel for Volkswagen has represented that 28 counties in Texas, and at least 8 states have  
24 asserted tampering claims against the company that are based on its post-sale software  
modifications. (*See* Dkt. No. 4715 at 7 (Feb. 1, 2018 Hr’g Tr.); Dkt. No. 4887 (Notice of Recent  
25 Decisions).) The Counties have not contested these representations.

26 <sup>6</sup> The penalties sought by the Counties would also be above and beyond the remediation that  
27 consumers in the Counties have already received by way of the consumer class action settlements,  
and beyond the payments that the Counties’ home states—Florida and Utah—have or are expected  
28 to receive as beneficiaries to Volkswagen’s emissions mitigation trust. As beneficiaries, Florida is  
expected to receive approximately \$166 million, and Utah is expected to receive approximately  
\$35 million. (Dkt. Nos. 2103-1 at 207; 3228-1 at 164.)

1 proceed, vehicle manufacturers could be subjected to up to 50 state and approximately 3,000  
2 county regulatory actions based on uniform conduct that happened nationwide. The substantial  
3 nature of the potential penalties for the Counties' tampering claims, and the significant regulatory  
4 burden that would ensue if manufacturers were subject to tampering claims throughout the United  
5 States, further demonstrates the conflict that the Counties' claims create with federal policy. *See*  
6 *Crosby*, 530 U.S. at 380 ("Conflict is imminent" when 'two separate remedies are brought to bear  
7 on the same activity.'" (quoting *Wis. Dept. of Indus. v. Gould, Inc.*, 475 U.S. 282, 286 (1986))).<sup>7</sup>

8 The same analysis applies to Hillsborough's tampering claim against Bosch. Hillsborough  
9 alleges that Bosch assisted Volkswagen in developing the defeat device that was ultimately used  
10 in hundreds of thousands of vehicles in the United States, and in implementing the post-sale  
11 software changes to these vehicles. EPA, not the states and counties, is in the best position to  
12 regulate this conduct, as the conduct allegedly affected vehicles on a model-wide basis. And  
13 although EPA has not filed an enforcement action against Bosch, it has the authority to do so  
14 under federal tampering laws. *See* 42 U.S.C. § 7522(a)(3)(A) (reaching "any person" that removes  
15 or renders inoperative vehicle emission control devices). State and local tampering actions against  
16 Bosch also threaten to create the same regulatory nightmare that would occur if the actions are  
17 allowed to proceed against Volkswagen. In either instance, the claims could subject companies  
18 that are responsible for developing motor vehicles to enforcement actions throughout the country  
19 based on uniform conduct that happened nationwide.

20

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21 <sup>7</sup> The Counties' tampering claims also threaten to interfere with the injunctive relief obtained by  
22 EPA. At the time of the consent decrees, EPA and Volkswagen acknowledged that there were "no  
23 practical engineering solutions that would, without negative impact to vehicle functions and  
24 unacceptable delay," bring the majority of the affected vehicles into compliance with existing  
25 emission standards. (Dkt. Nos. 2103-1 at 5 ¶ 2; 3228-1 at 5 ¶ 2.) Yet to "avoid undue waste and  
26 potential environmental harm that would be associated with removing" the affected vehicles from  
27 service, EPA agreed to allow Volkswagen to offer emissions modifications to the owners and  
28 lessees of the affected vehicles if the modifications "would substantially reduce NOx emissions."  
(Dkt. Nos. 2103-1 at 6 ¶ 4; 3228-1 at 7 ¶ 4.) This approach reflected the type of careful balancing  
that is required in responding to a nationwide environmental problem like the one at issue here.  
But the Counties may jeopardize this balance by asserting that vehicles with EPA-approved  
modifications continue to violate their tampering rules because the modifications do not bring the  
vehicles into compliance with the originally certified emission standards. This threat of  
inconsistent sanctions further demonstrates the conflict between the Counties' tampering claims  
and federal policy.

The Clean Air Act's savings clause, Section 209(d), does not alter any of the above analysis. That provision does not give states and local governments carte blanche to regulate any conduct that affects emissions from vehicles that are in use. Rather, the provision provides that "Nothing in this part shall preclude or deny to any State or political subdivision thereof the right *otherwise* to control, regulate, or restrict the use, operation, or movement of registered or licensed motor vehicles." 42 U.S.C. § 7543(d) (emphasis added). The use of the term "otherwise" indicates that state and local government regulation of in-use vehicles is subject to the limitations otherwise imposed by federal law. And those limitations include the division of authority between EPA and the states and local governments discussed above.

Bolstering this conclusion, the legislative history of Section 209(d) reveals that Congress' intent in enacting this saving clause was to ensure that states and local governments had authority to adopt transportation planning regulations, not to regulate vehicle manufacturers. In the Senate Report for the Air Quality Act of 1967, the Committee on Public Works noted the following with respect to Section 209(d):

This language is of particular importance. While there has been a great deal of concern expressed regarding control of new vehicles little attention has been paid to control of used vehicles, either their emissions or their use. It may be that, in some areas, certain conditions at certain times will require control of movement of vehicles. Other areas may require alternative methods of transportation. Unfortunately some of these alternatives have been ignored and the onus of control has been placed solely on the automobile manufacturers.

It is clear that, if a pollution-free (or at least minimized) rapid transit system reduced commuter traffic there would be a corresponding decrease in automobile-related air pollution. And any significant advance in control of used vehicles would result in a corresponding reduction in air pollution. These are areas in which the States and local government can be most effective.

S. Rep. No. 90-403, at 34 (1967).

Section 209(d), then, was viewed as providing states and local governments with the authority to "control [the] movement of vehicles" so that they could "reduce[] commuter traffic" and thereby "decrease . . . automobile-related air pollution." *Id.*; see also EMA, 88 F.3d at 1094

1 (recognizing that Section 209(d) “protect[s] the power of states to adopt . . . in-use regulations,”  
2 such as “carpool lanes, restrictions on car use in downtown areas, and programs to control  
3 extended idling of vehicles”) (citation omitted). These are not the types of measures that affect  
4 vehicle manufacturers and parts suppliers. To the contrary, the legislative history reveals that the  
5 intent of Section 209(d) was to give states and local governments a tool to *lessen* the burden on  
6 vehicle manufacturers—as manufacturers are ultimately the ones that must develop and implement  
7 the technology capable of meeting federal vehicle emission standards.

8 Courts have “repeatedly ‘declined to give broad effect to saving clauses where doing so  
9 would upset the careful regulatory scheme established by federal law.’” *Geier*, 529 U.S. at 870  
10 (quoting *United States v. Locke*, 529 U.S. 89, 106-07 (2000)). Interpreting Section 209(d) in the  
11 manner suggested by the Counties would have just such a destabilizing effect. When the Clean  
12 Air Act is considered as a whole, it is clear that Congress intended for EPA to regulate vehicle  
13 emission standards on a model-wide basis, while states and local governments would regulate  
14 compliance with these standards at the individual vehicle level. Section 209(d) does not modify  
15 that framework.

16 \* \* \*

17 The Counties’ tampering claims, based on post-sale software changes to the affected  
18 vehicles by Volkswagen and Bosch, are an attempt to enforce vehicle emission standards on a  
19 model-wide basis. Because Congress intended for only EPA to regulate such conduct, the Court  
20 concludes that these claims stand as an obstacle to Congress’ purpose and are preempted by the  
21 Clean Air Act.

22 V

23 Salt Lake County’s complaint includes three additional claims against Volkswagen. These  
24 claims are for common law fraud, violation of Utah’s Pattern of Unlawful Activity Act, which is a  
25 state RICO statute, and common law nuisance. Volkswagen argues that each of these claims is  
26 preempted by the Clean Air Act. The Court agrees.

27 The decision in *In re Office of Attorney General of State of New York (“Detroit Diesel”)*,  
28 269 A.D.2d 1 (N.Y. App. Div. 2000), is instructive. Similar to here, that case involved vehicle

1 manufacturers' use of a defeat device, and a state's attempt to bring common law claims against  
2 the manufacturers as a result. The dispute between the state and the manufacturers followed an  
3 EPA investigation, lawsuit, and settlement. *Id.* at 3-4. After the settlement was formalized in a  
4 series of consent decrees, the New York Attorney General subpoenaed the manufacturers—  
5 seeking testing data and other documents that the manufacturers had provided to EPA. *Id.* at 4.  
6 Although the Attorney General initially represented that he would use the requested material  
7 primarily to support New York's public comments on the consent decrees, he later noted that he  
8 sought to bring "State common-law actions for damages, such as fraud, breach of warranty, public  
9 nuisance and conspiracy to restrain trade," which he asserted were "not preempted by the Clean  
10 Air Act." *Id.* at 5.

11 The state trial court held that the common law claims were preempted, and the appellate  
12 court affirmed. *Id.* In the appellate decision, the court noted that common law claims "may be  
13 preempted if such claims would unavoidably result in serious interference with the  
14 accomplishment and execution of the full purposes and objectives of Congress." *Id.* at 10 (internal  
15 quotation marks omitted). The court then concluded that the Attorney General's common law  
16 claims would create just such interference, because the Attorney General was "seeking to use  
17 [state] common law to penalize the manufacturers for producing engines which failed to comply  
18 with the Federal standards promulgated pursuant to the [Clean Air Act]." *Id.* at 11. For example,  
19 the court reasoned that "the Attorney General's claim sounding in fraud has its genesis in the  
20 manufacturers' purported concealment or misrepresentation of their violations of the Federal  
21 emissions standards, and liability would necessarily be based on the scope of those standards." *Id.*  
22 at 11-12. Similarly, the court reasoned that the Attorney General's nuisance claim, which was  
23 "based upon the notion that the manufacturers' alleged circumvention of federal emission control  
24 requirements ha[d] resulted in 1.3 million[] . . . tons of excess NOx emissions annually," would  
25 require "a determination of whether the manufacturers complied with the Federal emissions  
26 standard." *Id.* at 12 (internal quotation marks omitted). If the Attorney General were allowed to  
27 bring these claims, the court reasoned, the Attorney General would be indirectly attempting to  
28 enforce the federal emission standards. The court concluded that such a result would lead to "the

1       chaotic situation which Congress sought to avoid” under the Clean Air Act, as all 50 states could  
2       bring similar actions against vehicle manufacturers to indirectly enforce EPA’s emission  
3       standards. *Id.* at 11.

4              The situation here is the same. Through its fraud, nuisance, and state RICO claims, Salt  
5       Lake County is attempting to penalize Volkswagen for its failure to comply with federal emission  
6       standards. Salt Lake’s fraud claim, for instance, is based on the contention that Volkswagen  
7       misrepresented the amount of pollutants emitted by its vehicles, and concealed the use of a defeat  
8       device in its vehicles. (Salt Lake Compl. ¶¶ 58-65.) This is the same conduct underlying EPA’s  
9       claims against Volkswagen for violations of the Clean Air Act. The same is true of Salt Lake’s  
10       state RICO claim, which is based on a “pattern of unlawful activity” that includes alleged  
11       violations of Utah’s tampering, fraud, deceptive business practices, and computer crime laws.  
12       (See *id.* ¶¶ 66-73.) Salt Lake does not offer any factual allegations to support this claim other than  
13       the allegations underlying Volkswagen’s violations of the Clean Air Act. The state RICO claim  
14       accordingly “has its genesis in the manufacturers’ . . . violations of the Federal emissions  
15       standards, and liability would necessarily be based on the scope of those standards.” *Detroit*  
16       *Diesel*, 269 A.D.2d at 11-12. Finally, Salt Lake bases its nuisance claim on Volkswagen’s “use of  
17       defeat devices on the vehicles [it] distributed and [its] modification of software on in-service  
18       vehicles,” which the County alleges “created a public nuisance” that “rendered the air of Salt Lake  
19       County impure or unwholesome.” (Compl. ¶ 75.) As the focus on Volkswagen’s use of a defeat  
20       device demonstrates, this claim too is an attempt by the County to indirectly enforce EPA’s  
21       emission standards.

22              With respect to the fraud claim, it is worth noting that the facts here are distinguishable  
23       from those in several cases in which courts have recently held that fraud claims based on a vehicle  
24       manufacturer’s use of a defeat device are not preempted by the Clean Air Act. See *In re Chrysler-*  
25       *Dodge-Jeep Ecodiesel Mktg., Sales Practices, & Prod. Liab. Litig.*, No. 17-MD-02777-EMC,  
26       2018 WL 1335901, at \*43-51 (N.D. Cal. Mar. 15, 2018); *In re Duramax Diesel Litig.*, No. 17-CV-  
27       11661, 2018 WL 949856 TLL, at \*10-17 (E.D. Mich. Feb. 20, 2018); *Counts v. General Motors*  
28       LLC, 237 F. Supp. 3d 572, 588-92 (E.D. Mich. 2017); *In re Volkswagen “Clean Diesel” Litig.*

1 (“VW Va.”), CL-2016-9917, 2016 WL 10880209, at \*2-6 (Va. Cir. Ct. Aug. 30, 2016). In each of  
2 those cases, the fraud claims at issue were filed by consumers who allegedly purchased vehicles  
3 that contained a defeat device, and who alleged that they were deceived by the manufacturers’  
4 representations about the vehicles’ emissions, or by the manufacturers’ concealment of the  
5 emissions cheating software. Under those circumstances, the courts concluded that the  
6 consumers’ fraud claims were not preempted by the Clean Air Act because the claims were not an  
7 attempt to enforce EPA’s emission standards, but rather were an attempt to hold the manufacturers  
8 liable for their false promises and deceit. *See VW Va.*, 2016 WL 10880209, at \*5 (“Plaintiffs’  
9 fraud and VCPA claims do not rely on emissions violations . . . Instead, Plaintiffs’ claims rely  
10 upon allegedly false promises of compliance, efficiency, and new technology; or concealment of  
11 the fact that compliance testing was being circumvented.”); *Counts*, 237 F. Supp. 3d at 591  
12 (reasoning that “the gravamen of Plaintiffs’ claims . . . focus on the deceit about compliance,  
13 rather than the need to enforce compliance”) (internal quotation marks omitted); *Chrysler*, 2018  
14 WL 1335901, at \*50 (“[T]he gravamen of Plaintiffs’ complaint . . . is Defendants’ deceit, not the  
15 violation *per se* of federal emissions standards.”); *Duramax*, 2018 WL 949856, at \*14 (“The  
16 gravamen of their state law claims is that they purchased a vehicle which polluted at levels far  
17 greater than a reasonable consumer would expect.”). Unlike the consumers in the cases cited, Salt  
18 Lake has not alleged that it purchased a vehicle affected by Volkswagen’s defeat device scheme.  
19 The County therefore cannot contend that it was deceived into purchasing one of the affected  
20 vehicles. The impact of a manufacturer’s deceit of consumers on the preemption analysis is  
21 therefore not relevant here.

22 Like the Attorney General in *Detroit Diesel*, Salt Lake seeks to use its common law and  
23 state statutory claims to penalize Volkswagen for its model-wide noncompliance with EPA’s  
24 emission standards. Because Congress intended for EPA to regulate such conduct, Salt Lake’s  
25 claims would “unavoidably result in serious interference with the accomplishment and execution  
26 of the full purposes and objectives of Congress.” *Detroit Diesel*, 269 A.D.2d at 10 (internal  
27 quotation marks omitted). Salt Lake’s claims are therefore preempted.

1 VI  
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Having concluded that the Counties' claims are preempted, the Court GRANTS  
Defendants' motions to dismiss the Counties' complaints. Finding that an amendment of the  
complaints would be futile, the Court dismisses the complaints with prejudice.

5 **IT IS SO ORDERED.**

6 Dated: April 16, 2018

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CHARLES R. BREYER  
United States District Judge