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MALTZMAN & PARTNERS 681 ENCINTAS BOULEVARD, SUITE 315 ENCINTAS, CA 92024 TELEPHONE: (760) 942-9880 FAX: (760) 942-9882

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	DEFENDANT'S MOTION TO DISMISS 2.20-CV-02531-RGK-SK

Defendant, PRINCESS CRUISE LINES, LTD. (hereafter "Defendant" or
 "PRINCESS"), hereby files this Motion to Dismiss the Complaint filed by Plaintiffs
 herein. In the interests of judicial economy, the court is hereby advised that this
 motion is identical to Motions to Dismiss filed in multiple other identical cases
 listed below.¹

6 This motion is made following several conferences of counsel pursuant to
7 L.R. 7-3 which took place between May 7, 2020 and June 1, 2020.

8 I. INTRODUCTION

9 Plaintiffs ask this Court to recognize an unprecedented theory of liability for 10 emotional distress, unmoored from any physical harm, that is squarely foreclosed by 11 Supreme Court precedent. If accepted, Plaintiffs' theory would open the door to open-ended liability for every business, school, church, and municipality across 12 13 America, stalling economic recovery in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic and 14 complicating the ability of businesses to reopen. Consistent with Supreme Court and Ninth Circuit precedent, this Court should reject Plaintiffs' attempt to expand 15 emotional distress liability and dismiss the Complaint. 16

Plaintiffs are among over 100 individuals who have filed nearly identical
lawsuits against Defendant, each seeking one million dollars in compensatory
damages for emotional distress based on their fear that they might have contracted
COVID-19 during their cruise. Like dozens of virtually identical cases, these
Plaintiffs embarked the *Grand Princess* cruise ship on February 21, 2020. (Compl. ¶

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Weissberger v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02267-RGK-SK; Abitbol v. Princess 23 Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02414-RGK-SK; Austin v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02531-RGK-SK; Gleason v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02328-RGK-SK; 24 Jacobsen v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02860-RGK-SK; Jones v. Princess Cruise 25 Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02727-RGK-SK; Kurivial v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02361-RGK-SK; Lane v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02865-RGK-SK; Mendenhall 26 v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02753-RGK-SK; Sheedy v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-02430-RGK-SK; Chao v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-03314-RGK-SK; 27 James v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-03868-RGK-SK; and Stramel v. Princess Cruise Lines Ltd, No. 2:20-CV-03960-RGK-SK. 28

1 11.) Importantly, Plaintiffs do not claim they contracted COVID-19, that they 2 suffered any symptoms of COVID-19, or even that they ever came into direct 3 contact with the virus or anyone who had it. Rather, Plaintiffs seek damages for 4 emotional distress based solely on the fact that they were aboard the same 107,517 5 ton cruise ship along with approximately 3,700 other passengers and crew, some of 6 whom could have interacted with individuals from the preceding cruise who were 7 later diagnosed with COVID-19 after their cruise ended. (Compl. ¶ 22-23.) 8 Plaintiffs claim, without explanation, that merely by virtue of being on the same 9 cruise ship with some individuals that were on the prior cruise, they were at "actual 10 risk of immediate physical injury." (Compl. ¶ 19.) While evidence will ultimately show that Plaintiffs' factual allegations against PRINCESS are inaccurate and 11 misleading, even accepting Plaintiffs' allegations as true for the purposes of 12 13 considering this Motion to Dismiss, the Complaints make clear that Plaintiffs' 14 claims fail as a matter of law.

15 The Supreme Court has squarely held that a plaintiff cannot recover for 16 emotional distress stemming from potential exposure to a disease "unless, and until, he manifests symptoms of a disease." Metro-North Commuter R. Co. v. Buckley, 17 18 521 U.S. 424, 427 (1997). This rule applies to claims of emotional distress brought 19 under federal maritime law. Negron v. Celebrity Cruises, Inc., 360 F. Supp. 3d 1358 20 (S.D. Fla. 2018). Supreme Court precedent thus requires dismissal here, because 21 Plaintiffs do not (and cannot) plausibly claim that they either contracted COVID-19 or had sufficient symptoms of disease to establish they had contracted the virus as a 22 23 result of Defendant's conduct.

The Supreme Court has consistently reaffirmed this rule precisely to avoid the
oppressive societal costs that would occur if claims like Plaintiffs' could go forward.
As the Court has explained, "contacts, even extensive contacts," with potential
carriers of diseases "are common." *Metro-North*, 521 U.S. at 434. And unlike with
physical injury, "there are no necessary finite limits on the number of persons who

might suffer emotional injury" as a result of fear of contracting an illness. *Consolidated Rail Corp. v. Gottshall*, 512 U.S. 532, 546 (1994). If anyone
potentially exposed to a contagion could obtain damages for emotional distress,
"[t]he large number of those exposed and the uncertainties that may surround
recovery" would prompt a "flood" of lawsuits, *Metro-North*, 521 U.S. at 434, and
would lead to "the very real possibility of nearly infinite and unpredictable liability
for defendants." *Norfolk & W. Ry. Co. v. Ayers*, 538 U.S. 135, 146 (2003).

8 With the COVID-19 pandemic, a "flood" has already begun. In just its first 9 few months, 24 cases have already been filed just from this one cruise ship, with 10 similar cases filed relating to passengers on other cruises and other vessels. And 11 there is no reason to think the flood will abate. As of the date of filing this brief, nearly 1.8 million cases of COVID-19 have been confirmed in the United States 12 alone and 6.2 million cases worldwide.² Thousands of schools, nursing homes, 13 14 shopping centers, stadiums, parks, and businesses across America have inevitably 15 had cases on their premises. If Plaintiffs' theory of liability succeeds, then all of the 16 millions of individuals who passed through those venues can similarly claim to have 17 suffered emotional distress if they learn that another person who was later diagnosed 18 with COVID-19 was present. Straightforward application of the Supreme Court's 19 rules governing these fear of disease claims will prevent the cataclysmic result of 20 allowing open-ended liability for all of these venues.

There is a second, independent barrier to Plaintiffs' claims: In addition to
requiring that a plaintiff contract the disease or at least show sufficient symptoms to
suggest the plaintiff has contracted the disease, courts further require that the
plaintiff's fear must give rise to serious physical consequences before emotional
distress damages can be recovered. Mere anxiety or fear about their health, as is
alleged by Plaintiffs, is legally insufficient to support a claim for emotional distress

 ²See Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19), Cases in the U.S., Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, <u>https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/cases-updates/cases-in-us.html</u>.

in a fear of illness case. Just as Plaintiffs here do not claim a confirmed diagnosis of
COVID-19, nor symptoms suggesting they actually contracted the virus, they did
not suffer (nor do they allege to have suffered) the requisite serious physical
consequences stemming from their alleged emotional distress. Additionally,
Plaintiffs' request for punitive damages is flatly insufficient under the strict
standards governing punitive damages in maritime claims.

7 Plaintiffs' claims threaten the ability of businesses to reopen and for the 8 economy to resume. If individuals in Plaintiffs' situation can recover, businesses, 9 school, churches and other venues across America will be forced to keep their doors 10 closed long after state stay-at-home orders are lifted, lest they risk crushing liability 11 to each and every one of their invitees for emotional distress, based on the mere 12 possibility of infection, because some employee or other current or past customer of 13 the business was later discovered to have the virus. The likelihood of endless liability for every business, church, school and other venue in America under 14 15 Plaintiffs' expansive theory is even more likely in the context of COVID-19, which is now known to be transmitted by asymptomatic individuals which no defendant 16 17 could realistically detect with current testing limitations. The Supreme Court's 18 limits on emotional distress for fear of disease claims are intended to avoid exactly 19 that result, and a straightforward application of those limits here mandates dismissal.

20 II. LEGAL STANDARD

21 To survive a Rule 12(b)(6) motion, a complaint must allege "enough facts to state a claim to relief that is plausible on its face." Bell Atl. Corp. v. Twombly, 550 22 23 U.S. 544, 570 (2007). "Factual allegations must be enough to raise a right to relief 24 above the speculative level, ... on the assumption that all the allegations in the 25 complaint are true (even if doubtful in fact)." Id. at 555 (citations omitted). "The 26 plausibility standard "asks for more than a sheer possibility that a defendant has 27 acted unlawfully." Ashcroft v. Iqbal, 556 U.S. 662, 678 (2009). "A pleading that offers labels and conclusions or a formulaic recitation of the elements of a cause of 28

1 action will not do." *Id*.

2 III. MEMORANDUM OF LAW

3 Recognizing the potential for widespread liability in fear-of-disease cases, courts apply two strict limits on such cases. First, the Supreme Court has held that a 4 5 plaintiff cannot recover for emotional distress stemming from alleged exposure to an illness "unless, and until, he has symptoms of a disease." Metro-North, 521 U.S. at 6 7 426-27. Second, courts independently require that a plaintiff plausibly allege serious 8 physical manifestations of their purported emotional distress. Plaintiffs have not 9 plausibly alleged either symptoms or a physical manifestation of their distress, and 10 thus their case must be dismissed under Rule 12(b)(6). Even if Plaintiffs' claims 11 survive, their Complaint should be dismissed based on its failure to allege any facts showing Plaintiffs ever came into actual contract with the virus and their request for 12 13 punitive damages should be dismissed or stricken.

A. Federal Maritime Law Applies to Plaintiffs' Claims

15 As Plaintiffs acknowledge by invoking this Court's maritime jurisdiction and stating that the case "involves a maritime tort" (Compl. \P 3), Federal maritime law 16 applies to Plaintiffs' claims.³ Maritime law applies when "(1) the alleged wrong 17 18 occurred on or over navigable waters, and (2) the wrong bears a significant 19 relationship to traditional maritime activity." Williams v. United States, 711 F.2d 893, 896 (9th Cir.1983). "[V]irtually every activity involving a vessel on navigable 20 21 waters" is a "traditional maritime activity sufficient to invoke maritime jurisdiction."" See Taghadomi v. United States, 401 F.3d 1080, 1087 (9th Cir. 2005) 22 23 ((quoting Jerome B. Grubart, Inc. v. Great Lakes Dredge & Dock Co., 513 U.S. 24 527, 542 (1995))); Wilkinson v. Carnival Cruise Lines, Inc., 920 F.2d 1560, 1654 n. 25 10 (11th Cir. 1991) ("In maritime tort cases such as this one, in which injury occurs 26 aboard a ... ship upon navigable waters, federal maritime law governs the

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Plaintiffs' Passage Contract applicable to their voyage similarly invokes maritime law. See,
 https://www.princess.com/legal/passage_contract/plc.html at Section 1

1 substantive legal issues.").

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B. Plaintiffs Cannot Recover for Emotional Distress Because They Fail to Allege Facts Demonstrating They Were Within the Zone of Danger for Contracting COVID-19

Under well-established principles that govern emotional distress claims brought under federal maritime jurisdiction, Plaintiffs' claims should be dismissed.

1. To Recover for Emotional Distress Based on Exposure to a Disease, Plaintiffs Must Plausibly Allege That They Contracted and Have Suffered Symptoms of That Disease

The Supreme Court has "sharply circumscribed" recovery under federal law 10 for "stand-alone emotional distress claims"—*i.e.*, claims of emotional harm that are 11 not "brought on by a physical injury or disease"—by requiring that the plaintiff be 12 within the "zone of danger" of defendant's allegedly negligent conduct. Ayers, 538 13 U.S. at 147 (2003). The Supreme Court's zone of danger test "confines recovery for 14 stand-alone emotional distress claims to plaintiffs who: (1) 'sustain a physical 15 impact as a result of a defendant's negligent conduct'; or (2) 'are placed in 16 immediate risk of physical harm by that conduct'-that is, those who escaped 17 instant physical harm, but were 'within the zone of danger of physical impact." Id. 18 at 146 (emphasis added). 19

In Metro-North, the Supreme Court set forth a more specific, categorical 20 version of the zone of danger test that governs claims of emotional distress based on 21 alleged negligent exposure to a disease. Under Metro-North, a plaintiff alleging 22 emotional distress from such exposure "cannot recover unless, and until, he 23 manifests symptoms of a disease." 521 U.S. at 426-27. In other words, there is no 24 liability for emotional distress from fear of contracting a disease unless the Plaintiff 25 either has been diagnosed with the disease or at least has sufficient symptoms to 26 suggest they have the illness. 27

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1 The Supreme Court has since reaffirmed *Metro-North's* categorical rule, explaining in Ayers that "emotional distress damages may not be recovered" by 2 3 "disease-free" plaintiffs. 538 U.S. at 141. The Court specifically "decline[d] to blur, blend, or reconfigure" the "clear line" between "disease-free" plaintiffs, who cannot 4 5 recover, and those "who suffer from a disease," who can recover under certain 6 conditions. Id.; see also id. at 146 (explaining that because the plaintiff in Metro-7 *North* "had a clean bill of health," the Court "rejected his entire claim for relief"). 8 The Court has also made clear that its rule applies not just to claims based on 9 exposure to toxins like asbestos, but to any claim based on alleged exposure to a 10 potential source of disease—specifically including "germ-laden air." Metro-North, 11 521 U.S. at 437.

12 By contrast, mere *exposure* to a contagion—even a significant and substantial 13 exposure—is insufficient to establish someone is within the required "zone of 14 danger," under either the "physical impact" prong or the "immediate risk of physical harm" prong. In Metro-North, the plaintiff's employer had negligently exposed him 15 to a "massive" and "tangible" amount of asbestos, placing him in direct, close 16 17 contact with asbestos for about an hour a day over a three-year period as he removed 18 asbestos from pipes, often "covering himself with insulation dust that contained 19 asbestos." Id. at 427. The plaintiff feared that this intense prolonged exposure to 20 asbestos increased his chances of dying from cancer and the plaintiff introduced 21 expert testimony supporting that his risk of cancer had in fact increased. Id. The Supreme Court nonetheless held that the plaintiff could not recover for emotional 22 23 distress since he did not ultimately contract cancer, holding that his exposure to the 24 disease-causing substance alone was insufficient to establish emotional distress 25 liability for fear of contracting a disease. Id. at 430 (quoting Gottshall, 512 U.S. at 547-48). The Court explained that if "a simple (though extensive) contact with a 26 27 carcinogenic substance" were sufficient to permit recovery, it would not "offer 28 much help in separating valid from invalid emotional distress claims." Id. at 434.

1 "Judges would be forced to make highly subjective determinations concerning the 2 authenticity of claims for emotional injury, which are far less susceptible to 3 objective medical proof than are their physical counterparts." Gottshall, 512 U.S. at 4 552.

5 In imposing these strict limits on emotional distress claims, the Supreme Court contrasted claims where a plaintiff alleges emotional harm "brought on by a physical injury[] or disease," which are not subject to the same zone of danger restriction. Ayers, 538 U.S. at 147-48. For example, a plaintiff who has contracted asbestosis after asbestos exposure can "seek compensation for fear of cancer as an element of his asbestosis-related pain and suffering damages." Id. at 158. But the same plaintiff who was exposed to asbestos and who did not contract asbestosis cannot.

13 The Supreme Court adopted the strict zone of danger test specifically to avoid the "uncabined recognition of claims for negligently inflicted emotional distress," 14 15 which would "hol[d] out the very real possibility of nearly infinite and unpredictable 16 liability for defendants." Avers, 538 U.S. at 146 (2003) (quoting Gottshall, 512 U.S. 17 at 546). And although the Supreme Court decisions developing the zone of danger 18 test arose in the context of the Federal Employers' Liability Act (FELA), the Ninth 19 Circuit has expressly held that the test governs all emotional-distress claims, 20 including those arising under federal maritime law. See Stacy v. Rederiet Otto 21 Danielsen, A.S., 609 F.3d 1033, 1035 (9th Cir. 2010); see also, e.g., Chaparro v. 22 Carnival Corp., 693 F.3d 1333, 1337-38 (11th Cir. 2012) (per curiam) ("federal 23 maritime law has adopted ... the 'zone of danger' test").

24 Indeed, courts apply *Metro-North* specifically to dismiss cruise line passenger 25 lawsuits. For instance, in Negron v. Celebrity Cruises, Inc., 360 F. Supp. 3d 1358 26 (S.D. Fla. 2018), a passenger and her family were disembarked to a hospital in 27 Barbados and claimed that, while at the hospital, they were exposed to Ebola virus. 28 *Id.* at 1360. The passengers were not allowed to return to the ship, which they claim

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added to their anxiety and they filed suit for "severe psychological damages, 1 2 emotional distress, much personal discomfort, uncertainty, fear and lack of safety," 3 and "undue expenses and costs." Id. Applying Metro-North, the Court dismissed 4 their claim, holding the passengers cannot recover for emotional harm when they 5 "do not specify any physical harm for which they seek recovery" and there were "no plausible allegations that the Plaintiffs sustained a 'physical impact' merely by 6 7 being sent to a hospital" which had Ebola-infected patients in the same hospital. Id. 8 at 1362.

2. Plaintiffs' Allegations Do Not Satisfy the Zone of Danger Test

10 The hard-and-fast rule from *Metro-North*, precluding a plaintiff's recovery for
11 emotional distress claims "unless, and until, he manifests symptoms of a disease,"
12 requires dismissal of this action. 521 U.S. at 427.

13 Plaintiffs do not allege that they contracted COVID-19 as a result of exposure 14 on the Grand Princess. Nor do they allege any symptoms. Indeed, they do not (and 15 cannot) allege that they ever came into close contact with the disease aboard the ship 16 such that they faced a probability of contracting it. Rather, Plaintiffs allege only that 17 other passengers on their vessel were exposed to passengers who previously had 18 disembarked the ship and were later confirmed to be infected with COVID-19. 19 Specifically, they state that "at least two passengers" who disembarked from the 20 previous cruise "had symptoms of the coronavirus," and that "sixty two passenger 21 on board the Plaintiffs' cruise ... were exposed to the passengers that were 22 confirmed to be infected, and later died." Compl. ¶¶ 14-15. That is nowhere near 23 sufficient under Metro-North, which, again, squarely holds that a plaintiff cannot recover "unless, and until, he manifests symptoms of a disease." 521 U.S. at 427.⁴ 24

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⁴Even if Plaintiffs *had* alleged symptoms, they would still face an independent bar to show that their fear of contracting COVID-19 was "genuine and serious"—something beyond "general concern for [one's] future health." *Ayers*, 538 U.S. at 157-58 (quoting *Smith v. A.C. & S., Inc.*, 843 F.2d 854, 859 (5th Cir.1988)); *see CSX Transp., Inc. v. Hensley*, 556 U.S. 838 (2009) (plaintiffs seeking fear-of-disease damages "must satisfy a high standard in order to obtain them").

1 Even setting aside *Metro-North*'s categorical rule that requires a diagnosis or 2 symptoms of a disease as a threshold to recovery, Plaintiffs still would not have 3 stated a claim under the zone of danger test. Federal courts routinely dismiss 4 emotional distress claims when the plaintiff has not plausibly alleged that he 5 actually suffered a physical impact or faced an imminent threat of physical harm. 6 See, e.g., Bonner v. Union Pac., 123 F. App'x 777, 778 (9th Cir. 2005); Smith v. 7 Carnival Corp., 584 F. Supp. 2d 1343, 1355 (S.D. Fla. 2008); Crawford v. Nat'l 8 R.R. Passenger Corp., No. 3:15-CV-131 (JBA), 2015 WL 8023680, at *12 (D. 9 Conn. Dec. 4, 2015); Fulk v. Norfolk S. Ry. Co., 35 F. Supp. 3d 749, 759 (M.D.N.C. 10 2014); see also, e.g., Goodrich v. Long Island Rail Rd. Co., 654 F.3d 190, 199 (2d Cir. 2011) (affirming dismissal of IIED claim where no allegation that plaintiff was 11 in zone of danger). Plaintiffs clearly have not claimed any "physical impact"; again, 12 13 it is black-letter law that an exposure to a source of disease is not a "physical impact" under Supreme Court precedent. Metro-North, 521 U.S. at 430. 14

Nor have Plaintiffs plausibly alleged an "immediate risk of physical harm." 15 Plaintiffs' bare assertion that they "are at actual risk of immediate physical injury," 16 17 is precisely the sort of "[t]hreadbare recital [] of the elements of a cause of action" 18 that cannot defeat a motion to dismiss. Ashcroft v. Iqbal, (2009) 556 U.S. 662, 678. And even if mere exposure could create an "actual risk" under the zone of danger 19 20 test—and it cannot—Plaintiffs do not allege how, when or where they were actually 21 exposed to COVID-19. Plaintiffs conspicuously fail to assert that they came into direct contact with any passengers or crew who had COVID-19, and instead assert 22 23 only that there were other passengers somewhere aboard the ship—one with 24 thousands of passengers and crew-who had come into contact with people who 25 were later discovered to be infected. Plaintiffs' Complaint alleges no potential route 26 of transmission.

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DEFENDANT'S MOTION TO DISMISS

To put this in perspective, there are 649 cities in California with populations
smaller than the 3,700-person population of the *Grand Princess*.⁵ If Plaintiffs'
allegation that merely being in the same population of 3,700 people is sufficient to
satisfy the zone of danger requirement, then anyone who lived in any of those 649
cities could become subject to emotional distress liability whenever they invited
anyone onto their premises if it was later discovered someone else in the town had
COVID-19.

8 Plaintiffs' failure to allege direct exposure makes their claim doubly deficient
9 under *Metro-North*. The plaintiff in *Metro-North* had been consistently and
10 intensely exposed to asbestos daily basis for a three-year period, and *still* the Court
11 foreclosed recovery. *Metro-North*, 521 U.S. at 427. Plaintiffs allege nothing of the
12 sort here.

13 Moreover, now that the window of potentially contracting COVID-19 has 14 long passed, Plaintiffs' claim must fail under the widely accepted, independent rule that if "at the time the court reviews a claim, a plaintiff who no longer fears 15 16 contracting the disease or that risk, may not pursue a claim for emotional distress 17 based on the earlier fear." Naeyaert v. Kimberly-Clark Corp., 2018 WL 6380749, at 18 *8 (C.D. Cal. Sept. 28, 2018). This rule, consistent with the zone of danger test, 19 ensures that only those whose fears actually manifest in the form of an actual 20 diagnosis can recover, in the interest of preventing a "flood" of cases inherently 21 "less susceptible to objective medical proof than are their physical counterparts." 22 Gottshall, 512 U.S. at 552.

Cases that *do* find an immediate risk of harm provide a helpful contrast to
Plaintiffs' inadequate claims here. These cases involve "*threatened physical contact*that caused, or might have caused, *immediate traumatic harm*." *Metro-North*, 521
U.S. at 430 (emphasis added) (collecting cases); *see, e.g.*, *Stacy*, 609 F.3d at 1035

28 || ⁵ https://www.california-demographics.com/cities_by_population

(freighter nearly struck plaintiff's vessel and then struck another ship, killing its 1 2 captain); Sawyer Bros., Inc. v. Island Transporter, LLC, 887 F.3d 23, 39 (1st Cir. 3 2018) (plaintiffs were aboard ferry that nearly capsized); In re Clearsky Shipping Corp., No. Civ. 96-4099, 2002 WL 31496659, *1 (E.D. La. Nov. 7, 2002) (plaintiff 4 5 was aboard a docked casino boat as a vessel collided with nearby wharf); Hutton v. 6 Norwegian Cruise Line Ltd., 144 F.Supp.2d 1325 (S.D. Fla. 2001) (plaintiffs aboard 7 ship that collided with another vessel). Courts' consistent focus on near-miss 8 collisions is unsurprising. The Supreme Court in adopting the zone of danger test 9 emphasized that it would allow recovery for "emotional injury caused by the 10 apprehension of physical impact." Gottshall, 512 U.S. at 556. (emphasis added). 11 And in subsequently describing the test, it has equated being "placed in immediate risk of physical harm" with "escap[ing] instant physical harm." Ayers, 538 U.S. at 12 146. Expanding the category of "immediate risk" claims to cover alleged exposure 13 14 to a communicable disease which the Plaintiff did not contract would be 15 unprecedented.

16 Because Plaintiffs were not within the zone of danger under Metro-North, 17 their allegations of emotional distress, no matter how severe, are insufficient to 18 survive a Motion to Dismiss. In Gottshall, one of the plaintiffs had suffered 19 "insomnia, headaches, depression, and weight loss," followed by a "nervous 20 breakdown." 512 U.S. at 539. The other had experienced "nausea, insomnia, cold 21 sweats, and repetitive nightmares," plus weight loss, anxiety, and suicidal ideations. 22 Id. at 536-37. The Supreme Court held that even these significant emotional injuries 23 were not compensable because they did not stem from either a physical impact or a 24 near-miss physical impact—*i.e.*, neither plaintiff was in the zone of danger. Indeed, 25 even extremely grave physical results cannot be redressed unless the plaintiff was in the zone of danger. Fulk v. Norfolk S. Ry. Co., 35 F. Supp. 3d 749, 757 (M.D.N.C. 26 27 2014) (no recovery for "self-inflicted gunshot wound" because plaintiff was never in 28 zone of danger).

1 Plaintiffs' allegations of gross negligence are similarly barred by the Supreme Court's analysis. Metro-North's zone of danger test governs all species of tort 2 3 claims seeking emotional distress, whether or not styled as claims of "negligent 4 infliction of emotional distress." See Smith v. Union Pac. R.R. Co., 236 F.3d 1168, 5 1171 (10th Cir.2000) (Metro-North and Gottshall "focused on whether emotional injuries were generally compensable under FELA, rather than upon the specific 6 7 cause of action."); Fulk v. Norfolk S. Ry. Co., 35 F. Supp. 3d 749, 755 (M.D.N.C. 8 2014) ("Federal courts have consistently applied the zone of danger test to all stand-9 alone emotional distress claims.").

3. Finding Plaintiffs' Claims Sufficient Would Invite the Exact Policy Consequences the Supreme Court Warned Against

12 COVID-19 is now known to be a pandemic, is becoming widespread and can 13 be transmitted through airborne droplets. Many of its carriers can be pre-14 symptomatic or asymptomatic, thereby not exhibiting any symptoms.⁶ If a plaintiff 15 can recover for emotional distress based on a fear of exposure to a widespread 16 disease like COVID-19, there will be no limit on who can recover in the wake of the 17 pandemic. Any business, school, church or other venue alleged to have opened its 18 doors a day too soon could be open to claims of negligence by anyone who stepped 19 inside and afterward fears they may have come into contact with a source of 20 COVID-19. This concern is even more significant in relation to a widespread and 21 often undetectable disease like COVID-19 which has infected more than 1.7 million 22 people to date. Airline travel and public transportation will prove impossible. 23 Individuals who attend a football game, transit through an airport, eat at a restaurant, 24 or shop at a mall or store will all have potential emotional distress claims based

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 28 "How to Protect Yourself and Others," Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/prevent-getting-sick/prevention.html.

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 ⁶ "Interim Clinical Guidance for Management of Patients with Confirmed Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (May 20, 2020),
 ⁷ https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/hcp/clinical-guidance-management-patients.html;

entirely on having been allowed into a venue where someone later is found to have
 tested positive for COVID-19.

3 Allowing Plaintiffs' claims to proceed, in other words, endorses the "nearly infinite and unpredictable liability for defendants" that Gottshall and Metro-North 4 5 expressly set out to prevent. Ayers, 538 U.S. at 146. Courts will be confronted with a "flood" of cases in which they "would be forced to make highly subjective 6 7 determinations concerning the authenticity of claims for emotional injury, which are 8 far less susceptible to objective medical proof than are their physical counterparts." 9 Gottshall, 512 U.S. at 552. Businesses will in effect become insurers for the mental 10 well-being of everyone who passes through their doors. Such a burden would be 11 impossible for any business, which is why the law categorically rejects such claims.

12 Rejection of Plaintiffs' unprecedented theory is all the more important in the 13 maritime context. A "fundamental interest of federal maritime jurisdiction" is "the 14 protection of maritime commerce." The Dutra Grp. v. Batterton, 139 S. Ct. 2275, 2287 (2019) (quotation marks omitted). The Supreme Court, recognizing that 15 16 maritime law is increasingly legislative in nature, has urged courts to resist judicial 17 expansions of liability and remedies that would "frustrate" this protective purpose. 18 *Id.* Allowing unpredictable and potentially crushing liability for ocean carriers to 19 potentially all of their passengers in the wake of a pandemic would so seriously 20 inhibit maritime commerce that, even if Metro-North did not squarely forbid 21 liability by its terms, principles of maritime law would independently require 22 dismissal.

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C. Plaintiffs' Claims Also Fail Because They Do Not Allege That Their Distress Has Caused a Non-Trivial Physical Injury

To further guard against open-ended liability based on fear of illness, courts
impose, as an independent and additional requirement, that the claimed emotional
distress must cause non-trivial physical consequences. In other words, "[g]eneral
maritime law requires an 'objective manifestation' of the emotional injury—a

physical injury or effect which arises from the emotional injury." Wyler v. Holland 1 2 Am. Line-USA, Inc., 2002 WL 32098495, at *1 (W.D. Wash. Nov. 8, 2002); accord 3 Martinez v. Bally's Louisiana, Inc., 244 F.3d 474, 477-478 (5th Cir. 2001); Duet v. Crosby Tugs, LLC, 2008 WL 5273688, at *3 (E.D. La. Dec. 16, 2008) ("Plaintiff's 4 5 emotional distress was not provoked by a physical injury, rather, plaintiff's physical 6 injury was provoked by emotional distress"); Tassinari v. Key W. Water Tours, L.C., 7 480 F. Supp. 2d 1318, 1325 (S.D. Fla. 2007) ("[S]tand-alone claims for negligent 8 infliction of emotional distress require a physical manifestation of emotional 9 injury.").

MALTZMAN & PARTNERS 681 ENCINTAS BOULEVARD, SUITE 315 ENCINITAS, CA 92024 TELEPHONE: (760) 942-9880 FAX: (760) 942-9882 10 Courts impose this physical-harm requirement because it "furnishes a
11 'guarantee of genuineness' to the fact-finder, thus limiting the prospects for a flood
12 of fraudulent claims." *Williams v. Carnival Cruise Lines, Inc.*, 907 F. Supp. 403,
13 407 (S.D. Fla. 1995); *see also Tassinari*, 480 F. Supp. 2d at 1325 (S.D. Fla. 2007)
14 (citing "the beneficial public policy of placing an objective and easily applied
15 restriction on frivolous claims").

16 Under this rule, minor physical consequences are not sufficient. See, e.g., 17 Williams v. Carnival Cruise Lines, Inc., 907 F. Supp. 403, 407 (S.D. Fla. 1995) 18 (plaintiffs could not recover even though they were in the zone of danger because 19 they "complain[ed] only of fear and/or seasickness which in most cases lasted no 20 more than a few days"); Ainsworth v. Penrod Drilling Co., 972 F.2d 546 (5th Cir. 21 1992) (barring recovery for emotional distress where the plaintiff suffered "trivial" injuries, including upset stomach, headache, and pulled muscles); Ellenwood v. 22 23 Exxon Shipping, 795 F. Supp. 31, 35 (D. Me. 1992) (loss of sleep and loss of 24 appetite insufficient).

Plaintiffs' Complaint contains no allegation of any physical manifestations of
their emotional distress, yet alone the serious and significant physical manifestation
which is required. As explained, such allegations are a prerequisite to stating a claim
for emotional distress, even when the plaintiff meets the zone of danger test (which

Plaintiffs here have not). Plaintiffs' allegations that they "are suffering from 1 2 emotional distress" and are "traumatized" from fear are exactly the sorts of 3 generalized allegations of fear and anxiety that courts have held are clearly 4 insufficient to support a claim for emotional distress. Supra; see, e.g., Williams v. 5 Carnival Cruise Lines, Inc., 907 F. Supp. 403, 407 (S.D. Fla. 1995). Thus, even if 6 Plaintiffs had adequately pled both that they contracted COVID-19 as a result of 7 Defendant's conduct and had pled facts sufficient to establish they were actually 8 within the zone of danger to contract the virus, their claims would nonetheless fail 9 for the separate reason that they have not adequately pled a physical manifestation 10 of their emotional distress.

D. Plaintiffs' Claims for Punitive Damages are Foreclosed as a Matter of Law and Should be Dismissed or Stricken

Finally, even if Plaintiffs' claims could go forward on the merits, Plaintiffs'
claims for punitive damages are foreclosed as a matter of law and should therefore
be dismissed under Rule 12(b)(6) or stricken under Rule 12(f).

16 The Supreme Court has recently clarified several important limitations on the 17 availability of punitive damages in maritime cases, all of which make clear that 18 punitive damages are unavailable in cases alleging only emotional distress—at least 19 where that distress is not intentionally inflicted. In *The Dutra Group v. Batterton*, 20 139 S. Ct. 2275 (2019), the Supreme Court set forth a framework for deciding when 21 punitive damages are available under general maritime law, and then applied that 22 framework to hold that punitive damages are unavailable in claims for 23 unseaworthiness. First, where there is no federal statute authorizing punitive 24 damages, courts must determine "whether punitive damages have traditionally been 25 awarded" in the category of case at issue. Id. at 2283. If they are not, then the 26 imposition of punitive damages is precluded. See Dunn v. Hatch, 792 F. App'x 449, 27 451 (9th Cir. 2019) (Batterton "held that punitive damages cannot be recovered on 28 claims in admiralty where there is no historical basis for allowing such damages").

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If the imposition of punitive damages would create "bizarre disparities in the law,"
 that further counsels against their availability. *Batterton*, 139 S. Ct. at 2287. And in
 determining whether to permit punitive damages, courts must proceed "cautiously in
 light of Congress's persistent pursuit of uniformity in the exercise of admiralty
 jurisdiction." *Id.* at 2278 (*Miles v. Apex Marine Corp.*, 498 U.S. 19, 27 (1986)).

Under this framework, Plaintiffs cannot recover punitive damages. While the 6 7 Ninth Circuit has occasionally upheld the imposition of punitive damages for certain 8 claims under general maritime law, see Churchill v. F/V Fjord, 892 F.2d 763, 772 9 (9th Cir. 1998), Defendant is aware of no binding precedent supporting the 10 imposition of punitive damages for negligently (even grossly negligently) inflicted 11 emotional distress. To the contrary, any "tradition" of punitive damages in maritime cases is limited to cases where the defendant's conduct is truly "outrageous"-cases 12 13 of "enormity or deplorable behavior." Dunn, 792 F. App'x at 452. And some courts 14 have held expressly that punitive damages are unavailable to "personal injury 15 claimants ... except in exceptional circumstances such as willful failure to furnish 16 maintenance and cure to a seaman (who are viewed as special wards of the court 17 requiring additional protection), intentional denial of a vessel owner to furnish a 18 seaworthy vessel to a seaman, and in those very rare situations of intentional 19 wrongdoing." In re Amtrak Sunset Ltd. Train Crash in Bayou Canot, Ala. on Sept. 20 22, 1993, 121 F.3d 1421, 1429 (11th Cir. 1997). As in *Batterton*, the absence of case 21 law supporting the availability of punitive damages in suits for negligently inflicted 22 emotional distress "is practically dispositive." Id. at 2284.

But even if the history of punitive damages under maritime law were more equivocal (which it is not), the imposition of punitive damages here would create the same "bizarre disparit[y] in the law" that demanded foreclosure of punitive damages in *Batterton*. The Court there noted that, if punitives were permitted for unseaworthiness claims, "a mariner could make a claim for punitive damages if he was *injured* onboard a ship, but," because of the Court's prior decision in *Miles*, "his

1 estate would lose the right to seek punitive damages if he *died* from his injuries." 2 139 S. Ct. at 2287 (emphasis added). The same disjoint would occur here, as the 3 Death on the High Seas Act (DOHSA) expressly forbids the imposition of punitive 4 damages for deaths caused by incidents more than three miles offshore. See 46 5 U.S.C. § 30303 (allowing damages only for "pecuniary loss"); Batterton, 139 S. Ct. at 2285 n.8. Under Plaintiffs' novel theory, passengers alleging exposure to a 6 7 disease on the high seas can freely recover punitive damages if they never 8 contracted the disease, and yet, if those same passengers died from the disease, 9 DOHSA would squarely bar their claim for punitive damages. To avoid that 10 arbitrary differential treatment, and to properly "pursue the policy expressed in congressional enactments" like DOHSA, punitive damages must be foreclosed. Id. 11 12 at 2281.

13 The policies that drive strict application of the zone of danger test in emotional-distress cases, see supra section III.B, further cement that punitive 14 15 damages cannot be available in cases involving emotional distress based on alleged 16 disease exposure. To the extent that liability *alone* did not create the "infinite and 17 unpredictable liability," Ayers, 538 U.S. at 146, the "stark unpredictability of 18 punitive awards," Exxon Shipping Co. v. Baker, 554 U.S. 471, 499 (2008), would 19 make that threat an unavoidable reality. The mere allegation that plaintiff might be 20 entitled to recover punitive damages will only further the flood of litigation that the 21 Supreme Court has so clearly warned against in fear of disease cases. The openended threat of punitive damages would encourage more frivolous fear of disease 22 23 cases and hobble "maritime commerce"-the "fundamental interest served by 24 federal maritime jurisdiction." *Batterton*, 139 S. Ct. at 2287.⁷

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⁷ Even if punitive damages were available, the Supreme Court has held that "under maritime law, the maximum ratio of punitive damages to compensatory damages is 1-1." *Exxon Valdez v. Exxon Mobil*, 568 F.3d 1077, 1079 (9th Cir. 2009). If this Court does not dismiss or strike the request for punitive damages altogether, the Court should limit Plaintiffs' damages accordingly.

V. **CONCLUSION** For the foregoing reasons, Defendant requests that the Court grant its motion to dismiss and to dismiss this case with prejudice. DATED: June 2, 2020 **MALTZMAN & PARTNERS** s/Jeffrey B. Maltzman By: Jeffrey B. Maltzman Edgar R. Nield Gabrielle De Santis Nield Rafaela P. Castells Attorneys for Defendant, Princess Cruise Lines Ltd.