# Legal Resource Guide for Start-up Entrepreneurs

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Guide to Starting a Corporation
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Guide to Starting a Corporation

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Introduction

This guide describes certain basic considerations and costs involved in forming a Delaware or California corporation. Although Delaware and California law are emphasized, the legal concepts are much the same in other states. One important tip is that you should avoid making business decisions in a vacuum. Instead, consider how a decision may impact future alternatives. For example, an improperly priced sale of common stock to founders immediately followed by a sale of preferred stock may result in a significant tax liability to the founders. Another example is that converting a limited liability company into a corporation immediately before the business is acquired, rather than at an earlier time, may prevent the transaction from being tax-free.

This guide is only an overview, particularly as to tax issues and cannot substitute for a professional advisor’s analysis and recommendations based on your individual fact situations when establishing your business.

A. Selecting the Form of Business Organization

No single factor is controlling in determining the form of business organization to select, but if the business is expected to expand rapidly, a corporation will usually be the best alternative because of the availability of employee incentive stock plans; ease of accommodating outside investment and greater long-term liquidity alternatives for shareholders. A corporation also minimizes potential personal liability if statutory formalities are followed. The characteristics of a corporation are described below, followed by an overview of other traditional forms of business organizations. Each of the following factors is described for comparison purposes: statutory formalities of creation, tax consequences, extent of personal liability of owners, ease of additional investment, liquidity, control and legal costs.

1. Corporation

A corporation is created by filing articles of incorporation with the Secretary of State in the state of incorporation. Corporate status is maintained by compliance with statutory formalities. A corporation is owned by its shareholders, governed by its Board of Directors who are elected by the shareholders and managed by its officers who are elected by the Board. A shareholder’s involvement in managing a corporation is usually limited to voting on extraordinary matters. In both California and Delaware, a corporation may have only one shareholder and one director. A president/CEO, chief financial officer/treasurer and secretary are the officer positions generally filled in a startup and, in fact, are required under California law. All officer positions may be filled by one person.

The reasons for using a Delaware corporation at startup are the ease of filings with the Delaware Secretary of State in financings and other transactions, a slight prestige factor in being a Delaware corporation and avoiding substantial reincorporation expenses later,
since many corporations which go public reincorporate in Delaware at the time of the IPO. Delaware corporate law benefits are of the most value to public companies. However, if the corporation’s primary operations and at least 50% of its shareholders are located in California, many provisions of California corporate law may be applicable to a private Delaware corporation and such a company would pay franchise taxes in both California and Delaware. These considerations may result in such a business choosing to incorporate in California instead of Delaware. Another reason for keeping it simple and using a California corporation is the current non-existent IPO market which makes an acquisition a more likely exit for a start-up.

There is more flexibility under Delaware law as to the required number of Board members. When a California corporation has two shareholders, there must be at least two Board members. When there are three or more shareholders, there must be at least three persons on the Board. Under Delaware law, there may be one director without regard for the number of stockholders. Most Boards stay lean and mean in number as long as possible to facilitate decision-making. Since the Board is the governing body of the corporation, when there are multiple board members, a party owning the majority of the shares can still be outvoted on the Board on important matters such as sales of additional stock and the election of officers. Removing a director involves certain risks even when a founder has the votes to do so. Thus, a founder’s careful selection of an initial Board is essential. You want board members whose judgment you trust (even if they disagree with you) and who can provide you with input you won’t get from the management team.

A corporation is a separate entity for tax purposes. Income taxed at the corporate level is taxed again at the shareholder level if any distribution is made in the form of a dividend. The S Corporation election described below limits taxation to the shareholder level but subjects all earnings to taxation whether or not distributed. The current maximum federal corporate tax rate is 35%. The California corporate income tax rate is 8.84% and the Delaware corporate income tax rate is 8.7% but Delaware income tax does not apply if no business is done in Delaware and only the statutory office is there. There is also a Delaware franchise tax on authorized capital which can be minimized at the outset but increases as the corporation has more assets.

If the business fails, the losses of the initial investment of up to $1 million in the aggregate (at purchase price value) of common and preferred stock (so-called “Section 1244 stock”) may be used under certain circumstances by shareholders to offset a corresponding amount of ordinary income in their federal income tax returns. An individual may deduct, as an ordinary loss, a loss on Section 1244 stock of up to $50,000 in any one year ($100,000 on a joint return).

If statutory formalities are followed, individual shareholders have personal liability only to the extent of their investment, i.e., what they paid for their shares. If the corporation is not properly organized and maintained, a court may “pierce the corporate veil” and impose liability on the shareholders. Both California and Delaware law permit corporations to limit the liability of their directors to shareholders under certain circumstances. The company can
raise additional capital by the sale and issuance of more shares of stock, typically preferred stock when an angel or venture capitalist is investing. Though rare, the power of a court to look through the corporation for liability underscores the importance of following proper legal procedures in setting up and operating your business.

Filing fees, other costs and legal fees through the initial organizational stage usually total about $3,500 to $5,000, with a Delaware corporation being at the high end of the range.

2. Sole Proprietorship
The simplest form of business is the “sole proprietorship,” when an individual operates a business on his own. The individual and the business are identical. No statutory filings are required if the sole proprietor uses his own name. If a different business name is used in California, a “fictitious business name” statement identifying the proprietor must be filed with the county clerk of the county where the principal place of business is located and published in the local legal newspaper. A sole proprietor has unlimited personal liability to creditors of his business and business income is taxed as his personal income. Because of the nature of this form of business, borrowing is the usual method of raising capital. The legal cost of forming a sole proprietorship is minimal.

3. General Partnership
When two or more individuals or entities operate a business together and share the profits, the enterprise is a “partnership.” Partnerships are either general partnerships or limited partnerships (described below). Although partners should have written partnership agreements which define each party’s rights and obligations, the law considers a venture of this type as a partnership whether or not there is a written agreement. No governmental filings are required for a general partnership. A partnership not documented by a written agreement is governed entirely by the versions of Uniform Partnership Act in effect in California and Delaware.

In the absence of an agreement to the contrary, each partner has an equal voting position in the management and control of the business. Each partner generally has unlimited liability for the debts of the partnership and is legally responsible for other partners’ acts on behalf of the business, whether or not a partner knows about such acts.

The partnership is a conduit for tax purposes: profits (even if not distributed) and losses flow through to the partners as specified in the partnership agreement. There is no federal tax at the entity level. Some partnerships contemplate raising additional capital, but accommodating future investment is not as easy as in a corporation. The legal cost of establishing a partnership is minimal if no formal written agreement is prepared but not having a written agreement may cause disputes over the economic benefits, intellectual property and assets of the partnership. The cost of preparing such an agreement begins at about $2,000 and depends on the number of partners, sophistication of the deal and other factors.
4. Limited Partnership
This is a partnership consisting of one or more general partners and one or more limited partners which is established in accordance with the California and Delaware versions of the Uniform Limited Partnership Act. Like the corporation, this entity has no legal existence until such filing occurs. The limited partnership is useful when investors contribute money or property to the partnership but are not actively involved in its business. The parties who actively run the business are the “general partners,” and the passive investors are the “limited partners.” So long as the limited partnership is established and maintained according to statutory requirements, and a limited partner does not take part in the management of the business, a limited partner is liable only to the extent of his investment. Like a general partnership, however, the general partners are personally responsible for partnership obligations and for each other’s acts on behalf of the partnership.

For tax purposes, both general partners and limited partners are generally treated alike. Income, gains and losses of the partnership “flow through” to them and affect their individual income taxes. A properly drafted limited partnership agreement apportions profits, losses and other tax benefits as the parties desire among the general partners and the limited partners, or even among various subclasses of partners subject to certain requirements imposed by U.S. tax law, i.e., the Internal Revenue Code (the “IRC”).

5. Limited Liability Company
This form of business organization is available in Delaware and California as well as many other states. It is essentially a corporation which is taxed like a partnership but without many of the S Corporation restrictions identified below. An LLC has fewer statutory formalities than a corporation and is often used for a several person consulting firm or other small business. An LLC does not provide the full range of exit strategies or liquidity options as does a corporation. It is not possible to grant stock option incentives to LLC employees in the same manner as a corporation. Further, an acquisition of an LLC generally may not be done on a tax-free basis and the expenses of formation are higher than for forming a corporation.

B. S Corporations
A corporation may be an “S corporation” and not subject to federal corporate tax if its shareholders unanimously elect S status for the corporation on a timely basis. “S corporation” is a tax law label; it is not a special type of corporation under state corporate law. Like a partnership, an S corporation is merely a conduit for profits and losses. Income is passed through to the shareholders and is generally taxed only once. Corporate level tax can apply in some circumstances to an S corporation that previously had been a “C” corporation for income tax purposes. Losses are also passed through to offset each shareholder’s income to the extent of his basis in his stock and any loans by the shareholder to the S corporation. The undistributed earnings retained in the corporation as working capital are taxed to a shareholder.
A corporation must meet certain conditions in order to be an S corporation, including the following: (1) it must be a U.S. corporation, (2) it must have no more than 100 shareholders, (3) each shareholder must be an individual, certain trusts, certain charitable organizations, employee stock ownership plans or pension plans, (4) no shareholder may be a nonresident alien, and (5) it can have only one class of stock outstanding (as opposed to merely being authorized). As a result, S corporation status will be terminated when a corporation sells preferred stock or sells stock to a venture capital partnership, corporation or to an off-shore investor.

California and Delaware recognizes the S corporation for state tax purposes, which may result in additional tax savings. California, however, imposes a corporate level tax of 1.5% on the S corporation’s income and nonresident shareholders must pay California tax on their share of the corporation’s California income. In addition, only C corporations and noncorporate investors are eligible for the Qualified Small Business Corporation capital gains tax break. The benefit of this tax break is that if the stock is held for at least 5 years, 50% of any gain on the sale or exchange of stock may be excluded from gross income. This benefit may not be as important because of the reduction in the capital gains tax rate.

C. Choosing a Business Name

The name selected must not deceive or mislead the public or already be in use or reserved. “Inc.,” “Corp.” or “Corporation” need not be a part of the name in California but must be part of a Delaware corporate name. Name availability must be determined on a state-by-state basis through the Secretary of State. A corporate name isn’t available for use in California merely because the business has been incorporated in Delaware. Several alternative names should be selected because so many businesses have already been formed. Corporate name reservation fees range from approximately $10-50 per state for a reservation period of 30-60 days. Exclusive state rights in a trade name can also be obtained indefinitely through the creation of a name-holding corporation, a corporation for which articles of incorporation are filed but no further organizational steps are taken.

D. Selecting the Location for the Business

This decision is driven by state tax considerations and operational need, for example, to be near customers or suppliers or in the center of a service territory. A privately-held corporation cannot avoid California taxes and may not be able to avoid the application of California corporate law if it is operating here and has most of its shareholders here. For example, Delaware law allows Board members to be elected for multiple year terms and on a staggered basis rather than on an annual basis. A privately held corporation, however, may be able to have the benefits of these Delaware laws or any other state’s corporate law if it is actually operating in California and more than 50% of its shareholders are here.
E. Qualifying to do Business in Another State

A corporation may need to open a formal or informal office in another state at or near the time of founding. This requires a “mini” incorporation process in each such state. If a California business is incorporated in Delaware it must qualify to do business in California. The consequences of failing to do so range from fines to not being able to enforce contracts entered in that state. The cost of qualifying is approximately $1,000 per state. Some states, like Nevada, also charge a fee based on authorized stock, so the fee could be higher in such states.

F. Initial Capital Structure

1. Structure
The capital structure should be kept as simple as possible and be within a range of “normalcy” to a potential outside investor for credibility purposes. A common initial structure is to authorize 10 million shares of common stock and 4 million shares of preferred stock. Not all authorized shares of common stock are sold at the founding stage. After initial sales to founders, there are usually only about 3-5 million shares issued and outstanding and about 1-2 million shares reserved in the equity incentive plan. This is referred to as the “1X model” below.

While at the outset there may not seem to be any difference between owning 100 shares or 1 million shares, a founder should purchase all of the units of stock he desires at the time of founding. Thereafter, a founder will generally lose control over further issuances and stock splits, particularly once a venture capital financing occurs. In addition, the purchase price will usually increase.

The number of shares issued and reserved in the initial capital structure are driven by a desire to avoid a later reverse stock split at the time of an IPO because of excess dilution. The number of shares outstanding at the time of an IPO is driven by company valuation at IPO, the amount to be raised in the IPO and IPO price per share range (usually $10 to $15). The “pattern” for the business value at the time of the IPO can be reached by forward or reverse stock splits. For example, if a corporation has a market valuation at IPO time of $200 million, it would not be feasible for 40 million shares to be outstanding. A reverse stock split is needed. Reverse stock splits reduce the number of shares held. On the other hand, forward stock splits add shares to holdings. Neither changes the percentage ownership, but seeing the number of shares held decrease because of a reverse split is still hard on employee morale.

Because of the great demand for engineers during the Internet bubble, many corporations used a multiple of this 1X model in order to have more equity units available for employees. The immediate need for employees to increase the possibility of business success outweighed the potential consequence of a later reverse stock split. Currently, most startups use a 1X or 2X model to avoid excessive dilution.
2. Minimum Capital
Neither Delaware nor California law require a minimum amount of money to be invested in a corporation at the time of founding. The initial amount of capital, however, must be adequate to accomplish the purpose of the startup business in order for shareholders not to have personal liability. For example, a corporation which will serve only as a sales representative for products or a consulting operation requires less capital than a distributor or dealer who will stock an inventory of products. A dealership or distributorship will require less capital than a manufacturing operation.

3. Legal Consideration
A corporation must sell its shares for legal consideration, i.e., cash, property, past services or promissory notes under some circumstances. A founder who transfers technology or other property (but not services) to a corporation in exchange for stock does not recognize income at the time of the transfer (as a sale of such property) under IRC Section 351 if the parties acquiring shares at the same time for property (as opposed to services) own at least 80% of the shares of the corporation after the transfer. Because of this limitation, Section 351 is generally available at the time of founding but not later. Since a party who exchanges past or future services for stock must recognize income in the amount of the value of the stock in the tax year in which the stock is received, it is the prefered practice to issue the shares at a low valuation for cash or property.

4. Valuation
The per share value at the time of founding is determined by the cash purchases of stock and the number of shares issued. For example, if one founder buys stock in exchange for technology and the other founder buys a 50% interest for cash, the value of the technology and the fair market value per share is dictated by the cash purchase since its monetary value is certain. Sales of the same class of stock made at or about the same time must be at the same price or the party purchasing at the lower price may have to recognize income on the difference.

Thereafter, value is determined by sales between a willing seller and buyer or by the Board of Directors based on events and financial condition. Value must be established by the Board at the time of each sale of stock or grant of a stock option. Successful events cause value to increase. Such determinations are subjective and there is no single methodology for determining current fair market value. There are pitfalls of hedging on the timing of forming corporation to save on expenses. The longer the delay in incorporating, the more difficult it is to keep the founders price at a nominal level if a financing or other value event is imminent.

A general objective is to keep the value of common stock as low as possible as long as possible to provide greater stock incentives to attract and keep key employees. Tax and state corporate laws generally require option grants to be made at current fair market value. IRC Section 409A has increased the diligence needed in determining pricing for stock option grants.
5. Use of Debt
Loans may also be used to fund a corporation. For example, if a consulting business is initially capitalized with $20,000, half of it could be a loan and the remaining $10,000 used to purchase common stock. Using debt enables the corporation to deduct the interest payments on the debt, makes the repayment of the investment tax free and gives creditor status to the holder of the debt. If a corporation is too heavily capitalized with shareholder's loans, as opposed to equity (usually up to a 3:1 debt/equity ratio is acceptable), however, these loans may be treated as additional equity for tax and other purposes. Debts owed to shareholders may be treated as contributions to capital or a second class of shares and subordinated to debts of other creditors. Eligibility for S corporation status is lost if a loan is characterized as a second class of shares.

6. Vesting and Rights of First Refusal
Shares sold to founders are usually subject to vesting and rights of first refusal in order to keep founders on the corporate team and to maintain control over ownership of the corporation. Grants of options under an equity incentive plan also have such “stickiness” restrictions. Such safeguards are essential to securing a venture capital investment. By designing and implementing a reasonable vesting scheme themselves, founders may forestall an investor from doing so on the investor's terms. Vesting also assures investors that the founders and others are committed to the corporation and not just looking for a quick pay day. The corporation typically retains the option to repurchase unvested shares at the initial purchase price at the time of termination of a shareholder's employment. Vesting usually occurs over 4 years, i.e., if the employee remains employed by the corporation for the entire period, all shares become “vested” and the repurchase option ends. A common pattern is for 25% of the shares to vest after 12 months and the remainder to vest monthly over the next 36 months. Vesting is implemented by stock purchase agreements. An IRC Section 83(b) election must be filed with the Internal Revenue Service by a party buying unvested shares within 30 days of the date of purchase in order to prevent taxable income at the times such shares vest.

A right of first refusal is the corporation's option to repurchase shares when a third party makes an offer to purchase shares. This type of restriction can be used by itself or as a backup to the repurchase option to maintain control over stock ownership once vesting occurs. The corporation may repurchase the shares on the same terms as the offer by the third party. Rights of first refusal are implemented by stock purchase agreements, including under stock option plans, or in the corporation's bylaws. Rights of first refusal (but not rights of repurchase on termination of employment) terminate upon an IPO or acquisition.

G. Sales of Securities
Offers and sales of stock in a corporation, certain promissory notes and loans, certain partnership interests and other securities are subject to the requirements of the Securities Act of 1933, a federal law, and of state securities laws, so-called “Blue Sky” laws. While some state laws are preempted by federal securities laws in some cases, an offer or sale
of securities in multiple states generally requires compliance with each state's law. The general rule under these laws is that full disclosure must be made to a prospective investor and that registration or qualification of the transaction with appropriate governmental authorities must occur prior to an offer or sale. An investor can demand its money back if securities laws are not followed. There are also severe civil and criminal penalties for material false statements and omissions made by a business or its promoters in offering or selling securities. Legal opinions regarding exemptions are not possible if securities are sold without regard for such laws. An opinion may be required in venture capital investments or an acquisition.

Exemptions from the registration and qualification requirements are usually available for offers and sales to founders, venture capitalists and foreign parties but offers and sales to other potential investors, even employees, are not legally possible without time consuming and expensive compliance with such laws. State laws have relatively simple exemptions for option grants and stock issuances under a formal equity incentive plan, which is why a plan should be the source of equity for employees and consultants.

The stock purchased in a sale exempt from federal registration and state qualification requirements will not be freely transferable. In addition to contractual restrictions, resales must satisfy federal and state law requirements. Shareholder liquidity occurs through Securities and Exchange Commission Rules 144 or 701, an IPO, other public offerings or other exempt sales.
Venture Capital for High Technology Companies
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Venture Capital for High Technology Companies

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Introduction

Founding your own high-growth, high technology company, financing it with venture capital and successfully bringing a product to market is a challenging experience. Entrepreneurs are dynamic people, motivated by their vision of a unique product concept and the drive to make that product a successful reality. Because founding a successful high tech company is so different from working in a large company, many new entrepreneurs are unfamiliar with the legal issues involved in creating a high tech start-up.

This booklet introduces new entrepreneurs to a variety of legal and strategic issues relating to founding and financing a start-up company, including determining your product and market, assembling the right founding team, choosing your legal structure, making initial stock issuances to founders, obtaining seed financing, negotiating the terms of your venture financing and the pros and cons of being acquired or taking your company public.

At the end of the booklet, we provide two Appendices. The first Appendix offers a set of financing scenarios that illustrate typical amounts of venture capital raised, company valuations at different stages of a company’s existence and how ownership changes over time — first with a company that is successful and second with a company that undergoes a “down round” of financing. The second Appendix is a sample Series B Preferred Stock Term Sheet, illustrating the type of provisions you might see requested by a venture capitalist.

Of course, no two companies are identical and, accordingly, not all issues encountered are discussed, nor will every start-up face all of the issues discussed below. However, they are typical of the start-up companies Fenwick represents.

The following are other available Fenwick booklets:

- Acquiring and Protecting Technology: The Intellectual Property Audit
- Annual Update: International Legal Protection for Software
- Copyright Protection for High Technology Companies
- Corporate Partnering for High Technology Companies
- International Distribution for High Technology Companies
- Mergers and Acquisitions for High Technology Companies
- Patent Protection for High Technology Companies
- Patent Licensing for High Technology Companies
- Structuring Effective Earnouts
- Trademark Selection and Protection for High Technology Companies
- Trade Secrecy: A Practical Guide for High Technology Companies
Typical Start-Up Questions

What is “vesting”? “Vesting” requires founders to earn their stock over time. The company retains aright to buy back unvested stock at the original purchase price on termination of employment. In contrast to founders stock, stock options typically become exercisable as they vest.

Why do I want vesting? Vesting protects founders who remain with the company from an ex-founder becoming wealthy on their efforts if that ex-founder quits before he or she has earned his or her stock. Venture capitalists require vesting as a condition to funding your company.

How do I avoid tax liability on the receipt or vesting of founders’ stock? Incorporate early and issue founders’ stock at a low price to the founding team before you bring in outside investors. File your 83(b) election with the IRS within 30 days of purchase.

How are venture financings structured? Companies sell convertible preferred stock to outside investors. Employees continue to buy common stock at a fraction of the price paid by the outside investors. The price differential starts at 10 to 1 and then declines as the company nears an IPO or acquisition.

What do I have to give away in negotiations with venture capitalists? Typical deals include basic preferred stock liquidation and dividend preferences, weighted average antidilution protection and registration rights. You’ll also have to agree to certain restrictions on how you run your company. Actual terms will vary depending on the quality of your company and the current financing environment.

What should I try to avoid in negotiations with venture capitalists? Avoid ratchet antidilution protection, mandatory redemption, redemption premiums, super liquidation preferences and excessive restrictions on how you run your company.

How do I protect my technology? Use nondisclosure and assignment of invention agreements and consider patent, trademark, trade secret and copyright protection at an early stage.

How do I choose a lawyer? Choose one with substantial start-up experience working with your type of business. It is also helpful if the lawyer’s firm has the intellectual property, corporate and securities laws, domestic and international tax and litigation expertise that your company will need as it grows.
Threshold Issues When Starting Your Business

**Identifying a Market Need**
The first step in starting your new business venture is to identify a market need and the product or service that will meet that need. Too often, high tech products and businesses are launched because the founders become fascinated by their new technology without first determining whether the technological advance will cost-effectively meet customers’ needs. Your products and services should be defined and shaped in response to real problems being experienced by real customers. In tough markets, you may have to show customer acceptance of your product or revenue in order to raise venture capital or angel funding.

**Product Definition**
You must determine the competitive edge that will make your proposed product preferable to comparable products currently used in the target market. Will your product accomplish the job faster, or be easier to use, more reliable and cheaper to produce or service? Will these advantages be long- or short-term? Critically evaluate your plan to ensure that your technological advances will provide cost-effective and reliable solutions to the customer’s problem or fill new market requirements and will allow your company to become profitable.

**Market Evaluation**
Once you have defined your product in terms of a market need, you should evaluate that market. What types of customers will need the benefits your product offers over competing products? Is it a product that will be used by individuals, by small businesses, by Fortune 500 companies, by the government or by foreign customers? The customer base frequently dictates the distribution channels best used to reach your customers. A direct sales force may be required to reach the Fortune 500 market, while a low-priced consumer product generally will be sold through retail distribution or for end-use software via Internet downloads. How large is the market today and how large will it be in five years? A large and growing potential market is essential to obtaining venture capital. Most venture capitalists look for companies that can become profitable and attain at least $100 million a year in revenues in the next 10 years (possibly longer for bioscience companies). Knowing your customer base is a prerequisite to knowing what skills, experience base and connections you will need from your founding team and advisors.

**Capital Needs**
Once you have assessed your product and its market, you should determine the capital needed to fund its development and commercial exploitation. To avoid excessive dilution, the best approach is to stage the capital raised by development milestones, making sure that you raise enough money at each stage to attain your milestone with some cushion. Milestones met reduce investment risk and increase the company’s valuation. Milestones missed increase investment risk and reduce the company’s valuation. You also need to evaluate how quickly you want to grow the company and what capital would be needed for
slow and fast growth scenarios. Finally, consider currently available sources of capital and their expected financing terms and rates of return on their investment. Your company’s capital needs will be a fundamental issue for investors, and should be presented clearly in the company’s business plan.

Recruiting Your Team

Composition of the Team
After you have defined the product, its market and the skills needed to bring the product to market, the next step is to put together a founding team. The people you select to make up the founding team are vital to the success of the company. While you may not be comfortable with sharing control of ideas and profits with others, your success will depend on recognizing your strengths and weaknesses early on and recruiting people with skills to complement your own. Ideally, a well-rounded founding team should include the following key managers:

- Chief Executive Officer
- Vice President of Research and Development
- Vice President(s) of Sales and/or Marketing
- Chief Financial Officer/VP Administration

Quality Leadership
You may not be able to recruit all the members of your founding team at once. Take time to recruit the best possible people who are experienced at doing the things your business will need to succeed. Be realistic about your own skills. If you have not had direct experience in managing and growing an organization, recruit a strong CEO who knows how to build a company and translates ideas into successful products. Your ability to obtain funding and the ultimate success of your business depends on the excellence of the people you recruit for your founding team.

Inexperienced key managers in a start-up are more likely to fail and need to be replaced as the company grows. Hiring key replacements is disruptive to your organization and will result in additional dilution of the ownership interests of the original founders. The percentage of the company that the founders will be able to retain is a direct function of their ability to handle key management roles well throughout the company’s growth. The financing scenario at the end of this booklet, which shows the founders retaining 22 percent of the company’s stock at the initial public offering, assumes a strong founding team in a company needing relatively little outside capital. A weaker team or one that requires larger capital infusions could retain less than 3-5 percent of the company’s equity by the initial public offering.

Board of Directors
In addition to recruiting your founding team, you will need to recruit people to serve on your company’s board of directors. The board of directors is the governing body of the
corporation, owing fiduciary duties to all shareholders. It elects the company’s officers and approves all major decisions. The board takes action by majority vote.

As a result, a founder-CEO-director, who owns a majority of the shares, can still be outvoted on the board on such important matters as sales of additional stock and the election of officers. Thus, careful selection of an initial board is essential. You want board members whose judgment you trust (even if they disagree with you) and who can provide you with input and resources not available from your management team. You might also consider recruiting industry experts to serve on an advisory board to assist you with technology and marketing issues.

Legal Structure
The next step is selecting the legal structure for your company. You have a choice among the following structures:

- Proprietorship
- Partnership or LLC
- Corporation
- S Corporation

Although most high tech companies are corporations, it is sometimes preferable to organize your business as a proprietorship or partnership. Before choosing your legal structure, consult with legal and accounting advisors. The following summary can help you select the right structure for your business.

Proprietorship
A proprietorship is simple. You own your own business. You and your business are considered one and the same — there is no legal distinction. All income received by the business is taxable to the individual proprietor, and the proprietor has unlimited liability for all obligations and debts of the business. Although this structure is not recommended for high-growth companies, it may be beneficial for inventors who wish to license their technology for royalties. Typically, an inventor will pay far less income tax as a proprietorship than as a corporation.

Partnership
In a partnership, two or more people operate a business together and divide the profits.

General Partnership: In a general partnership, any partner can bind all other partners for actions within the scope of the partnership’s business. All partners have equal management rights and unlimited liability for partnership obligations.

Limited Partnership: In a limited partnership, there are two types of partners, passive and active. The passive or limited partners have no say in day-to-day management. Their liability,
like that of shareholders in a corporation, is limited to their investment in the partnership. The active or general partners act as they would in a general partnership.

In both types of partnerships, profits and losses can be allocated among the partners in varying ways and are taxable to the partners when recognized by the partnership. The ability to allocate initial losses to limited partners, within IRS limits, makes partnerships attractive for financing tax-advantaged research and development transactions. While investors in a corporation generally cannot deduct money invested until the stock is sold or becomes worthless, partners can currently deduct their share of a partnership’s losses. Limited liability companies (LLCs) are similar to limited partnerships, but are typically inappropriate for fast growth companies since, unlike corporations, they do not easily accommodate employee option plans and a corporation cannot do a tax-deferred acquisition of an LLC.

**Corporation**
The most common structure used by high tech companies is the corporation.

A corporation is a legal entity that is separate from the people who own and operate it. The shareholders own the corporation and elect a Board of Directors. The Board of Directors governs the corporation and appoints the officers who manage its day-to-day business.

A corporation pays income tax on its income, while its shareholders generally pay income tax only on dividends received. Shareholder liability for corporate obligations is generally limited to their investment in their shares.

One advantage of a corporation is that it can have different classes of stock with different rights. In addition to common stock, it can create and sell preferred stock, having preferences over the common stock. The preferences justify selling common stock to employees who provide “sweat equity” in the business at a substantial discount from the price paid by outside investors for the preferred stock. If your company will need substantial capital, intends to grow rapidly and/or will have substantial numbers of employees requiring equity incentives, you should probably incorporate.

**S Corporation**
If you won’t seek venture capital immediately, but want a corporate structure, you should consider electing to be treated as an S corporation. An S corporation is treated much like a partnership for tax purposes. Corporate income and losses will pass through to the shareholders, enabling the founders to offset their other personal income with the corporation’s initial losses.

There are strict rules regarding S corporations. An S corporation can have only one class of outstanding shares and no more than 75 shareholders. Shareholders must be U.S. resident individuals or trusts (not partnerships or corporations). These rules make it impractical for
most high-growth start-ups to remain S corporations. For example, upon the sale of common stock to a corporate investor or a venture capital partnership or the sale of preferred stock to any investor, S corporation status will automatically be lost. You can, however, start as an S corporation and later elect to be treated as a C (or normal) corporation.

**Initial Stock Issuances to the Founders**
If you select the corporation as your form of business entity, the next step is to incorporate the company and issue stock to the founders. You will need to consider stock valuation, income tax considerations, vesting and buy-back rights, the availability of seed financing and compliance with securities laws.

**How do You Value Founders' Stock?**
It is often difficult to estimate the value of a start-up since it has no business or earnings history. Typically, there is no readily ascertainable value for the stock issued, so founders’ stock is usually issued at a nominal price, such as $0.001 per share, paid in cash. However, if you or other founders contribute property or rights to previously existing technology or inventions, you must value the property contributed in exchange for the stock.

It is important to make founders’ stock issuances as early as possible to avoid potential adverse income tax consequences. If stock is issued to employees at a low price at the same time that it is issued to outside investors at a higher price, the IRS will treat the difference between the two prices as taxable compensation to the employee.

**How do Founders Avoid Income Tax Liability?**
There are several ways to avoid income tax on founders’ shares when selling equity to other investors.
- Issue the founders’ stock early and allow time to pass before issuing stock to outside investors at a higher price.
- Create value in your company between the issuance of founders’ stock and issuances to investors. You can create such value by writing a business plan, creating a product prototype or signing a letter of intent with a prospective customer.
- Create a two-tiered capital structure of common and preferred stock. Preferred stock preferences justify charging outside investors a higher price than employees who purchase common stock.

**Vesting Schedules and Buy-Back Rights**
Because founders buy their initial equity at a nominal price, they should “earn” their stock over a “vesting” period based on their continued service to the company. A typical vesting arrangement would provide that shares vest over four years, with no shares vesting in the first year of employment, 25 percent of the shares vesting at the end of that year, with two percent of the shares vesting monthly thereafter. Since there is a risk of job loss in an
acquisition, some vesting arrangements accelerate the founders’ vesting by 12 months or more if the company is acquired.

Your company should retain the right to repurchase an employee’s unvested shares at the original purchase price on termination of employment. A minority of companies also retain the right to repurchase vested shares on termination of employment at the then-current fair market value of the company’s stock although that has adverse accounting implications. In addition, most private companies retain a right of first refusal on shareholder resales of their stock, primarily to keep stock from falling into unfriendly hands.

**Why Have Vesting and Buy-Back Rights?**

Vesting is important, even though many founders dislike it. Best intentions notwithstanding, all the original members of a founding team may not remain with the company. Some conflict may arise causing one or more team members to leave the venture. If this happens in a company without vesting, enormous resentment results towards the ex-founders who keep their stock and “free-ride” on the efforts of those who continue to build the company.

With vesting and buy-back provisions, an ex-founder is allowed to keep only those shares that vested during his or her tenure. This is more fair and reflects the ex-founder’s actual contribution to the company’s success.

On a more pragmatic note, if you and the other founders do not impose vesting, the venture capitalists will. Since venture capitalists generally bring the first substantial capital to most start-ups, they will insist that the founders earn the value contributed by the financing over a standard-vesting period before they invest.

**What is an 83(b) Election?**

Whenever your company reserves the right to buy back stock at the original purchase price on termination of your employment, you should consider filing a Section 83(b) election with the IRS. By filing this election, you, as the purchaser, are electing to be taxed immediately on the difference between the fair market value of the stock and the price you paid for it. If you paid fair market value for the stock, then you will not pay any taxes as a result of the election.

If you do not file a Section 83(b) election within 30 days of your stock purchase, you will be taxed on each vesting date on the difference between the fair market value of the shares vesting on that date and the price paid for them. That difference could be substantial if the company’s stock value substantially appreciates, and the tax may be payable before the shares can be sold.

**How do you Protect Your Company’s Technology?**

Next to your people, your company’s inventions and technology may be its most precious assets. A few simple steps are necessary to protect that technology. If the founders have
developed technology prior to incorporating the company, have them assign the intellectual property rights to the company. From the very beginning, all company employees should sign the company’s standard form of confidentiality and assignment of inventions agreement. Have third parties sign a nondisclosure agreement before giving them access to your confidential technology. Consult competent intellectual property counsel to find out if your technology qualifies for copyright or patent protection. Rights can be lost if notice and filing requirements are not met in a timely fashion. Consult trademark counsel before you select your company, product and domain names to find out if they infringe someone else’s trademarks and to take the steps necessary to obtain exclusive rights to those names. (See the Fenwick booklets on Copyright, Trade Secrecy, Trademark and Patent Protection for a detailed discussion of these issues.)

Preparing a Business Plan

A business plan is an excellent tool for planning your business and assessing your performance. It also can help sell your company to potential investors. The time invested in developing a good business plan will have major long-term returns.

The business plan should be no more than 25 to 30 pages long. It should be prefaced by a two-page “executive summary” highlighting the following topics that should be set forth in greater detail in the actual business plan:

- Company description, location, and history;
- Product(s) to be developed and underlying technology;
- Size and growth rate of the market;
- Competition;
- Company’s competitive advantage;
- Management team;
- Financial summary of projected revenues and income, balance sheets and cash flow statements for five years, with monthly detail for the first two years and
- Amount and structure of the proposed financing.

The bulk of the business plan should focus on the issues the venture capitalists are most interested in: the size and growth rate of the market, your targeted customers, competitors and your competitive advantage and the background of the management team. The business plan should not be a technical treatise on product development or market analysis. You should address these issues, of course, but it is preferable to compile an appendix to the business plan containing that information to be provided to investors who show serious interest. If you have never written a business plan, consult some of the detailed materials provided by many major accounting firms. Before presenting it to the venture capitalists, have it reviewed by counsel experienced in venture capital investments.
Seed Financing

What is Seed Financing?
Some founding teams with strong track records can raise venture capital without a business plan or a product prototype. Most people, however, find it necessary to seek a small amount of “seed” money from friends, relatives, angels or “seed round” venture capitalists. This seed money is used to support the fledgling company while a business plan is written or a product prototype is developed.

Where can you Find Seed Money?
Obtaining capital from outside investors during the early stages of your company’s development may be difficult. Since only small amounts of money are usually required at this early stage, friends and family may be a realistic source of seed money. Accept money only from those who are sophisticated enough to understand the risk and who can afford to lose their investment. Doing so helps you comply with securities laws and maintain good relations if your company does not succeed.

Few start-ups can obtain seed money from the venture capital community. For an as yet unproven start-up, it can take six to eighteen months to build venture capital contacts, educate them about your product idea and convince them of the strength of your founding team.

Given these difficulties, it may be better for your start-up to try to attract “angels” or “advisory investors,” such as a successful entrepreneur with self-generated wealth in a related industry. This type of investor will understand the merits and weaknesses of your business idea. More important still, these investors can be invaluable in helping you pull together the company and in introducing you to the venture community.

Compliance with Securities Laws
Although your company’s initial resources will probably be limited, you must comply with federal and state securities laws when issuing stock or granting employee stock options. At a minimum, noncompliance gives purchasers a rescission right that can compel your company to refund the entire purchase price of the stock. You and your company might also be subject to fines and criminal liability. Meeting the legal requirements is not necessarily expensive if you have competent legal counsel to advise you before you offer to sell the stock. Exemptions from the costly process of registration with the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) will usually be available if you are careful in selecting the investors to whom you offer the securities and in making the offer. Filings with federal and state securities agencies may also be required.
What do the Venture Capitalists Want?
Most venture capitalists are looking for a company that can be profitable and grow to at least $100 million or more in revenues in 10 years (possibly more for bioscience companies). They are looking for large and growing markets where there is a demonstrable need for the product the company plans to develop. Many venture capitalists say that they would rather take a technology risk (can the product be developed?) than a market risk (will people want the product?). Technology risks are generally eliminated earlier when the capital needed and the company’s valuation are less, while market risks will not be eliminated until after the product has been completed and introduced into the market. Venture capitalists also tend to “invest in people” rather than in ideas or technologies. Hence the strength of the management team is the most crucial element in raising money.

Financing — the First Round

How Should you Select a Venture Capitalist?
Selecting the right venture capitalist is as important as picking the right founding team. Take the time to talk to the venture capitalist to ensure that you can work well together. Look for someone who knows your industry. An ideal candidate would be someone who knows your product or market and is located close enough to your company to be available when you need help. It is also important as you launch your business to get people who have the depth and breadth of experience that you may initially lack.

If chosen correctly, venture capitalists can provide a wealth of information on management techniques, problem solving and industry contacts. They also can offer a broader perspective on your product’s market fit, as well as additional funding as your company grows.

If, on the other hand, a venture capitalist is incorrectly chosen, you may find that the capital invested is tied to needless operating restrictions and monthly headaches at board meetings where you will regularly be asked why you are not “on plan.” Where funding is available from several venture firms, ask the CEOs of their portfolio companies about their experience with the respective venture capitalists.

How do you Find Venture Capitalists?
There are many sources of basic information about venture capital firms. Some of the published sources include Pratt’s Guide to Venture Capital Sources and the Directory of the Western Association of Venture Capitalists. Venture One has the best database on venture capitalists and the companies they fund. Through it you can find out which venture capital firms invested in similar companies and which partners of those firms sit on their Boards of Directors. While this database is not available to the public, most major law firms with a startup focus have licenses to it.
The best way for you to meet venture capital investors is to be introduced to them through successful entrepreneurs who have been funded by them. Other good sources include lawyers, accountants and bankers who focus in working with high tech companies. If at all possible, make sure that you are introduced or have your business plan forwarded to the venture capitalist by one of these people. While your business plan has to stand on its own merits, an introduction from a credible source can ensure it more than a cursory review and can result in useful feedback if the venture capitalist decides not to invest.

**How Much Money Should you Raise?**

In the first round of venture capital financing, you should try to raise a sufficient amount of capital to fund product development. The business plan usually will set a demonstrable risk-reducing milestone, such as having a working product ready for production. Given the seemingly inevitable delays in product development and the time it takes to arrange the next round of financing (at least two to six months), you should build some cushion into the amount you raise.

**How Much is Your Company Worth?**

Determining the value of your company at this early stage is more of a “mystic art” than a calculated formula. In theory, investors attempt to estimate the value of the company at some time in the future (say 10 to 20 times earnings in year five). They then discount that value to a present value with a desired rate of return. If the investor is looking for a tenfold return in five years and the company is expected to be worth $50 million in five years, it may be worth $5 million today.

In practice, however, venture capitalists seem to estimate the amount of cash required to achieve some development milestone and, often without regard to how much that is, equate that amount to 50 to 60 percent of the company (fully diluted for employee shares — see Employee Stock Plans below). The best way to find out how your company is likely to be valued is to look at what valuations venture capitalists are giving to other companies at the same development stage and in the same general market area.

Venture Capitalists will give your company a “pre-money” valuation based on its stage of development. Your pre-money valuation is the price per share that they are offering you times all of the outstanding stock, options and pool reserved for future employees. When discussing a pre-money valuation, remember to clarify the size of pool contemplated by the venture capitalists. Adequate shares for one year is typical. After the venture funding, your “post money” valuation is easy to determine. Just multiply the fully diluted outstanding capital of your company by the price per share paid by the last round investors.
The Structure of a Typical Venture Financing

Why Have Preferred Stock?
Companies typically sell convertible preferred stock to venture investors at a substantial premium over the price charged to the founders or the seed investors. At a minimum, the preferred stock gives the investors a liquidation preference in the event the company fails or is acquired. In addition, they usually obtain certain other preferential rights over the holders of common stock. From your company's point of view, these preferences justify a fair market value differential between the preferred stock and the common stock. This enables your company to continue to sell common stock to your employees at a lower price than is paid by the preferred investors.

Typical Preferred Stock Preferences
There are six basic types of preferences granted to preferred stock.

**Liquidation Preference.** Upon liquidation of the company, the preferred stock has the right to receive a fixed-dollar amount before any assets can be distributed to the holders of common stock. Typically, the liquidation preference is the purchase price plus accrued but unpaid dividends. A “participating” preferred stock also participates with the common stock in the distribution of any assets left after payment of the liquidation preference. In addition to actual liquidations, venture capitalists also want to receive their liquidation preference on a company merger. This provision will give the preferred shareholders the right to receive at least their original investment back in the event of a merger and sometimes a multiple return on their money before the common shareholders will participate.

**Dividend Preference.** Most preferred stock is given a dividend preference over the common stock. There are two types of dividend preferences. A “when, as and if declared, noncumulative” dividend preference means that the company cannot declare dividends on the common stock until a specified dividend is paid on the preferred stock. By contrast, a “mandatory, cumulative” dividend preference is more like an interest provision, since it requires the company to set aside and pay dividends on the preferred stock at a designated rate. Most high tech companies do not pay dividends, and by agreeing to mandatory, cumulative dividends you may adversely affect your company’s cash flow and put it at a competitive disadvantage. Mandatory dividends are not frequently used, but if they are, it is usually in conjunction with mandatory redemption by investors.

**Redemption.** There are two kinds of redemption provisions. An “optional” redemption provision lets the company repurchase or redeem the preferred stock at its purchase price plus a redemption premium. The company can thus force the preferred stock to convert to common stock or face redemption. A “mandatory” redemption provision lets the investors require the company to repurchase the investors’ preferred stock at its purchase price plus a redemption premium. Investors may want the right to recover their initial investment, plus a
profit, if the company fails to meet expectations. Companies dislike mandatory redemption because the investment is more like debt than equity. Under current tax rules, excessive redemption premiums can result in imputed income to the holder of the preferred stock even if the premium is never paid by the company. To avoid this problem, it is prudent to follow the IRS safe harbor provisions by limiting any redemption premium to 1/4 percent per year.

**Conversion Rights.** Preferred stock issued in venture financings is almost always convertible into common stock at the holder’s option. There is also a provision for automatic conversion upon the initial public offering of the company’s stock or upon the vote of a majority of the preferred stock. To encourage investors to support the company when it is forced to raise money at a lower price than its previous round, you could have a provision that automatically converts preferred stock to common if the holder declines to purchase his or her pro rata share of a lower priced offering. This is referred to as a “pay to play” provision. Another form of “pay to play” provision will have such holder’s shares automatically convert to a “shadow” preferred — identical to the original series of preferred, but without antidilution protection. Typically, the preferred stock will be initially convertible on a one-to-one ratio. The conversion ratio is actually calculated by taking the original purchase price and dividing it by the conversion price. The initial conversion price is normally the original purchase price. The conversion ratio is adjusted for dilutive events or issuances, as discussed in Antidilution Protection below.

**Antidilution Protection.** Convertible preferred stock always contains provisions protecting it against dilution from stock splits and stock dividends, sometimes called “event protection.” Frequently, there are also provisions protecting it against future sales of stock at lower prices, called “price protection.” The most common price protection and that are most favorable to your company is a “weighted-average” adjustment of the conversion price. The weighted-average formula adjusts the conversion price by means of a weighted formula based upon both the sale price and number of shares sold. There are two types of weighted average antidilution: “broad based” and “narrow based.” Broad-based protection includes preferred and options as well and stock dividends, sometimes called “event protection.” Frequently, there are also provisions protecting it against future sales of stock at lower prices, called “price protection.” The most common price protection and that are most favorable to your company is a “weighted-average” adjustment of the conversion price. The weighted-average formula adjusts the conversion price by means of a weighted formula based upon both the sale price and number of shares sold. There are two types of weighted average antidilution: “broad based” and “narrow based.”

Broad-based protection includes preferred and options as well as common stock in the calculation and will result in a smaller adjustment if there is a “down” round of financing. Narrow-based protection may exclude options or the preferred and is less favorable to the company. If the investors think they are paying too much for the preferred, they may insist on “ratchet” antidilution protection, which drops the conversion price to the most recent
lower price at which stock was sold, regardless of how many shares were sold at that price. This protects investors who decline to participate in lower-priced offerings. The second scenario in Appendix A illustrates the effect of antidilution protection as converted to common-percentage stock ownership. In both cases, you should ensure that employee stock issuances and stock issued in mergers and lease financings are excluded from the definition of “dilutive issuances.” Some venture capitalists won’t include price-based antidilution protection so as to put more pressure on investors to support the company in bad times.

**Voting Rights.** Preferred stock typically votes with the common stock, on an “as if converted” into common stock basis. In addition, the preferred stock may be given the right to elect a certain number of directors to the company’s Board of Directors, with the common stock electing the remainder. Applicable corporate law also gives the preferred stock class voting rights on certain major corporate events, such as mergers or the creation of senior preferred stock. Investors may wish to expand the items requiring a separate class vote. It is generally preferable to avoid series-voting rights since that gives a given series a veto right over items that might otherwise be approved by the shareholders as a whole and by each class of shareholders.

**Registration Rights**
In addition to the preferences discussed above, venture capitalists require an avenue to liquidity. This is usually achieved by a registration-rights agreement giving the investors the right to require your company to go public and register their shares with the SEC. These registration rights are called “demand rights.” The investors may also have the right to require your company to register their shares with the SEC when the company decides to go public. These rights are referred to as “piggyback rights.” In both cases, the company usually pays related expenses.

**Typical Restrictions Imposed on Management**
Venture capitalists generally require certain commitments from your company about its post-financing management. The covenants that you are likely to encounter are affirmative and negative covenants, rights of first refusal and co-sale rights.

Affirmative covenants generally require your company to provide the investors with ongoing financial information and access to the company’s records and management and may grant the investors the right to board representation or board visitation rights.

Conversely, investors may also require negative covenants or company agreements not to take specified actions without the investors’ consent. Your management must carefully evaluate these covenants to ensure that they will not unduly interfere with your board’s ability to manage the company.
Investors also may obtain a “right of first refusal” on further stock issuances by your company. Typically, these provisions will give the investors the right to buy their proportionate share of any new stock offerings prior to the public offering. You should avoid a right of first refusal giving investors the right to buy all of a new issuance because that could make it hard for the company to attract new investors. In addition, certain types of offerings (such as stock issued in mergers, lease financings and to employees) should be excluded from the investors’ right of first refusal.

In addition to these restrictions, the venture capitalists may require that the founders personally sign a co-sale agreement. A co-sale agreement gives the venture capitalists the right to participate in any proposed sale of the founder’s stock to third parties. The reason for a co-sale agreement is that the investors generally do not want the founders to “cash out” without giving the investors the same opportunity. Both the right of first refusal and co-sale agreement should terminate upon a public offering or the company’s acquisition.

**Employee Stock Plans**

Companies typically establish employee stock option plans to provide equity incentives for employees. Start-up companies are high risk and cash-flow constraints often mean that employees may be asked to accept below-market salaries to conserve cash in the start-up phase. Consequently, equity plans are essential to attract and retain top quality people in a start-up. The number of shares reserved for employee plans is typically 10 to 20 percent of the outstanding shares. It is typical for early stage companies (though not approved by the IRS) to establish a fair market value for common stock for such employee plans within a range of 10 to 20 percent of the most recent value of the preferred stock. This price differential must disappear as you approach a public offering or acquisition of the company or the company may be required to take a “cheap stock” charge to earnings by the SEC.

**Corporate Partnering**

As your company completes product development and moves into manufacturing and distribution, you should consider structuring some kind of partnering arrangement with one or more major corporations in your field. A strategic alliance with a major corporation can sharply accelerate your growth by providing you with an established manufacturing or distribution infrastructure, credibility, influence and immediate access to both domestic and international customers. (See the Fenwick booklet on Corporate Partnering for High Technology Companies for a detailed discussion on finding and negotiating partnering arrangements.)
When Should you Consider an Acquisition?

Many good companies discover after a number of years of effort that it is going to be difficult (if not impossible) to attain the level of revenues and profits set forth in their initial business plan. The product development cycle may be longer than anticipated, the market too small, the barriers to entry too great, distribution channels may be clogged, the company may not be able to develop follow-on products or the management team may not be up to the challenge of growing the company beyond a certain size. While any of these difficulties may restrict the company’s future growth, the company’s product or management team could still be highly valuable in the hands of a strategic buyer. For such companies, an acquisition may give investors a quicker and more certain path to liquidity. Alternatively, many technology companies have used acquisitions of related products or companies as a means to accelerate their own growth to the critical mass necessary for success. Since change seems to be the only constant in the life of a high tech company, you need to keep an open mind about the advisability of being acquired or acquiring other companies. (See the Fenwick booklet on Mergers and Acquisitions for High Technology Companies for a detailed discussion on issues and negotiating strategies in technology company acquisitions.)

Financing — the Second Round

At the next appropriate financing “window,” or as your company begins to run out of cash, you may seek a second round of venture capital to start the next milestone of your business plan or to adapt to changed market conditions. How much control you are able to exercise during subsequent rounds of financing depends largely on how successful you have been in managing the planned development and growth of the company with previous funding and the degree to which investment capital is available.

Successful Companies
If your company has proven its ability to “execute” its business plan, you should be able to raise money at a substantial premium over the first-round, perhaps one and one-half to two and one-half or more times the first round price. The first-round venture investors will participate in the second round financing, typically providing one quarter to one half of the money in the second round. A lead investor representing the “new money” generally will set the second-round price and its terms and conditions. If the company runs out of cash before the lead investor is found, the current investors may “bridge” the gap by giving the company a bridge loan that will automatically convert into the next round series of preferred stock. Investors typically receive market rate interest and warrants for making bridge loans.

Unsuccessful Companies
If your company has fallen measurably short of its plan, finding new investors will be a problem and your existing investors may need to fund a greater percentage of the round.
Since the company will be in a weaker bargaining position, it may have to raise money at a lower price than the first round, triggering antidilution protection and causing significant dilution to the founders. More onerous preferred stock terms are likely, including pay-to-play provisions, ratchet-antidilution protection and multiple-liquidation preferences. In addition, the venture capitalists may force you to change management, replace the CEO, impose more rigorous controls over the company’s management or force personnel layoffs.

When the existing investors lead a “down” round financing, it raises conflict of interest and fiduciary duty issues since the investors who are pricing the deal offered to the company are the same people who are approving the deal on the company’s board of directors. Down-round financings should be structured to minimize the risk of liability to the board and its investors and maximize the fairness to the company’s shareholders. For example, the company should conduct a “rights offering,” permitting all company shareholders who are qualified investors for securities law purposes to participate in the offering and it could obtain an independent appraisal of the pre-money valuation of the company. Because down-round financings raise so many legal issues, consult your corporate counsel on how to best address these issues.

The Initial Public Offering

What are the Prerequisites for Going Public?
In order to go public, your company should establish a consistent pattern of growth and profitability and a strong management team. Your company’s ability to go public will depend on market factors, as well as the company’s revenue and profitability rate, its projections for future revenue and profit and the receptivity of the securities market. When market interest in technology is high, companies can be valued at levels that seem unrelated to their balance sheets or income statements. There is enormous pressure on companies to go public during these market windows. However, the IPO market is volatile and reacts to factors that are outside your company’s control. Even if your company has met the profile described above, you may find that the IPO market window is effectively closed. If that happens, your only options may be self-funding, seeking additional venture funding or a sale to an established company.

Advantages of Going Public
There are two principal advantages to going public. First, the company can raise a larger amount of capital at a higher valuation than it could obtain from private investors because “public” shares can be freely resold. Second, going public can boost your company’s sales and marketing by increasing its visibility. From the individual’s point of view, some venture capitalists and key managers may sell a small portion of their stock in the initial public offering (IPO) or a follow-on offering, giving them liquidity.
Beyond these advantages, the founders achieve a psychological sense of financial success. Before the IPO, they owned shares with no market and no readily ascertainable price. After the offering, the public market sets the price and provides them liquidity.

**Disadvantages of Going Public**

There are a number of disadvantages to going public. A public offering is expensive. For example, if your company wanted to make a $40 million offering, the underwriters typically would take a seven percent commission on the stock sold, and the legal, accounting and printing fees would exceed $1.2 million. Once public, your company must publish quarterly financial statements and disclose information you previously considered confidential. The SEC is increasing the scope of information public companies must make available to the public and holding the CEO and CFO responsible for the accuracy of the information provided to the public. In making business decisions, your company’s Board of Directors will have to consider the effect on the company’s stock price. Failing to meet analysts’ expectations can lead to a dramatic drop in the company’s stock price. In a very real sense, entrepreneurs tend to feel that they lose control of “their” company after the IPO.

**Conclusion**

For many high technology start-ups, a venture capital financing strategy is the only realistic way that their new product ideas can be successfully developed and introduced into the marketplace. Without the capital infusions and the management assistance of venture capitalists, many of these companies’ products simply would not make it to the public market. Entrepreneurs have an abundance of good ideas and the drive to realize them. The management and market experience they may lack can be provided by the relationships they develop with experienced venture capitalists, accountants and lawyers who focus in working with high technology companies.
Appendix A: Illustrative Financing Scenarios

In order to give you a better idea of what you can expect in the way of share ownership or company valuation if you decide to pursue a venture capital financing strategy, we have prepared two illustrative financing scenarios. Both assume that the company was able to raise the necessary funding to develop and bring its product to market and that the company’s product was ultimately accepted by the marketplace. The first scenario assumes a strong, experienced founding team, with strong and continuous growth in product development, marketing and sales, while the second assumes a less experienced team that stumbles, but does not fail, in its objectives, but faces the effects of a down-round financing.

It is difficult to generalize about the percentage ownership founders may retain by their company’s IPO. While these scenarios provide some realistic parameters, actual valuations will depend on the attractiveness of the given investment and market conditions at the time.

**Highly Successful Team**

If you gathered a very strong management team, developed a product with strong market acceptance and were both lucky and particularly successful at executing your business plan, your company’s valuation round-by-round and the distribution of your company’s outstanding shares at the IPO might be similar to that set forth below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shareholders</th>
<th>No. Shares</th>
<th>Purchase Price</th>
<th>Dollars Invested</th>
<th>Company Valuation</th>
<th>% Ownership at IPO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Founders (Common)</td>
<td>4,250,000</td>
<td>$0.001</td>
<td>$4,250</td>
<td>$4,250</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed Investors (Preferred)</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>2,625,000</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 1 Inv. (Preferred)</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>17,500,000</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees (Common)</td>
<td>1,750,000</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>21,000,000</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 2 Inv. (Preferred)</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>22,500,000</td>
<td>69,750,000</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees (Common)</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>900,000</td>
<td>78,750,000</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public (Common)</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>40,000,000</td>
<td>390,000,000</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>19,500,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Less Experienced Team
The scenario can be very different if you are unable to attract a highly experienced management team. Inexperienced managers may fail to meet the intensive demands of a high-growth start-up. For this scenario, we have assumed that the company fails to complete product development on time and has to raise additional capital without a completed product. As a result, two of the five founders are replaced with more experienced management before the second round of venture financing. The number of founders’ shares at the IPO is less than in the first scenario because the company repurchased the ex-founders’ shares on termination of employment. While more capital was needed to complete the product and launch it into the market, the second round financing was done at a lower price per share than the first round because the company had not yet removed the product development risk and the doubts that created about management. In addition, the “As Converted Ownership % @ IPO” column reflects the effect of ratchet or weighted-average-antidilution protection triggered by the “down” round. After the “down” round of financing, the company is then able to get back on track and raise the additional private capital needed at a step-up in valuation. The additional dilution from the lower valuation of the round two financing and the resulting increase in the number of shares of common stock into which the round one preferred stock will convert, dilutes the founders’ percentage ownership far more than in the first scenario. Under this scenario, the company’s valuation round-by-round and the distribution of the company’s outstanding shares at the IPO might be similar to that set forth below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shareholders</th>
<th>No. Shares</th>
<th>Purchase Price</th>
<th>Dollars Invested</th>
<th>Company Valuation</th>
<th>% Ownership at IPO (no Anti-dilution protection)</th>
<th>As Converted Ownership % at IPO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Founders (Common)</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>$0.001</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>6.1% 6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed Investors (Preferred)</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.1 3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 1 Inv. (Preferred)</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7,000,000</td>
<td>13,000,000</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>21.3 15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees (Common)</td>
<td>1,750,000</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>16,500,000</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.3 5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 2 Inv. (Preferred)</td>
<td>0,000,000</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>18,250,000</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>30.5 32.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees (Common)</td>
<td>1,750,000</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>20,000,000</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.3 5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round 3 Inv. (Preferred)</td>
<td>6,000,000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>24,000,000</td>
<td>104,000,000</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>18.3 19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public (Common)</td>
<td>3,333,334</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>40,000,000</td>
<td>352,000,008</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>10.2 10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>9,333,334</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Series B Preferred Stock Term Sheet

Amount of Financing: $7,000,000
Type of Security: 3,500,000 shares of Series B Preferred Stock (“Series B Preferred”)
Purchase Price: $2.00 per share (a $14 million pre-money company valuation)

Projected Postfinancing Capitalization:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Shares</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Common Stock</td>
<td>4,250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series A Preferred</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series B Preferred</td>
<td>3,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Options</td>
<td>1,750,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>10,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rights and Preferences of Series B Preferred

Dividend Rights The holders of the Series A and Series B Preferred Stock (collectively the “Preferred Stock”) shall be entitled to receive, out of any funds legally available therefore, dividends at a rate of eight percent per year (i.e., $.04 and $.16 per share for the Series A and B Preferred, respectively) prior and in preference to any payment of any dividend on the Common Stock. Such dividends shall be paid when, as and if declared by the Board of Directors and shall not be cumulative.

Liquidation Preference In the event of any liquidation, dissolution or winding up of the Company, the holders of the Preferred Stock will be entitled to receive an amount equal to their original issue price per share, plus an amount equal to all declared but unpaid dividends thereon (the “Preference Amount”). If there are insufficient assets to permit the payment in full of the Preference Amount to the preferred shareholders, then the assets of the Company will be distributed ratably to the holders of the Preferred Stock in proportion to the Preference Amount each holder is otherwise entitled to receive.

After the full Preference Amount has been paid on all outstanding shares of Preferred Stock, any remaining funds and assets of the Company legally available for distribution to shareholders will be distributed ratably among the holders of the Preferred and Common Stock on an as-converted basis.

A merger or consolidation of the Company in which its shareholders do not retain a majority of the voting power in the surviving corporation, or sale of all or substantially all the Company’s assets, will be deemed to be a liquidation, dissolution or winding up.

Conversion Right The holders of the Preferred Stock shall have the right to convert the Preferred Stock at any time into shares of Common Stock. The initial conversion rate for each series of Preferred Stock shall be 1-for-1.
Automatic Conversion  The Preferred Stock shall be automatically converted into Common Stock, at the then applicable conversion rate, upon the closing of an underwritten public offering of shares of Common Stock of the Company at a public offering price of not less than $6.00 per share and for a total public offering amount of not less than $10 million.

Antidilution Provisions  Stock splits, stock dividends and so forth shall have proportional antidilution protection. The conversion price of the Preferred Stock shall be subject to adjustment to prevent dilution on a weighted average basis in the event that the Company issues additional shares of Common Stock or Common Stock Equivalents at a purchase price less than the applicable conversion price; except that shares of Common Stock sold or reserved for issuance to employees, directors, consultants or advisors of the Company pursuant to stock purchase, stock option or other agreements approved by the Board and certain other issues customarily excluded from triggering antidilution adjustments may be issued without triggering antidilution adjustments.

Voting Rights  Each share of Preferred Stock carries a number of votes equal to the number of shares of Common Stock then issuable upon its conversion into Common Stock. The Preferred Stock will generally vote together with the Common Stock and not as a separate class except that, with respect to the election of the Board of Directors, the holders of Preferred Stock may elect three of the five members of the Board. The holders of the Common Stock, voting together as a single class, shall be entitled to elect the two remaining Board members.

Board Representation  At the Closing Date, the Board of Directors shall consist of Joe CEO, Industry Luminary, Bill VC, Tom VC and Michele VC.

Protective Provisions  Consent of the holders of a majority of the outstanding Preferred Stock shall be required for: (i) any action that materially and adversely alters or changes the rights, preferences or privileges of any series of Preferred Stock; (ii) any action that authorizes or creates shares of any class of stock having preferences superior to or on a parity with any series of Preferred Stock; (iii) any amendment of the Company’s Articles of Incorporation that materially and adversely affects the rights of any series of the Preferred Stock; (iv) any merger or consolidation of the Company with or into one or more other corporations in which the Company’s shareholders do not retain a majority of the voting power in the surviving corporation or (v) the sale of all or substantially all the Company’s assets.

Rights of First Refusal  So long as an investor holds at least five percent of the Company’s outstanding capital, that holder of Preferred Stock shall be given the right of first refusal to purchase up to its pro-rata portion (based on its percentage of the Company’s outstanding common shares, calculated on an as-if-converted basis) of any equity securities offered by the Company (other than shares offered to employees, in a merger or in connection
with a lease line or line of credit, etc.) on the same terms and conditions as the Company offers such securities to other potential investors. This right of first refusal will terminate immediately prior to the Company’s initial underwritten public offering of its Common Stock at a public offering price of not less than $6.00 per share and for a total public offering amount of not less than $10 million.

**Information Rights** So long as an investor continues to hold at least 5 percent of the Company’s outstanding Common Stock (calculated on an as-converted basis), the Company shall deliver to the investor: (i) audited annual financial statements within 90 days after the end of each fiscal year; (ii) unaudited quarterly financial statements within 45 days of the end of each fiscal quarter and (iii) unaudited monthly financial statements within 30 days of the end of each month. These information rights shall terminate upon the Company’s initial public offering.

**Registration Rights**

1. **Demand Rights** If at any time after the third anniversary of the closing holders of at least 30 percent of the “Registrable Securities” (defined below) request that the Company file a registration statement covering the public sale of Registrable Securities with an aggregate public offering price of at least $5 million, then the Company will use its best efforts to cause such shares to be registered under the Securities Act of 1933 (the “1933 Act”); provided, that the Company shall have the right to delay such registration under certain circumstances for up to 90 days during any 12-month period. “Registrable Securities” will mean the Common Stock issuable on conversion of the Preferred Stock.

The Company shall not be obligated to effect more than two registrations under this demand right provision and shall not be obligated to effect a registration during the six-month period commencing with the date of the Company’s initial public offering or any registration under the 1933 Act in which Registrable Securities were registered.

2. **Piggyback Rights** The holders of Registrable Securities shall be entitled to “piggyback” registration rights on all 1933 Act registrations of the Company or on any demand registration (except for registrations relating to employee benefit plans and corporate reorganizations).

3. **Cutback** The investors’ registration rights are subject to the right of the Company and its underwriters to reduce the number of shares proposed to be registered pro rata in view of market conditions. The underwriters’ “cutback” right shall provide that at least 25 percent of the shares included in the Registration must be Registrable Securities (except for the Company’s initial public offering, from which all Registrable Securities may be excluded).
(4) **S-3 Rights**  Investors shall be entitled to registrations on Form S-3 (if available to the Company) unless: (i) the aggregate public offering price of all securities of the Company to be sold by shareholders in such registered offering is less than $500,000; (ii) the Company certifies that it is not in the Company’s best interests to file a Form S-3, in which event the Company may defer the filing for up to 90 days once during any 12-month period or (iii) if the Company has already effected two registrations on Form S-3 during the preceding 12 months.

(5) **Expenses**  The Company shall bear the registration expenses (exclusive of underwriting discounts and commissions, but including the fees of one counsel for the selling shareholders) of all such demand and piggyback registrations and for the first S-3 registration.

(6) **Transfer of Rights**  Registration rights may be transferred to (i) transferees acquiring at least 100,000 shares of Registrable Securities with notice to and consent of the Company or (ii) any partner, shareholder, parent, child or spouse of the holder or to the holder’s estate.

(7) **Market Standoff**  No holder will sell shares within such period requested by the Company’s underwriters (not to exceed 180 days) after the effective date of the Company’s initial public offering; provided, however, that such restriction does not apply to Registrable Securities included in such registration statement; and provided further, that all officers, directors and holders of more than 1 percent of the outstanding capital stock of the Company enter into similar standoff agreements with respect to such registration.

(8) **Cross-Indemnification Provisions**  The parties will provide each other with reasonable cross-indemnification.

(9) **Termination**  The registration rights will terminate five years after the closing of the Company’s initial public offering and will not apply to any shares that can be sold in a three-month period pursuant to Rule 144 without registration.

**Board of Directors**  The Articles of Incorporation and Bylaws shall provide for a five-person Board of Directors.

**Stock Purchase Agreement**  The investment shall be made pursuant to a Stock Purchase Agreement reasonably acceptable to the Company and the investors, which agreement shall contain, among other things, appropriate representations and warranties of the Company, covenants of the Company reflecting the provisions set forth herein, and appropriate conditions of closing, including an opinion of counsel for the Company. The Stock Purchase Agreement shall provide that it may be amended by or that provisions may be waived only
with the approval of the holders of a majority of the Series B Preferred (and/or Common Stock issued upon conversion thereof). Registration rights provisions may be amended with the consent of the holders of a majority of the Registrable Securities.

**Stock Vesting**  Stock sold and options granted to employees will be subject to the following vesting, unless otherwise approved by the Board of Directors: (i) Vesting over four years — 24 percent of the shares vest at the end of the first year, with two percent of the shares vesting monthly thereafter; or (ii) Upon termination of the shareholder’s employment, with or without cause, the Company shall retain the option to repurchase at cost any unvested shares held by such shareholder.

**Restrictions on Sales**  The investors will make the customary investment representations.

**Invention Assignment**  Agreement: Each officer and employee of the Company shall have entered into an acceptable confidentiality and invention assignment agreement.

**Finders**  The Company and the investors shall each indemnify the other for any finder's fees for which either is responsible.

**Legal Fees and Expenses**  The Company shall pay the reasonable fees and expenses of Investors’ counsel up to a maximum of $30,000.
About the Author

Jacqueline A. Daunt retired from Fenwick & West LLP in 2003 after more than 21 years in the firm's Corporate Group. Her practice focused on representing high technology clients in domestic and international transactions, including venture financings, mergers and acquisitions, partnering arrangements, distribution and licensing agreements and international protection of proprietary rights. Ms. Daunt received her B.A. in economics and her J.D. from the University of Michigan. She also attended the Université Libre de Bruxelles and L’Institut D’Études Européennes, where she studied comparative commercial law and European antitrust law. In addition to frequent speaking engagements, Ms. Daunt has authored during her career a series of booklets on strategic issues for high technology companies, including Venture Capital, Corporate Partnering, Mergers and Acquisitions, Structuring Effective Earnouts, International Distribution and Entering the U.S. Market. Ms. Daunt’s booklets have been distributed to tens of thousands of entrepreneurs, students, venture capitalists and journalists and are widely regarded as the most useful and straightforward reference materials of their type. Fenwick is deeply indebted to Ms. Daunt for her tireless efforts in writing and maintaining these invaluable resources.
Seed Financing Survey 2012
Internet/Digital Media and Software Industries
**Background**

In early 2011 we published our first Seed Financing Survey (for 2010) in recognition of the growing importance of seed financing to entrepreneurs and the venture capital environment, especially in the internet/digital media and software industries.

This is the third such survey. In addition to providing information for 2012, this survey also offers comparative information with 2011 and 2010 to facilitate the identification of trends.

The information contained in this survey is based on 61 transactions in 2012, 56 transactions in 2011 and 52 in 2010. The vast majority of these transactions were for companies based in Silicon Valley, with some from the Seattle, Los Angeles and New York regions. Most of these transactions are those in which our firm was involved, and we believe is representative of transactions handled by large Silicon Valley law firms, but may not be representative of the larger, geographically dispersed, seed financing environment.

**Overview of 2012 Seed Financing Survey Results**

We saw the following trends in our 2012 survey:

- Of the companies funded in 2011, 27% had raised a Series A financing by the end of the following year (2012), while 45% of the companies funded in 2010 had raised a Series A financing by the end of the following year (2011).
- Conversely, 23% of the companies funded in 2011 raised follow-on seed financing by the end of the following year, while 12% of the companies funded in 2010 had raised a follow on seed by the end of the following year.
- The percentage of companies in our survey receiving seed funding that were software companies increased from 25% in 2011 to 34% in 2012, while the percentage of such companies that were internet/digital media companies declined from 75% to 66%.
- The percentage of seed financings led by venture capital investors increased from 27% in 2011 to 34% in 2012.
- The use of a preferred stock structure increased from 59% in 2011 to 67% in 2012.
- The average investment size increased for preferred stock deals from 2011 to 2012, and declined for convertible note deals over the same period.
- The median pre-money valuation in preferred stock financings increased from $3.8 million in 2011 to $4.6 million in 2012.
- The median size of preferred stock deals increased from $1.0 million in 2011 to $1.36 million in 2012, while the median size of convertible note deals decreased from $1.0 million to $0.9 million.
- The median valuation cap on convertible notes decreased from $7.5 million in 2011 to $6.0 million in 2012.

The more detailed results of our survey are set forth below, after the “Overview of Seed Financing Environment” section.

**Overview of Seed Financing Environment**

The seed financing environment has become very dynamic, and has undergone significant changes, in the past few years. Some of the trends that we are seeing are:

- The Increasing Institutionalization of Seed Financing.

  This is evidenced by the increasing participation of venture capitalists in seed financings, the growth of accelerators and “matchmaker” platforms, and the use of venture capital-like structures in seed financings.

  (1) The increased involvement of venture capital funds in seed investing. Dow Jones VentureSource reported that U.S. seed financings by venture capital firms increased from 173 in 2009 to 388 in 2012,
and the amounts invested in such financings increased from $119 million to $287 million during that period. Similarly, CB Insights reported that venture capital investment in seed deals increased from 143 deals in 2009 to 617 deals in 2012, and that the percentage of all seed deals in which venture capitalists invested increased from 30% in 2009 to 35% in 2012. This trend is supported by the results of our Survey, which found that the percentage of seed deals that were led by venture capitalists increased from 26% in 2010 to 27% in 2011 to 34% in 2012.

(2) The growth of accelerators. Accelerators provide structure to the formation of seed companies by providing formalized mentoring, a network of contacts and in some cases small amounts of financing. This is unlike the prior generations of early stage companies that were more likely to have less formal guidance and structure during their pre-seed and seed period. Since Y Combinator, the first of the current generation of accelerators, was founded in 2005, the number of accelerators has grown to over 130 in 33 countries, per research by Jed Christiansen, founder of Seed-DB, as reported in AllThingsDigital. And accelerators tracked by Seed-DB that provide funding to their companies have increased the number of companies they have funded from 243 in 2010 to 1137 in 2012.

(3) The growth of platforms that match entrepreneurs and investors. Matchmaking platforms are becomingly increasingly important in seed financing, and with the passage of the JOBS Act are likely to continue to grow in importance. These platforms have provided further structure to the seed financing process that did not exist even a few years ago. For example, accelerators like 500 Startups and Rock Health now require all their applicants to submit their applications through AngelList (which was only founded in 2010). And AngelList has recently teamed with Second Market to permit (accredited) investors to easily invest small amounts in some of the companies listed on AngelList.

(4) The use of more traditional deal structures in seed financings. As venture capitalists and professional seed funds become more involved in seed financings, we are seeing indications of the increased use of traditional venture capital deal structures in seed financings. This is supported by our Survey, which shows that the use of preferred stock structures (versus convertible note structures) increased from 2011 to 2012, and that of those financings that used a convertible note structure, there was an increase in the use of valuation caps. However, note that seed round preferred stock valuations increased overall from 2011 to 2012, so the increased use of preferred stock is not necessarily a trend that favors investors at the expense of entrepreneurs, but rather reflects the more traditional preference of venture capitalists to set valuations at the time an investment is made.

Increase in Seed Financings and the Series A Crunch.

(1) Rapid growth in seed financings compared to Series A. The number of seed financings increased from 472 in 2009 to 1749 in 2012, while the number of Series A rounds only increased from 418 to 692 during the same period, as reported by CB Insights. Additionally, Xconomy reported that the number of seed investments has grown from 15% to 31% of the total number of venture capital deals. This has caused many to question whether too many seed deals are being funded, and opine that many of the seed funded companies will be unable to raise a Series A financing. CB Insights estimates that only approximately 40% of seed funded companies will raise follow-on financings, and that as a result it projects that over 1000 companies that received seed funding in the past year will be unable to raise Series A funding. This is consistent with our Survey data which found that while 45% of companies receiving seed funding in 2010 had received venture financing by the end of 2011, only 27% of companies receiving seed funding in 2011 had received venture financing by the end of 2012.
(2) Follow-on seed financings. Further evidence of this trend is what appears to be a growth in follow-on seed financings, which provide a company with a longer runway to hopefully demonstrate the traction necessary to obtain Series A financing. This is supported by our survey results which found that while only 12% of our 2010 class of seed funded companies received a follow-on seed financing by the end of 2011, 23% of our 2011 class have already received such financing. Anecdotally, the growth of “acqui-hires” also seems to be increasing, supporting the idea that while many seed-funded companies have had difficulty in raising Series A financing, their ability to put together talented teams has led to acquisitions of these companies due to the value of their personnel.

- The Seed Financing Universe is Expanding Geographically and by Industry.

The current accelerator concept started in Silicon Valley, and was initially focused on mentoring internet-focused companies. This has changed.

(1) Geographically. Of the approximately 140 accelerators tracked by Seed-DB, 45% are based outside of the United States and even for those based in the U.S., many attract foreign entrepreneurs. While it is unlikely to be representative of all incubators, we note that of the 33 companies in the most recent 500 Startups class, 57% are based outside of the United States, as reported in VentureBeat. Additionally, the Wall Street Journal reported that a significant number of accelerators being formed in Silicon Valley focus on nationals of specific countries, e.g. Australia, China, Denmark, Germany, Israel, Japan and Russia. Their goal is to provide entrepreneurs from those countries access to Silicon Valley investors, and to provide those investors access to the markets of those countries. And geographic growth is of course occurring in the US as well, with accelerators forming throughout the US, and with some accelerators, like Science in Los Angeles, explicitly focused on connecting their companies with Silicon Valley investors.

(2) Industry Diversification. While the internet/digital media industry seems especially well suited for seed/accelerator financing, due to being less capital intensive and having a quicker time to market, accelerators are diversifying into other industries. Examples are Lemnos Labs, Bolt and Haxlr8r (hardware), Rock Health, Blueprint Health and Healthbox (life science), Greenstart and Surge (energy/greentech) and Plug and Play (B2B).

Detailed Results of 2012 Financing Survey

- Update on Companies Included in our Prior Seed Financing Surveys:

On average 30 months has passed since the companies funded in 2010 and included in our 2011 survey raised their seed round of financing, and on average 18 months has passed since the companies funded in 2011 and included in our 2012 survey raised their seed round of financing. Set forth below is information on what has happened to those companies during that time period.

Status of companies that raised their seed round of financing in 2010:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>As of 12/31/2011</th>
<th>As of 12/31/2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raised venture capital financing:</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raised additional seed financing:</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Still operating and have not raised additional financing:</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquired:</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shut down:</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No data available:</strong></td>
<td><strong>6%</strong></td>
<td><strong>4%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Status of companies that raised their seed round of financing in 2010 versus those that raised their seed round in 2011, 18 months (average) after the seed round:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of 2010 companies as of 12/31/2011</th>
<th>Status of 2011 companies as of 12/31/2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raised venture capital financing: 45%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raised additional seed financing: 12%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Still operating and have not raised additional financing: 21%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquired: 12%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shut down: 4%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No data available: 6%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Other Survey Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industry breakdown:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital Media: 71%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software: 29%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lead investor background:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed funds: 43%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional angels: 31%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture capital funds: 26%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financing Structure:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred Stock: 69%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convertible Debt: 31%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Average Size of Investment**

Below is the average size of investment for investors who invested at least $100,000, broken down by type of investor and between Preferred Stock financing and Convertible Note financing.

**Preferred Stock**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional angels: $310,000</td>
<td>$163,000</td>
<td>$185,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed funds: $392,000</td>
<td>$423,000</td>
<td>$458,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture capital funds: $591,000</td>
<td>$516,000</td>
<td>$624,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Convertible Notes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional angels: $182,000</td>
<td>$244,000</td>
<td>$165,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed funds: $140,000</td>
<td>$424,000</td>
<td>$277,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture capital funds: $290,000</td>
<td>$501,000</td>
<td>$391,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Analysis of Preferred Stock Seed Financings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median pre-money valuation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital media:</td>
<td>$3,400,000</td>
<td>$4,000,000</td>
<td>$4,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software:</td>
<td>$2,700,000</td>
<td>$3,500,000</td>
<td>$5,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median amount raised:</td>
<td>$1,056,000</td>
<td>$1,000,000</td>
<td>$1,360,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage using non-participating preferred liquidation preference:</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage using participating preferred liquidation preference:</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage in which investors received a board seat:</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Analysis of Convertible Note Seed Financings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median amount raised</td>
<td>$662,500</td>
<td>$1,000,000</td>
<td>$918,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median size of future financing in which note converts:</td>
<td>$1,000,000</td>
<td>$2,000,000</td>
<td>$1,750,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of deals in which valuation on conversion is capped:</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median valuation cap:</td>
<td>$4,000,000</td>
<td>$7,500,000</td>
<td>$6,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of deals that convert at a discount to the next equity round valuation:</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median initial discount:</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of deals with discount in which discount increases over time:</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of deals without discount that have a valuation cap:</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of deals having warrants:</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment of note if company is acquired prior to an equity financing:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive return of investment plus a premium:</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median premium:</td>
<td>0.75x original principal amount</td>
<td>1.0x original principal amount</td>
<td>1.0x original principal amount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right to convert at an agreed upon valuation:</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage that have neither conversion right nor premium:</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage that have both conversion right and premium:</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median interest rate:</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median term:</td>
<td>18 months</td>
<td>18 months</td>
<td>18 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage in which notes are secured:</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage in which investors received a board seat:</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methodology and Definitions

For purposes of this survey we define a “seed” financing as the first round of financing by a company in which the company raises between $250,000 and $2,500,000, and in which professional investors play a lead role. Please note that this definition excludes financings led by “friends and family”, which terms may not be negotiated on an arms-length basis, and smaller financings where parties may not substantially negotiate terms. Due to the foregoing definition of a seed financing, and the fact that our firm had a connection with the transactions included in the survey, the survey may not be representative of all companies receiving early stage financing, as we are likely over-weighted to more promising companies funded by more established seed investors.

Please note the use of the following additional definitions:

(i) a “Professional Angel” is an individual or group of individuals who regularly invest their own funds in early stage companies.

(ii) a “Seed Fund” is a fund that primarily invests in the first round of professional financing of an early stage company.

(iii) a “Venture Capital Fund” is a fund that invests in various stages of the growth of a private company.

Disclaimer

The preparation of the information contained herein involves assumptions, compilations and analysis, and there can be no assurance that the information provided herein is error-free. Neither Fenwick & West LLP nor any of its partners, associates, staff or agents shall have any liability for any information contained herein, including any errors or incompleteness. The contents of this report are not intended, and should not be considered, as legal advice or opinion.

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Background
We analyzed the terms of venture financings for 124 companies headquartered in Silicon Valley that reported raising money in the second quarter of 2013.

Overview of Fenwick & West Results
While valuation related results for 2Q13 were generally healthy, certain trends bear watching. Specifically, although the percentage of up rounds declined only mildly, to 64%, the number of down rounds doubled to 22%. Additionally, while the average share price increase improved modestly compared to 1Q13 (62% to 57%), the median share price was relatively low at 19%, and for the second quarter in a row was noticeably below the 30% average median increase in 2012.

Here are the more detailed results.

- Up rounds exceeded down rounds in 2Q13, 64% to 22% with 14% of rounds flat. This was a decrease from 1Q13 when 68% of rounds were up, 11% were down and 21% were flat.
- The Fenwick & West Venture Capital Barometer™ showed an average price increase of 62% in 2Q13, a slight increase from the 57% reported in 1Q13.
- The median price increase of financings in 2Q13 was 19%, an increase from the 1Q13 results of 14%, but a noticeable decline from prior quarters.
- The results by industry are set forth below. In general the software industry was the strongest, followed by internet/digital media and hardware, with life science lagging. The three financings with the largest percentage increase in price were all in the software industry.

Overview of Other Industry Data
Third party reports of the venture environment for the second quarter of 2013 showed:

- A mild increase in venture investing in 2Q13 compared to 1Q13, with 2Q13 improving as the quarter progressed. But the first half of 2013 lagged 2012.
- IPOs were up significantly in 2Q13 due to the largest number of biotech IPOs since 3Q00, but IT IPOs were flat.
- The number of acquisitions of venture backed U.S. companies was the lowest since 3Q09. The total amount paid was an increase over 1Q13, but still relatively low.
- Venture fundraising was again weak, declining against both 1Q13 and 1H12, and continued to trail the amounts invested by venture capitalists in companies.
- Corporate venture investing was at its highest levels (as a percentage of total investment) since 2001.
• Venture capitalist confidence improved for the fourth straight quarter, as venture capitalists noted various trends likely to improve venture capital returns over the next three to five years.

The more detailed results follow:

**Venture Capital Investment.**

Dow Jones VentureSource (“VentureSource”) reported a 12% increase in venture investment and a 6.5% increase in the number of venture financings from 1Q13 to 2Q13. Specifically, $7.2 billion was invested in 801 financings in 2Q13 compared to $6.4 billion invested in 752 financings in 1Q13 (as reported in April 2013).\(^1\)

Similarly, the PwC/NVCA MoneyTree™ Report based on data from Thomson Reuters (the “MoneyTree Report”) reported a 13.5% increase in venture investment and a 6% increase in venture financings from 1Q13 to 2Q13. They reported that $6.7 billion was raised in 913 financings in 2Q13 compared to $5.9 billion raised in 863 financings in 1Q13 (as reported in April 2013).\(^3\) The MoneyTree Report also noted that biotech investment increased 41% from 1Q13 to 2Q13.

Both services reported that venture investment in 1H13 lagged 1H12.

CB Insights and TechCrunch each reported that venture investing trended up noticeably as 2Q13 progressed.

**IPO Activity**

There was a significant increase in IPOs in 2Q13, with 18 IPOs raising $1.7 billion in 2Q13, compared to 9 IPOs raising $0.6 billion in 1Q13, according to VentureSource. Ten of the IPOs were in healthcare, as IT IPOs were flat compared to 1Q13.

Thomson Reuters reported similar results and noted that there were the most biotech IPOs in a quarter since 3Q00.

The increase in healthcare IPOs was attributed to increasing new drug approvals (the 39 new drugs approved by the FDA in 2012 was the highest since 1997) and strong performance by public biotech companies. (VentureWire, Rockoff and Demos, July 1, 2013).

**Merger and Acquisition Activity**

VentureSource reported an 11% decline in the number of venture backed U.S. companies that were acquired, but a 66% increase in the amount paid for such acquisitions, in 2Q13 compared to 1Q13 (as reported in April 2013).\(^1\) Specifically there were 84 transactions for $8.0 billion in 2Q13 compared to 94 transactions raising $4.9 billion in 1Q13. This was the fewest number of acquisitions in a quarter since 3Q09.

Similarly, Thomson Reuters reported 84 acquisitions in 2Q13 and noted that overall the number of acquisitions in 1H13 was much lower than 1H12.

**Venture Capital Fundraising**

Thomson Reuters reported a 29% decrease in dollars raised, although an increase in the number of funds raising money, in 2Q13 compared to 1Q13. Specifically 44 funds raised $2.9 billion in 2Q13 compared to 35
funds raising $4.1 billion in 1Q13. The amount raised was the lowest since 3Q11. The top 5 venture funds accounted for 55% of the total.

Similarly, VentureSource reported a 15% decline in fundraising in 1H13 compared to 1H12.

- **Venture Firm Trends**

  The environment in which venture firms operate has changed significantly in recent years, with the growth of micro-VCs, accelerators, angels, crowdfunding, investor matching sites and secondary exchanges. Additionally limited partners have become more willing to question their relationship with general partners, as evidenced by the Kauffman Report opining that the limited partner/general partner relationship needed changes.

  These changes have been driven in large part by the reduced need for capital to start new IT companies, mediocre venture investment returns over the past decade, changes in the legal environment, and external economic events that have reduced liquidity exits, especially IPOs.

  In response, some venture capitalists are making changes to their operating model.

  - As many startups need less money, and early stage investing has become more competitive, many VCs are focusing on ways to distinguish themselves from their competitors.

  - As reported in the Venture Capital Journal, one example of this is the “agency” model, exemplified by Andreessen Horowitz, who have 50 people dedicated to providing ancillary services like public relations, recruiting, etc. to their portfolio companies.

    Another example is the “community” model, exemplified by First Round Capital, which has created a web platform to transform their portfolio companies into a community where entrepreneurs can exchange information, ideas and best practices among themselves.

  - Venture capitalists are also using technology to identify trends, companies and people at earlier stages, by mining information from databases like Crunchbase, social media like Twitter, app store information and proprietary data sources, per TechCrunch. This information can be used not only to identify trends and information directly of use to the VCs, but also to assist their existing portfolio companies. Examples of these endeavors are Grove (by Sequoia) and Dragnet (by Kleiner Perkins). (VentureWire, Evelyn Rusli, May 22, 2013).

  - Branding has also become a growing focus of VCs, evidenced by the recent branding survey undertaken for the NVCA by DeSantis Breindel. This survey emphasized the value of branding but also focuses on some differences in how VCs try to brand themselves, and what entrepreneurs value.

    For example, 22% of VCs said that branding themselves as “hands on” was important, while only 1% of entrepreneurs agreed. Similarly, 28% of VCs felt that the reputation of their other portfolio companies was the most important factor in driving a positive brand image, while only 5% of entrepreneurs agreed.

- **Corporate VC Investing**

  The MoneyTree Report reported that 13.5% of all amounts raised in venture deals in 2Q13 came from corporate venture capitalists (“CVCs”). This was a significant increase from the 8.35% average over the prior
4 quarters. CVC investment percentages at this level had not been seen since 2001. CVCs were especially active in telecom, networking, biotech and cleantech, where they invested in over 17.5% of all venture deals. Google Ventures was the fourth largest investor (by number of deals) in 2Q13 according to VentureSource.

- **Angels and Accelerators**
  
  The Halo Report for 1Q13 reported that for angel only rounds, the median round size was $680,000, a five quarter high, the median pre-money valuations were stable at $2.5 million and that 67% of investment went into internet, healthcare and mobile/telecom companies. AngelList announced a service that lets angel investors syndicate a deal with each other and allows the lead angel to collect a carried interest from other participating angels, according to TechCrunch.

- **Venture Capital Return**
  
  Cambridge Associates reported that the value of its venture capital index increased by 2.5% in 1Q13 (2Q13 information has not been publicly released), but this lagged the 8.2% increase in Nasdaq. For longer time frames, the venture capital index surpassed Nasdaq for the 3 year period and for 15 years and longer, but trailed for the 1, 5 and 10 year period, and trailed the S&P 500 for all periods of less than 15 years. An article to be published in the Journal of Finance reports that despite these disappointing results, investors in not only the first quartile of venture funds, but also the second quartile, have beaten public market investments since 2000. (VentureWire, John Shinal, June 14, 2013).

- **Venture Capital Sentiment**
  
  The Silicon Valley Venture Capitalists Confidence Index® by Professor Mark Cannice at the University of San Francisco reported that the confidence level of Silicon Valley venture capitalists was 3.78 on a 5 point scale in 2Q13, a slight increase from 3.73 in 1Q13 and the fourth consecutive quarterly increase in the index. Reasons given for the increase included high expectations for disruptive technologies such as cloud, mobile and social, declining uncertainty in the macro economic environment, and the limited availability of venture capital funds, which were expected to result in an improvement in venture capital returns.

- **Nasdaq**
  
  Nasdaq increased 4.1% in 2Q13, and has increased an additional 7% in 3Q13 through August 13, 2013.
Fenwick & West Data on Valuation

**PRICE CHANGE** — The direction of price changes for companies receiving financing in a quarter, compared to their prior round of financing.

The percentage of down rounds by series were as follows:
THE FENWICK & WEST VENTURE CAPITAL BAROMETER™ (MAGNITUDE OF PRICE CHANGE) — Set forth below is the average percentage change between the price per share at which companies raised funds in a quarter, compared to the price per share at which such companies raised funds in their prior round of financing. In calculating the average, all rounds (up, down and flat) are included, and results are not weighted for the amount raised in a financing.

* One software company had a 1460% up round and one internet/digital media company had a 1190% up round in 2Q12. If these were excluded the Barometer result for 2Q12 would have been 70%.

The Barometer results by series are as follows:

* Please note that the two above mentioned software and internet/digital media companies with greater than 10x up rounds in 2Q12 were both Series C rounds. If these were excluded the Barometer result for Series C rounds in 2Q12 would have been 72%.
RESULTS BY INDUSTRY FOR CURRENT QUARTER — The table below sets forth the direction of price changes, Barometer results and number of financings for companies receiving financing in 2Q13, compared to their previous round, by industry group. Companies receiving Series A financings are excluded as they have no previous rounds to compare.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Up Rounds</th>
<th>Down Rounds</th>
<th>Flat Rounds</th>
<th>Barometer</th>
<th>Number of Financings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>+95%</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>+62%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Science</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>+20%</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital Media</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>+56%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleantech</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-46%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-31%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total all Industries</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>+62%</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DOWN ROUND RESULTS BY INDUSTRY — The table below sets forth the percentage of “down rounds,” by industry groups, for each of the past eight quarters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Down Rounds</th>
<th>Q3’11</th>
<th>Q4’11</th>
<th>Q1’12</th>
<th>Q2’12</th>
<th>Q3’12</th>
<th>Q4’12</th>
<th>Q1’13</th>
<th>Q2’13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Science</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital Media</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleantech</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total all Industries</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
BAROMETER RESULTS BY INDUSTRY — The table below sets forth Barometer results by industry group for each of the last eight quarters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometer</th>
<th>Q3’11</th>
<th>Q4’11</th>
<th>Q1’12</th>
<th>Q2’12</th>
<th>Q3’12</th>
<th>Q4’12</th>
<th>Q1’13</th>
<th>Q2’13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>105%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>123%*</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>128%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Science</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital Media</td>
<td>201%*</td>
<td>122%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>248%**</td>
<td>153%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>103%</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleantech</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>-3%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>-33%</td>
<td>158%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>-46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total all Industries</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A graphical representation of the above is below.

* One internet/digital media company had a 1500% up round in 3Q11. If this were excluded the Barometer result for the internet/digital media industry in 3Q11 would have been 73%.

** These include the two previously mentioned companies with greater than 10x up rounds in 2Q12. Excluding those two companies, the Barometer result for the software industry would have been 86% and the Barometer result for the internet/digital media industry would have been 176%.
**MEDIAN PERCENTAGE PRICE CHANGE** — Set forth below is the median percentage change between the price per share at which companies raised funds in a quarter, compared to the price per share at which such companies raised funds in their prior round of financing. In calculating the median, all rounds (up, down and flat) are included, and results are not weighted for the amount raised in the financing. Please note that this is different than the Barometer, which is based on average percentage price change.

![Median Percentage Price Change Graph](image)

**MEDIAN PERCENTAGE PRICE CHANGE RESULTS BY INDUSTRY** — The table below sets forth the median percentage price change results by industry group for each of the last eight quarters. Please note that this is different than the Barometer, which is based on average percentage price change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barometer</th>
<th>Q3'11</th>
<th>Q4'11</th>
<th>Q1'12</th>
<th>Q2'12</th>
<th>Q3'12</th>
<th>Q4'12</th>
<th>Q1'13</th>
<th>Q2'13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Software</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Science</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/Digital Media</td>
<td>105%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>105%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleantech</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>-82%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>-46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total all Industries</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A graphical representation of the above is below.

![Graphical Representation of Median Percentage Price Change](image)
FINANCING ROUND — This quarter’s financings broke down by series according to the chart below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Series</th>
<th>Q3’11</th>
<th>Q4’11</th>
<th>Q1’12</th>
<th>Q2’12</th>
<th>Q3’12</th>
<th>Q4’12</th>
<th>Q1’13</th>
<th>Q2’13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Series A</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series B</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series C</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series D</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series E and Higher</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fenwick & West Data on Legal Terms

LIQUIDATION PREFERENCE — Senior liquidation preferences were used in the following percentages of financings.

The percentage of senior liquidation preference by series was as follows:
**Multiple Liquidation Preferences** — The percentage of senior liquidation preferences that were multiple liquidation preferences were as follows:

![Graph showing percentage of senior liquidation preferences]

Of the senior liquidation preferences that were a multiple preference, the ranges of the multiples broke down as follows:

![Graph showing range of multiples]

- **Multiplier Range**:
  - **>1x - 2x**: 0%
  - **>2x - 3x**: 14%
  - **>3x**: 0%

- **Yearly Breakdown**:% of multiple liquidation preferences
  - **Q3'11**: 21%
  - **Q4'11**: 13%
  - **Q1'12**: 19%
  - **Q2'12**: 3%
  - **Q3'12**: 17%
  - **Q4'12**: 4%
  - **Q1'13**: 23%
  - **Q2'13**: 11%
PARTICIPATION IN LIQUIDATION — The percentages of financings that provided for participation were as follows:

Of the financings that had participation, the percentages that were not capped were as follows:
CUMULATIVE DIVIDENDS – Cumulative dividends were provided for in the following percentages of financings:

* Note that the use of cumulative dividends increased noticeably in 3Q12. We note that 46% of the financings using cumulative dividends were in the life science industry, and that 38% of the financings (and 33% of the life science financings) using cumulative dividends did not provide for a participating liquidation preference, suggesting that in those financings’ cumulative dividends were used as a substitute for participating liquidation preference.

ANTIDILUTION PROVISIONS – The uses of antidilution provisions in the financings were as follows:
PAY-TO-PLAY PROVISIONS – The percentages of financings having pay-to-play provisions were as follows:

Note that anecdotal evidence indicates that companies are increasingly using contractual “pull up” provisions instead of charter based “pay to play” provisions. These two types of provisions have similar economic effect but are implemented differently. The above information includes some, but likely not all, pull up provisions, and accordingly may understate the use of these provisions.

REDEMPTION – The percentages of financings providing for mandatory redemption or redemption at the option of the investor were as follows:
CORPORATE REORGANIZATIONS – The percentages of post-Series A financings involving a corporate reorganization (i.e. reverse splits or conversion of shares into another series or classes of shares) were as follows:
Footnote

1 When comparing current period results to prior period results based on third party data (e.g., amounts invested by venture capitalists, amount of M&A proceeds, etc.), we use the prior period results initially published by the third party for the period, not the results that have been updated with additional information over time, to provide better comparability with the current period published results. For example, when comparing fourth quarter results to third quarter results, we use the initially published third quarter results, typically provided in October, not the updated results that are typically provided in January. Such situations are set forth in our report with a parenthetical as to the date the information was initially reported.

Note on Methodology.

When interpreting the Barometer results please bear in mind that the results reflect the average price increase of companies raising money in a given quarter compared to their prior round of financing, which was in general 12 to 18 months prior. Given that venture capitalists (and their investors) generally look for at least a 20% IRR to justify the risk that they are taking, and that by definition we are not taking into account those companies that were unable to raise a new financing (and that likely resulted in a loss to investors), a Barometer increase in the 40% range should be considered normal.

Disclaimer.

The preparation of the information contained herein involves assumptions, compilations and analysis, and there can be no assurance that the information provided herein is error-free. Neither Fenwick & West LLP nor any of its partners, associates, staff or agents shall have any liability for any information contained herein, including any errors or incompleteness. The contents of this report are not intended, and should not be considered, as legal advice or opinion.

Contact/Sign Up Information

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To be placed on an email list for future editions of this survey please visit fenwick.com/vcsurvey and go to the sign-up link at the bottom of the page.

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Explanation of Certain Terms Used in Venture Financing Terms Survey
Common Stock
Common stock is the basic equity interest in a company. It is typically the type of stock held by founders and employees.

Preferred Stock
Preferred stock has various “preferences” over common stock. These preferences can include liquidation preferences, dividend rights, redemption rights, conversion rights and voting rights, as described in more detail below. Venture capitalists and other investors in private companies typically receive preferred stock for their investment.

“Series” of Preferred Stock
When a company raises venture capital in a preferred stock financing, it typically designates the shares of preferred stock sold in that financing with a letter. The shares sold in the first financing are usually designated “Series A”, the second “Series B”, the third “Series C” and so forth. Shares of the same series all have the same rights, but shares of different series can have very different rights.

Liquidation Preference
“Liquidation preference” refers to the dollar amount that a holder of a series of preferred stock will receive prior to holders of common stock in the event that the company is sold—or the company is otherwise liquidated and its assets distributed to stockholders. For example, if holders of preferred stock have a liquidation preference equal to $30 million and the company is sold, they will receive the first $30 million before common stockholders receive any amounts. The liquidation preference amount can be paid in cash or stock of an acquiror.

Senior Liquidation Preference
A series of preferred stock has a “senior” liquidation preference when it is entitled to receive its liquidation preference before another series of preferred stock. All series of preferred stock will, of course, be “senior” to the common stock simply by virtue of having a liquidation preference. For example, if the Series B has a $30 million senior liquidation preference and the Series A has a $25 million liquidation preference and the company is sold for $40 million, the Series B will receive $30 million and the Series A will receive $10 million.

Multiple Liquidation Preference
The amount of liquidation preference that a given series of preferred stock has is usually equal to the amount paid for the stock. However, in certain financings new investors may require that their liquidation preference amount be equal to more than the amount they originally invested—often referred to as a “multiple” liquidation preference. Multiples tend to be one and one-half to three times the purchase price. A multiple liquidation preference will almost always also be a senior liquidation preference as well. For example, if the Series B was purchased for $30 million, but has a senior liquidation preference equal to two times the purchase price, then the Series B investors will receive the first $60 million on any sale of the company before the Series A or common stockholders receive any amounts.

Participation
Preferred stock is said to “participate” or to have “participation” rights when, after the holders of preferred stock receive their full liquidation preference amount, they are then entitled to share with the holders of common stock in the remaining amount being paid for the company, or otherwise distributed to stockholders.
For example, if the company is sold for $200 million, the preferred stock has a liquidation preference of $30 million and the preferred stock represents 40% of the total number of outstanding shares of the company, then the $200 million would be distributed among stockholders as follows:

1. First $30 million—paid to holders of preferred stock per their liquidation preference
2. Remaining $170 million:
   - Preferred stock holders receive their 40% pro rata share ($68 million) per their participation rights
   - Common stock holders receive remaining 60% ($102 million)

Totals: Preferred stock holders—$98 million
        Common stock holders—$102 million

**Capped Participation**

Participation rights are described as “capped” when the participation rights of the preferred stock are limited so that the preferred stock stops participating in the proceeds of a sale, or other distribution, after it has received back a pre-determined dollar amount—caps typically range from three to five times the original amount invested.

Building on the previous example, if the participation rights of the preferred stock were capped at a 3x multiple of their liquidation preference amount—3x includes the amount of liquidation preference—then the result would be that the preferred stock would receive only an additional $60 million in participation in step (2) above. Thus, the total amount received by the holders of preferred stock would be $90 million—down from $98 million without a cap—and the amount received by the holders of common stock would increase to $110 million—up from $102 million.

*Note: If the price paid for the company in this example were substantially higher (e.g., $275 million) then the holders of preferred stock would convert to common stock, thereby giving up their liquidation preference, in order to eliminate the 3x cap, because 40% of $275 million equals $110 million, which is $12 million more than the preferred would receive if they did not convert and were subject to the 3x cap.*

**Cumulative Dividends**

Holders of preferred stock having a cumulative dividend right are entitled to be paid, in addition to a liquidation preference, an amount equal to a certain percentage per year of the purchase price for the preferred stock—typically five to eight percent. For example, if the preferred stock purchase price was $20 million, and the stock had a 1x liquidation preference and a six percent cumulative dividend, and if the company was sold after three years, then the preferred stock holders would be entitled to $23.6 million before anything was paid on the common stock. In some circumstances cumulative dividends must be paid annually, but this is unusual in venture financed companies.

**Conversion Rate**

Almost all preferred stock issued in venture financings can be converted into common stock at the option of the holder of preferred stock. The typical initial conversion rate is one share of preferred stock converts into one share of common stock. However, the conversion rate can change for a number of reasons, such as stock splits or antidilution adjustments.

**Antidilution Provisions**

Antidilution provisions retroactively reduce the per share purchase price of preferred stock if the company sells stock in the future at a lower prices. This is effected by increasing the conversion rate of the preferred and accordingly increasing the number of shares of common stock into which a share of preferred stock converts.

There are two main types of antidilution protection: weighted average antidilution protection and ratchet antidilution protection.
**Weighted Average Antidilution**

Weighted average antidilution provisions, which are the milder form of antidilution protection, increase the conversion rate of the preferred stock based on a formula that is intended to take into account the overall economic effect of the sale of new stock by the company. The formula includes variables for the price at which new stock is sold, the price at which the old preferred stock was sold, the total number of new shares issued and the total number of shares outstanding.

**Ratchet Antidilution**

Ratchet antidilution provisions, which are the tougher form of antidilution protection, increase the conversion rate of the preferred stock based on the price per share at which the company sells its stock in a future down round, regardless of how few or how many new shares are sold at the lower price. This has the effect of retroactively reducing the price per share that the preferred was sold in the current round to the new, lower valuation of a future down round.

**Pay to Play**

Pay to play provisions impose penalties on investors for not investing their full pro rata share in the next round—typically only if the next round is a down round. The more severe version of these penalties is to provide that investors who do not invest their full pro rata amount will have their existing preferred stock converted into common stock, resulting in the loss of their liquidation preference and antidilution protection, among other rights. A less severe version is to convert the preferred stock into a different series of preferred often referred to as “shadow preferred,” that retains some or all of its liquidation preference, but loses anti-dilution protection, both for the subject financing and going forward.

**Redemption**

Redemption provisions allow investors to require the company to repurchase their preferred stock under certain circumstances, typically for the price originally paid. Redemption rights usually cannot be exercised unless the holders of at least a majority, sometimes more, of the preferred stock so request and usually cannot be exercised for four to five years after the financing. In certain circumstances, redemption provisions may provide for a right of exercise more quickly or for a repurchase at more than the original purchase price.

**Corporate Reorganization**

Corporate reorganizations typically refer to either (a) the conversion of existing preferred stock into common stock, or into a new series of preferred stock with a substantially reduced liquidation preference amount and/or (b) a reverse stock split of outstanding stock. Corporate reorganizations are usually implemented to reset the economic interests of existing stockholders to current economic realities so as to facilitate the company’s ability to attract additional investment and to provide appropriate incentive to the management team. The conversion of existing preferred stock into common or a new series of preferred stock has a significant economic effect, as those stockholders will often lose substantial liquidation preferences and other rights. A reverse stock split has no economic effect in and of itself, but is usually undertaken when a company’s stock price has fallen significantly and the company wants to raise it to a more typical range.

For additional information about this glossary please contact Barry Kramer at 650-335-7278; bkramer@fenwick.com or Michael Patrick at 650-335-7273; mpatrick@fenwick.com at Fenwick & West. To be placed on an e-mail list for future editions of the Fenwick & West Venture Terms Survey please go to www.fenwick.com/vctrends.htm.

Nothing in the foregoing glossary is intended to constitute legal advice or to establish an attorney-client relationship between Fenwick & West (or the authors) and any other person. The circumstances of each venture financing are different and persons involved in such financings are encouraged to seek independent legal advice from counsel experienced in representing participants in such transactions.
Introduction

This is a brief summary of the process for raising initial funding in the Bay Area for high technology companies. We hope to help entrepreneurs seeking initial funding understand the alternatives, identify potential funding sources and, most importantly, understand the practical realities of raising initial funding in the Bay Area.

Although a number of business forms exist (e.g., limited liability companies, limited partnerships, general partnerships, S-Corps), we assume that your high technology enterprise will be formed as a C-Corp. The C-Corp form is almost always selected for many good reasons. Nonetheless, under some particular circumstances, one of the other forms may be chosen. Again, the following discussion assumes that you will form a C-Corp.

Although we touch upon initial funding from the entrepreneur and “friends and family,” the primary focus of the following discussion is how you can maximize your probability of obtaining initial funding from institutional angels and/or VCs. Both of these groups are sophisticated investors that insist upon thoroughly vetting your company. We want to prepare you to achieve success in this vetting process by getting the attention of institutional angels and VCs and by performing well when you are “on stage.”

Seed Capital Financings

Seed capital is primarily available from the entrepreneur, “friends and family,” an institutional angel investor and/or a prospective customer. Seed capital financing is needed to form the C-Corp, clear its name, create its by-laws and other corporate documents, create a stock option plan and complete other preliminary matters as well as to satisfy the validation requirements for a VC financing. “Friends and family” investors invest basically because they trust the entrepreneur, and thus the polished materials (discussed below) you will prepare to attempt to get the attention of institutional angels and VCs often are not required. “Friends and family” are the most likely source of seed financing for a first time entrepreneur. Many institutional angels approach these initial financings much like a VC and want the validation required by a VC. Major Bay Area angel groups include the Angels Forum, Band of Angels, Keiretsu Forum, Life Sciences Angels and Sandhill Angels.

Seed financing usually comes in the form of the purchase of common stock, preferred stock or notes convertible into common or preferred stock or a combination of a convertible note and selling common stock. Selling common stock by itself often is not useful for the seed financing because of the dilutive effect. Consider the number of shares at $0.01 per share needed to be sold to raise even $100. A low price of common stock, however, is useful to motivate employees and other service providers who will be granted attractively priced options or shares of common stock. Pricing of common stock must be same for all sales at or about the same time. Common stock is sold at the same price as options are granted when combined with the sale of a convertible note.

If preferred stock is used for the seed financing, the company must be valued. Preferred stock can be complicated and expensive to use even if raising a small amount of money. The cost of raising money should be proportionate to amount raised and it may not be if preferred stock is used at an early stage. By its nature, preferred stock provides its holders with protective voting rights including control over the next round of financing and in acquisitions.

Convertible notes for “next financing” preferred stock are often used for seed capital financings. This approach defers the valuation determination and keeps the financing simple and low cost. A discount on the conversion price in the “next financing” (or warrants) is often used as a “sweetener” for taking added risk.

First VC Round

VCs generally invest via the purchase of preferred stock that is convertible into common stock. On occasion they may purchase convertible notes. VCs will thoroughly vet your company scrutinizing the materials described below if you can get their attention.

Defining the Business and Communicating its Value

Preparing and refining an elevator pitch, executive summary and power point presentation for institutional angels and/or VCs to fully understand the business, its value
proposition and the execution steps is a critical part of the initial fundraising process. The following materials should be prepared for communicating with prospective investors and others. They need to be clear, concise and persuasive because if you are unable to create high quality versions of these materials, you almost certainly will be unable to attract the attention of institutional angels and VCs:

- 30 second elevator pitch
  - This is your “attract” mode for the purpose of persuading the target person to take the next step of asking questions

- 2 page executive summary which covers the following business points:
  - The Problem and Solution
    - What is the pain point and how are you solving it? The product must be “need to have, right now.”
  - Market Size
    - How big is the market? Is it at least $1B?
  - Sales Strategy and Channels
    - How will you acquire customers?
  - Intellectual Property Position
    - Do you have protectible IP and how will you protect it? For example, have you filed provisional or full patent applications?
  - Competition
    - What is your “unfair” competitive advantage?
  - Management Team
    - Can the initial team execute at least through product development?
  - Pro-Forma Financials for 3-5 years
    - What initial valuation will the projected revenue numbers justify?

- 8-12 slide PowerPoint presentation
  - The first bullet point of the first slide is the most important.

Be prepared to give the 30-second elevator pitch when meeting potential investors (or people who can introduce you to investors), potential customers or people who might join your team. Even your lawyer will want to hear it. Bay Area networking events provide access to potential investors, team members, customers and others who can help build a business. Make sure there is a clear “unfair” competitive advantage in the 30-second pitch — why is your company “special?” Being a cheaper alternative to a larger, better financed competitor is unlikely to be persuasive.

You will need validation of the technical feasibility of the product and its market need in order to get VC investment. This requires credible referenceable customers who will actively support the product in discussions with potential investors. You need one or more Fortune 100 type customers or a critical mass group of smaller customers. It is very difficult to raise venture capital without market validation. Validation is a “chicken and egg” problem in some spaces. In a chip business, for example, validation requires money while a software or Internet business may be able to reach validation with mostly “sweat” equity.

You will also need to demonstrate the market size is large enough (generally at least $1B) to provide investors with an acceptable ROI through an “exit event” (IPO or acquisition). Even if the product works and you have referenceable customers, most venture capitalists do not want to invest in a small business. This does not mean it isn’t a good business, only that it has to be financed in another way.

**Forming the Team**

Your team can be assembled from friends and other business contacts and through meeting people at Bay Area networking events. In most cases, the technical founder must be from and have credibility in the business space of the company. The initial team needs to include someone who can credibly identify market requirements. Investors don’t invest in technology; they invest in companies with a product that the market wants that generates scalable revenues. Defining and refining product requirements is a continuous task.

**Meeting Angels and VCs**

Many Bay Area marketing events provide an opportunity to meet institutional angels and venture capitalists and to learn their business segments of interest and investment criteria. There are usually a number of VCs at AAMA and TIE events and SVASE and other organizations offer small group meetings with VCs.

The best route to an institutional angel or a VC is through an introduction from someone they know such as a lawyer, accountant or another institutional angel or VC. Fenwick & West, for example, has a venture capital services group whose primary purpose is to introduce our clients to prospective investors. This approach usually results in the institutional angel or VC reading at least the pain point/
Basic Legal Issues

Federal and state securities laws need to be complied with in selling securities to investors. Investors have, in effect, a money-back guarantee from the company and possibly its officers if you do not comply. Borrowing money from persons not in the business of making loans is a security under these laws. You should seek investment only from accredited investors or a tight circle of friends and family.

Due diligence by both professional angels and VCs includes a hard look at intellectual property ownership. An initial focus will be the relationship of the technical founders to their prior employers' technology. In California, even if the technical founder has not used any of his prior employer's resources, trade secrets or other property, the prior employer may have a claim to any inventions that relate to the prior employer's business or actual or demonstrably anticipated research or development under California Labor Code section 2870. There is much tension on this issue because entrepreneurs are reluctant to give up their jobs without funding. This means there may be a "hot" departure of the technical founder from the old employer and a "hot" start at the new company without any cooling off period or, even worse, an overlap of the technical founder working for both companies at the same time. Some entrepreneurs underestimate this risk since their perception is that many Bay Area companies have been started in the past by entrepreneurs who leave a company and start a company in the same space. Trying to delay a departure until funding is imminent is very risky and may in fact materially reduce the probability of funding. Investors will not want to buy into a lawsuit.

Another key due diligence item is rights to stock and other equity. The entrepreneur needs to have discipline in promising stock both to reduce claims to stock and to comply with securities laws. Introductions to institutional angels and VCs can usually be arranged without the use of a finder.

Use of Finders

You may be approached by a “finder” who offers to help you raise money through introductions to prospective investors. Do a reference check on the finder’s track record. If the finder is asking for a “success” then the finder needs to be a registered broker dealer under federal and state securities laws. Institutional angels and VCs will not look kindly upon the use of a finder who has a claim to cash from the proceeds of the investment. Introductions to institutional angels and VCs can usually be arranged without the use of a finder.

Venture Lending

Once a first VC round has closed that includes material VC participation, it may be possible to obtain additional financing from institutions that specialize in venture lending to early stage companies, which may be pre-revenue. These financings help extend the companies cash. A critical factor in the decision of these lenders to enter into a financial arrangement is the quality of the VCs in the first VC round. Inevitably these lenders will receive an equity “kicker” usually in the form of company warrants. The lenders are banks (e.g., Comerica Bank, Silicon Valley Bank, Bridge Bank) or funds (Western Technology, Lighthouse Capital, Gold Hill Capital, Pinnacle). The banks and funds tend to have somewhat different deal terms and deal size limitations.

solution paragraph of the executive summary. The Silicon Valley Bank Venture Exchange program provides a good way to be introduced to potential investors.

In determining which institutional angels and VCs to try to meet, you should review a potential institutional angel or VC’s portfolio to make sure there is no competitive investment.

Company Presentation Events

There are several organizations in the Bay Area, which provide regularly scheduled (usually monthly) opportunities for entrepreneurs to present their companies to potential investors. These are so-called “amplification” events because an entrepreneur can reach more prospective investors with a single presentation. Each organization has a screening process and some charge entrepreneurs to present. Several of the organizations focus on a single business segment in each meeting since investors interested in the space will be more likely to attend if there will be a number of companies of interest presenting.

If you have any questions about this memorandum, please contact Blake Stafford (bstafford@fenwick.com) of Fenwick & West LLP (telephone: 650.988.8500).
Outsourcing of technology-related services continues to grow. Many service engagements now include an offshore component. These overseas arrangements can reduce the cost of the business activity but they also present different issues for both parties, which need to be addressed in the agreement. Further, there is intense competition among service providers which leads to considerable pressure on pricing and on negotiating the other business and legal terms of the transaction. Many service providers may promise anything to get the deal. You need to try to avoid every deal being a “bet the company” deal. There will always be some risk-taking but the challenge is to balance risk allocation among the parties with the need to stand behind the quality of services. A provider’s credibility and business acumen is visible in its agreements and negotiation positions. A welldrafted and negotiated agreement can lead to a stronger long-term business relationship.

This paper addresses the key agreement provisions from the service provider’s vantage point and identifies the risks and consequences of such provisions. It highlights areas that a service provider should include in its standard agreements to speed up revenue generation and avoid problem situations.

1. Master Agreements. The best business practice is to use a master agreement so additional services or projects can be performed for the same customer simply by adding an agreed-upon statement of work which is signed by both parties. This will lower the cost and reduce the time to document additional deals with the same customer. Any changes in the allocation of risk for a specific project can be made in the applicable statement of work.

2. Revenue Recognition. Avoid broad customer remedies that postpone revenue recognition. For example, if the customer may receive a full refund upon a breach of a performance warranty at any time during the agreement, recognition of the revenue from the agreement may be delayed until the end of the agreement. Another example is a provision that provides a full refund if a software deliverable is not accepted by a customer even if interim deliverables have been accepted and payments made upon such deliveries.

3. Agreement Signing. Make sure the agreement or statement of work is signed by the customer before beginning work. While there are legal theories (quasi contract, quantum meruit) that may provide a means of recovery in the absence of a signed agreement, the best business practice is to have a signed agreement in place. Ignoring the temptation to begin work before an agreement is signed may be difficult but you will be at risk if you start work prematurely.

4. Customer Credit Risk. You may need to do fundamental financial due diligence on the credit risk of a potential customer. Some potential customers may represent they have funding when they do not. While you may need to take some credit risk, do so on an informed basis by having access to basic financial information (such as a D&B report, balance sheet or bank statement) to evaluate this risk.

5. Termination Rights; Payment. Relatedly, be sure the agreement can be terminated or at least work can be suspended within a reasonable time if the customer fails to pay you in accordance with the payment schedule. For example, if payment terms are net 30 days and there is a 30-day notice and cure period before termination is effective, you will have to continue work through at least a 60-day period before termination is effective. At a minimum, this means you have to keep working and have a high risk receivable for the 60-day period before termination can be effective. This period should be shortened to reduce your exposure. Sometimes a customer proposes a provision that provides there is no right to terminate if the payment obligation is disputed by the customer. Such a provision means you have no leverage to be paid and could be obligated to keep working indefinitely. To provide leverage
to be paid, assignment of IP ownership to the customer should be conditioned on receiving full payment.

6. Operational Coverage. Ensure the agreement permits delivery of the services in the manner that you operate. For example, if an offshore subsidiary corporation will actually deliver all or part of the services to the customer, the agreement must permit subcontracts so delivery can be accomplished that way. Subsidiaries are separate legal entities and you must have a subcontract in place to cover their responsibilities. Confidentiality provisions are another example. They must permit disclosure of the customers’ confidential information to the extent needed to protect all parties in the delivery cycle. The agreement would be breached if confidential information is released to a subcontractor when disclosure is permitted only between the parties to the agreement. Unless expressly allowed, only the parties and their employees (but not subcontractors or consultants) are covered.

7. Service Level/Performance Warranties. Define the level of service performance and schedule as clearly and realistically as possible. The performance level is sometimes referred to as an express performance warranty. Delivery metrics such as response time, service results, network or application downtime percentages, etc. should be defined as objectively as possible to reduce disputes over measurement. Exaggerated claims of performance will be quickly discovered and will destroy the ongoing relationship, so be realistic and precise. When using a master agreement, performance levels can be addressed in the applicable statement of work since requirements may vary by service engagement even for the same customer.

8. Implied Performance Warranties. Disclaim implied performance warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose to avoid the possibility that there are performance requirements beyond the express warranties. The Uniform Commercial Code (“UCC”) is intended to apply to products but you should assume it will apply to a services agreement at least when software or other technology is being developed. For example: “EXCEPT AS OTHERWISE EXPRESSLY PROVIDED IN THIS AGREEMENT, SERVICE PROVIDER HEREBY DISCLAIMS ALL WARRANTIES, OF ANY KIND, EXPRESS OR IMPLIED INCLUDING, WITHOUT LIMITATION, ANY IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY OR FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE.” The capitalized wording should satisfy the conspicuousness requirement of the UCC.

9. Intellectual Property. Make sure you continue to own all pre-existing patents, copyrights, trade secrets and other intellectual property (“IP”) before entering into the agreement and also, to the extent feasible, (1) any improvements or derivative works to such pre-existing IP and (2) other IP developed that may be repeatedly used in your business. In addition, to provide leverage to be paid, any assignment of IP ownership to the customer should be conditioned on being fully paid. Sometimes “joint ownership” with the customer without any duty of accounting to the other is an acceptable compromise at least as to the improvements to pre-existing IP. As a practical matter, there will be intense pressure from the customer to own IP. The best practice may be to allocate IP ownership in the applicable statement of work since it may vary by service engagement. The service provider will likely have to bear the risk of any claims of IP infringement or misappropriation in its deliverables.

Service businesses must not ignore their IP. Most service businesses have IP of some type. For example, IP includes the copyright and possible trade secrets in a database of domain knowledge in a technical support business and script in a call center business. It also includes the copyrights, possible trade secrets and patents in software routines that are incorporated into a software deliverable and software tools used in a network support business.

10. Damages Exclusions and Limitations. Economic exposure varies widely depending on the type of service. For example, the exposure from a tax return preparation service is considerably different from a call center business doing outbound sales calls. In all cases, exclude consequential, special, indirect and incidental type damages and, to the extent feasible, cap direct damages. Try to cap direct damages at the amounts paid in a payment period (month, quarter) rather than the total payments made under the agreement. Otherwise, the economic effect is that you have not been paid even for the good service you provided. Following are sample provisions: “In no event will either party be liable for any form of special, incidental, indirect or consequential damages of any kind, even if aware of the possibility of such damages. Service Provider’s total liability under this Agreement will not exceed the amounts paid by customer during the three (3) months immediately preceding the date of the applicable claim.” The UCC does not contain the conspicuousness requirement for these provisions.

11. Insurance Requirement. Comply with the workmen’s compensation and liability insurance requirements of
your customer. Work with an insurance broker who fully understands your business. Make sure your insurance covers all parties in the delivery process. For example, a special rider may be needed to cover the exposure of employees of a subsidiary corporation particularly if they are offshore. The named insured on a policy may not extend to these separate legal entities or the actions of their employees.

12. Force Majeure. Use a force majeure provision, particularly for service offerings involving delivery over a network. For example, if you are using overseas affiliates to provide services and there is a disruption in service caused by an earthquake, the agreement should not be terminated. The agreement should provide an opportunity for recovery within a specified period. Termination may occur only if recovery doesn’t occur within the period.

13. Governing Law. Choose a governing law to provide more certainty to the interpretation of the agreement and, to be sure it will apply, use the clause: “excluding that body of law known as conflicts of law”, following the choice of law. For example: “This Agreement will be governed by the laws of California excluding that body of law known as conflicts of law.” The chosen law must have a relationship to the parties or the transaction such as being the state of their principal office or incorporation.

14. Dispute Resolution. Adopt a dispute resolution procedure that elevates the resolution process in an orderly, timely way. The first step could be a discussion between CEOs and the next step, non-binding mediation. Use binding arbitration as the ultimate mechanism to resolve disputes in order to increase the chances of maintaining the relationship. To avoid frivolous claims by either party, designate the arbitration site to be the customer’s business location when you request arbitration and your business location if the customer requests arbitration.

15. Entire Agreement. Include an entire agreement provision so that verbal agreements do not become part of the agreement and amendments may only be implemented in writing. The following provisions do so: “This Agreement and the exhibits hereto constitute the entire agreement and understanding of the parties with respect to the subject matter of this Agreement, and supersede all prior understandings and agreements, whether oral or written, between or among the parties hereto with respect to the specific subject matter hereof. This Agreement may be amended only in a writing signed by both parties.”

A service provider’s credibility and business acumen is visible in its agreements and negotiation positions. Because of the competitive environment there may be a great temptation to accept almost any terms or credit risk in order to get a deal. You need to make sure risk allocation is balanced. Securing a deal on any terms may mean you work for free.
1. What is a patent?

A patent is a legal right to exclude others from practicing the patented invention for a limited period of time in exchange for disclosing the details of the invention to the public. An owner of a United States patent can exclude others making, using, offering for sale, or selling their invention in the United States, importing their invention into the United States, exporting a substantial portion of the invention for assembly into the invention overseas, or exporting components overseas that were especially made or adapted for use in a system that infringes and those components are not staple articles of commerce suitable for substantial non-infringing use.

There are several different types of patents in the United States. Utility patents are the most common, and they cover processes, machines, articles of manufacture, and compositions of matter. Design patents cover the ornamental features (i.e., appearance) of a product. Plant patents cover newly developed varieties of plants provided they can be reproduced asexually.

2. What can be patented?

The United States Patent Law specifies the broad categories of what can be patented. Any useful, new and nonobvious process, machine, article that is made, or chemical composition, or improvement of any of the above can be patented. Business methods and software can also be patented, but laws of nature and abstract ideas cannot be patented. (For more information on what “useful, new, and nonobvious” means, see “Is my invention patentable?”)

3. Is my invention patentable? What are the standards my invention has to meet?

Not all inventions are patentable. In the United States, an invention has to be useful, new, and not obvious. An invention generally is assumed to be useful unless there is some reason to believe that it will not work. It is new if it differs from previously existing technology. It is nonobvious if the differences from the previously existing technology would not be obvious to ordinary practitioners in the relevant technological field. Patentable inventions need not be pioneering breakthroughs. A patent can be obtained on modest improvements in existing technology as long as the improvements are useful, new, and not obvious.

4. How long does it take to get an issued patent?

The length of time it takes to obtain an issued patent varies significantly depending on the technology area. The backlog of patent applications filed with the United States Patent and Trademark Office (“PTO”) and waiting for examination is considerable. Some technology areas are appreciably slower than others. For software and financial inventions, the PTO predicts that the delay between an application being filed and when an Examiner reviews the patent application for the first time could exceed five years. In other technology areas, such as optics, an Examiner may review the patent application within one to two years of the filing date. Typically, after the Examiner has reviewed a patent application for the first time, it may take one to two additional years of back and forth communications with the Examiner to come to an agreement as to the scope and wording of the patent claims and get the patent issued. There are some provisions for speeding up review when there is active infringement by others of the invention.

5. What are the parts of a patent application?

A United States patent application typically contains the following sections: Background, Summary of the Invention, Brief Description of the Drawings, Detailed Description, Claims, Abstract, and Drawings. These sections are briefly described below.

The Background identifies and describes some of the problems solved by the invention. This section may also describe conventional solutions to the problems and the shortcomings of such solutions. The Summary of the Invention briefly describes the structure and operation of at least one embodiment of the invention. The Detailed Description describes in detail the structure and operation of one or more embodiments of the invention. From a legal perspective, it is essential that this section adequately describes the invention, enables a person skilled in the relevant art to make and use the claimed
invention, and describes the best mode known to the applicant for carrying out the claimed invention. The Claims identify the exact scope of the rights provided by the patent. The Claims of a patent are analogous to the legal description in a deed to real property. The Abstract presents a one paragraph summary of the subject matter described in the application. The Drawings illustrate the structure and operation of the invention.

6. Is there anything less expensive or faster to file than a full-blown patent application? What is a Provisional Patent Application?

A United States provisional application can be filed when there is either limited time or funding to prepare a full non-provisional utility patent application, or when an applicant wants to wait up to a year to see how the market responds to technology to determine whether to proceed with a full patent application.

A provisional application allows an applicant to get a U.S. filing date without all the formal requirements of non-provisional utility applications, such as claims, formal drawings, an oath or declaration by the inventor, and the higher filing fee. However, the provisional patent application must still describe the invention with the same level of detail that is required for utility patent applications. The provisional application does not receive a substantive examination by the PTO. Instead, the applicant has up to 12 months to file a corresponding complete application with claims. The priority date established by the provisional filing only applies to claims for which there was an enabling disclosure in the provisional application.

Alternatively, inventors can submit Statutory Invention Registrations to the United States PTO. Although these documents are not patent applications and will not issue as patents, they will be published by the PTO. Therefore, they become available as prior art that may block others from subsequently gaining patent rights to the disclosed invention. Note that the tradeoff is that the publishing inventor may be giving up their ability to protect the invention under trade secret law.

7. Do you have to do a prior art search before applying for a patent?

No, an applicant does not need to perform a prior art search at any time during the patenting process. There is, however, an obligation in the United States to disclose to the PTO all material information known to the inventors, and anyone else participating in the application process, during the application process.

8. How does the PTO decide whether to issue a patent?

Once a patent application is filed with the United States PTO, it is assigned to a patent examiner who works in a specific area or areas of technology. Because of the application backlog, one to five years may pass before the examiner actually reviews the application. Typically, after reviewing the application, the examiner sends an “office action” to the patent attorney or agent involved in the application, listing both objections as to the form of the application and to the substance, often including citations to previous patents and other prior art documents that the examiner considers raise questions about the patentability of the claims presented to him or her.

A patent applicant can then respond in writing to the office action, offering either arguments as to why the objection should be withdrawn, or amendments to the claims to address the objections raised by the examiner. An applicant may also request an interview with the examiner. The examiner may then either agree with the reasoning in the response and “allow” the pending claims, or send another office action with the same or additional objections.

9. What happens if my patent claims are rejected by the PTO?

If the applicant and the U.S. examiner reach an impasse over an issue, the examiner issues a “final” action. The applicant can then either appeal to a special board of the PTO or decide not to pursue the argument. If the applicant decides not to pursue the argument, the applicant can either abandon the application or start the examination process over by using various “continuation” procedures.

10. What is a restriction requirement in a patent application?

A U.S. patent applicant is entitled to examination of one invention per application. If two or more inventions are claimed in a single application, the Examiner may issue a “restriction requirement” that forces the Applicant to select one of the inventions to be examined. The claims to any other invention can be put into a separate application, which if filed while the first application is still pending, should be entitled to the benefit of the filing date of the first application.
11. What do the terms “patent pending” and “patent applied for” mean?

Once a patent issues, one way the patentholder can give notice of its patent rights is to mark products incorporating the invention with the word “Patent” or “Pat.” and the patent number. A patent notice must typically be placed directly on the patented article, unless such a marking is not physically feasible. Patent marking is not mandatory but can help the patentee accrue money damages if it pursues litigation against patent infringers. Marking articles with the terms “Patent Pending” or “Patent Applied For” has no legal effect.

12. Can I keep the content of my patent application a secret until it issues? When will a patent application publish?

Until recently, the United States PTO maintained patent applications in strict secrecy until a patent issued. However, the PTO now by default publishes patent applications approximately 18 months from their original priority date. An applicant can opt out of publication by filing an appropriate request at the time the application is filed. However, this option cannot be pursued (and an existing request not to publish must be rescinded) if the applicant pursues any international applications that have a publication requirement, such as a PCT application (discussed below).

Publication can be beneficial to the patent applicant, as provisional enforcement rights for the period between the dates of publication and patent grant are potentially available, so long as the published claims are substantially identical to the claims ultimately granted in the patent.

However, if an application is not published and during prosecution it appears that the PTO will not allow claims or only allow extremely narrow claims, the applicant can still decide to abandon the application in favor of continued trade secret protection.

13. When are patent maintenance fees due?

U.S. maintenance fees on all utility patents that issue from applications filed on or after December 12, 1980, are due at 3.5, 7.5, and 11.5 years from the date the patent is granted. These fees can be paid without a surcharge up to six months before they are due. A six-month grace period after the due date is available upon payment of a surcharge. Failure to pay the current maintenance fee on time may result in the patent expiring.

14. What types of activities before I file an application will prevent me from being granted a patent?

An applicant must file a patent application before or on the date of public use or disclosure anywhere in the world in order to obtain patent rights in many foreign countries.

In the United States, the answer is a bit more complicated. The following table summarizes the types of activities by an applicant or third party that can prevent an inventor from being granted a patent on an invention:

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<tr>
<th>ACTOR</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>LOCATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inventor</td>
<td>abandoned the invention</td>
<td>at any time</td>
<td>anywhere in the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inventor</td>
<td>derived or stole the invention from</td>
<td>before the date of invention</td>
<td>anywhere in the world</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>third-party</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inventor</td>
<td>patents the invention in another</td>
<td>more than one year before filing</td>
<td>outside the U.S.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>country</td>
<td>a US patent application</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone</td>
<td>patented or described the invention</td>
<td>more than one year before filing</td>
<td>anywhere in the world</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in a printed publication. A reference is a printed publication if it is made available in tangible form and accessible to those interested in the field.</td>
<td>the filing date of the patent application</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone</td>
<td>offered for sale, sold, or publicly</td>
<td>more than one year before filing</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>used or disclosed the invention</td>
<td>the date of the patent application</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third-party</td>
<td>knew or used the invention</td>
<td>before the date of invention</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third-party</td>
<td>patented or described the invention</td>
<td>before the date of invention</td>
<td>anywhere in the world</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third-party</td>
<td>filed a patent application that</td>
<td>before the date of invention</td>
<td>anywhere in the world</td>
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<td>ultimately issues as a patent, or</td>
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<td></td>
<td>published a PCT application in English, that describes the invention.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third-party</td>
<td>invented the invention and did not</td>
<td>before the date of invention</td>
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<td></td>
<td>abandon or conceal it</td>
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Even if the invention itself was not publicly disclosed, known, or used, in any of the above ways, any information that was publicly disclosed, known, or used as set forth above will still bar a patent if it makes the claimed invention obvious. The above chart is
not exhaustive. Particularly since engaging in certain activities may destroy the ability to patent an invention, it is strongly recommended that you consult with legal counsel prior to engaging in conduct concerning your invention.

15. Can I change the content of my patent application after I file it?

In the United States, an applicant can make only limited changes to the patent application after it is filed. An applicant can correct typographical errors, submit formal versions of informal drawings, and amend the claims if there is support for the claim amendments in the originally filed patent application. No new information can be added to a patent application after it is filed. If you want to add new information or material to the description of the invention, you must file a new patent application that will lose the benefit of the earlier filing date for at least the new information and material.

16. How do I correct a mistake in an issued patent?

If a clerical error was made by the United States PTO, such as typographical errors made in printing the patent, the PTO may issue a Certificate of Correction upon the applicant’s request. Some minor typographical errors made by the applicant may also be corrected by submitting a request for a Certificate of Correction and a fee.

A patent holder may request a “reissue” of a patent to correct mistakes in the scope of the U.S. claims. A reissue that broadens the claims must be filed within 2 years after the issuance of the patent. A reissue that narrows the claims can be filed at any time during the life of the patent.

A request by a patent holder or a third party for a “reexamination” by the United States PTO can be made if prior art is uncovered that raises a substantial new question as to the patentability of the claims in the issued patent. There are two types of reexamination proceedings, each with their own rules. They are increasingly popular as part of a litigation strategy. (See patent litigation FAQ)

17. How do I obtain patent rights in foreign countries?

Patent rights are typically granted on a country-by-country basis, and each country has its own rules for determining what is patentable, which may differ significantly from the U.S. rules.

Most of the world’s industrialized countries, including, for example, Australia, Canada, China, Germany, India, and Japan, are parties to an international treaty known as the Paris Convention. The Paris Convention gives an applicant one year to file a corresponding patent application in a member country and still obtain an original U.S. priority date.

To obtain patent protection in countries that are not members of the Paris Convention, a patent application must be filed directly in those countries prior to the first public disclosure or sale of the invention, unless there is a legislative agreement with those countries that honors the one-year grace period. For example, Taiwan is not a member of the Paris Convention but has entered into an agreement with the United States that recognizes the grace period and grants priority rights based upon U.S. filings.

In addition to the Paris Convention, there are other international treaties that seek to harmonize patent protection among countries. For instance, the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) provides a two-stage examination process for applications: first at an international level, and then in the individual countries from which patents are sought. Filing a PCT application only defers filing in the individual countries, and it does not replace these filings and associated costs. The principal reason for filing a PCT application is to defer deciding in what countries to seek patent protection and the expenses of regional or national patent filings. By 30 months from the earliest priority date asserted in the PCT application, the applicant must file a regional or national patent application in each country or region where protection is sought. The applicant must satisfy the requirements of the respective regional or national patent office to actually obtain the patent.

Another treaty, the European Patent Convention, established the European Patent Office (EPO) that handles applications for over 30 European countries. A single EPO application can be filed for protection in some or all of those countries. The application is examined by the EPO in any of the three official languages and, if granted, the specification is translated into the languages of the designated countries. There is an additional fee for issuance of the patent in each selected country.

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Successful high technology companies recognize that a comprehensive intellectual property portfolio can be of substantial value. One key component of the intellectual property portfolio is patents. A patent is a right granted by the government that allows a patent holder to exclude others from making, using, selling, offering to sell, or importing that which is claimed in the patent, for a limited period of time.

In view of this right many companies recognize that a well-crafted patent portfolio may be used for a variety of business objectives, such as bolstering market position, protecting research and development efforts, generating revenue, and encouraging favorable cross-licensing or settlement agreements. For companies that have developed original technology, a patent provides a barrier against a competitor's entry into valued technologies or markets. Thus, many start-up companies that have developed pioneering technology are eager to obtain patent protection. However, to develop an effective patent portfolio, a start-up company should first devise a patent portfolio strategy that is aligned with the company's business objectives.

A patent portfolio strategy may vary from company to company. Large companies that have significant financial resources often pursue a strategy of procuring and maintaining a large quantity of patents. These companies often use their patent portfolios for offensive purposes, e.g., generating large licensing revenues for the company. For example, IBM generates close to $1 billion dollars a year from licensing its patent portfolio.

In contrast, for most start-up companies, developing and building a comprehensive patent portfolio can be prohibitively expensive. However, with an understanding of some basic principles of patent strategies and early planning, a start-up company can devise and execute a patent strategy to develop a cost-effective patent portfolio. For example, a start-up company can develop an effective patent portfolio by focusing on obtaining a few quality patents that cover key products and technologies, in alignment with their business objectives.

A patent strategy involves a development phase and a deployment phase. The development phase includes evaluation of patentable technologies and procurement of patents. A deployment phase includes the competitive analysis, licensing, and litigation of patents. For most start-ups the initial focus is on the development phase. Starting in the development phase, the patent strategy identifies the key business goals of the company. Clear business goals provide a long-term blueprint to guide the development of a valuable patent portfolio.

With the goals identified, the evaluation process begins by mining and analyzing intellectual assets within the company. In this process, a company organizes and evaluates all of its intellectual assets, such as its products, services, technologies, processes, and business practices. Organizing intellectual assets involves working with key company executives to ensure that the patent strategy closely links with the company's business objectives. Often, these individuals assist with developing a budget for the patent strategy, as well as making arrangements to get access to resources for executing the patent strategy.

Organizing intellectual assets also involves gathering key company documented materials. Examples of documented materials include business plans, company procedures and policies, investor presentations, marketing presentations and publications, product specifications, technical schematics, and software programs. It may also include contractual agreements such as employment agreements, license agreements, non-disclosure and confidentiality agreements, investor agreements, and consulting agreements. Such materials provide information used to determine ownership issues and the scope of patent or other intellectual property rights that are available for the company.

Organizing intellectual assets also includes identifying and interviewing all individuals who are involved with creating or managing the company's intellectual assets. These interviews uncover undocumented intellectual assets and may be used to evaluate patent and other intellectual property issues. For example, events and dates that may prevent patentability of some intellectual assets may be identified. Likewise, co-development efforts that may indicate joint ownership of intellectual assets may also be
identified. Identifying such issues early on helps prevent wasteful expenditures and allows for effective management of potentially difficult situations.

After organizing information about the intellectual assets, each asset should be evaluated to determine how best to protect it. This evaluation includes determining whether the intellectual asset is best suited for patent protection or trade secret protection, whether it should be made available to the public domain, or whether further development is necessary. It also involves determining whether a patent will be of value when it issues, which is typically approximately 18 to 36 months after it is filed, and whether infringement of that patent would be too difficult to detect.

The evaluation phase may also provide an opportunity to determine whether obtaining protection in jurisdictions outside of the United States is prudent. International patent treaties signed by the U.S. and other countries or regions allow for deferring actual filing of patent applications outside the U.S. for up to one year after the filing of a U.S. application. Thus, planning at this early stage may include identifying potential countries or regions to file in and then begin financially preparing for the large costs associated with such filings.

The evaluation phase also provides an opportunity to determine whether a patentability or patent clearance study is necessary. Such studies are used to determine the scope of potentially available protection or whether products or processes that include or use an intellectual asset potentially infringe third-party rights. This evaluation may also involve identifying company strengths with regard to its patent portfolio as well as potential vulnerable areas where competitors and other industry players have already established patent protection.

While the evaluation phase is in progress, the company can move into the procurement phase. In the procurement phase of the patent strategy, a start-up company builds its patent portfolio to protect core technologies, processes, and business practices uncovered during the audit phase. Typically, a patent portfolio is built with a combination of crown-jewel patents, fence patents, and design-around patents.

Crown-jewel patents are often blocking patents. One or more of these patents is used to block competitors from entering a technology or product market covered by the patent. Fence patents are used to fence in, or surround, core patents, especially those of a competitor, with all conceivable improvements so the competitor has an incentive to cross-license its patents. Design-around patents are based on innovations created to avoid infringement of a third party patent and may themselves be patentable.

For most start-ups, costs for pursuing patent protection are a concern because financial resources are limited. Hence, most start-up companies begin the procurement phase by focusing on procuring one or more crown-jewel patents. To do this, the start-up company works with a patent attorney to review the key innovations of the company’s product or services as identified during the evaluation phase. The patent attorney and start-up company consider the market for the innovation in relation to the time in which the patent would typically issue. This analysis helps identify the subject matter for the crown-jewel patents.

Once the subject matter is identified, in some instances a prior art search prior to filing provisional or utility patent applications may be conducted to determine what breadth of claim coverage potentially may be available. However, a company that considers such prior art searches should first consult with the patent attorney to understand the risks associated with them so that appropriate business decisions can be made.

Next, a strategic business decision is made as to whether to file a provisional patent application or a full utility, or non provisional, patent application for the identified subject matter. A provisional patent application is ideally a robust description of the innovation, but lacks the formalities of a full utility patent application.

The provisional application is not examined by the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (“USPTO”) and becomes abandoned 12 months after filing. Within the 12 months, an applicant may choose to file one or more utility applications based on the subject matter disclosed in the provisional application, and therefore, obtaining the benefit of the provisional application filing date. However, the later filed utility application must be fully supported by the disclosure of the provisional application in order to claim the benefit of its earlier filing date. Under U.S. patent law, this means the provisional application must satisfy the requirements of written description, enablement, and best mode, as is required for the utility application.

If the provisional application is filed with sufficient completeness to support the claims of subsequently filed utility applications, the provisional application provides a number of benefits. First, as previously discussed, one
or more utility applications may claim the benefit of the provisional patent application filing date. The early filing date may not only protect the crown jewel subject matter, but may also protect some critical surrounding subject matter, hence increasing the overall value of the patent portfolio. Second, the provisional application provides an earlier effective priority date against others who may be filing patent applications on similar inventions.

Third, provisional patent application filings costs are currently $80 to $160 versus $370 to $740 for a full utility application. Fourth, inventors often take it upon themselves to draft the core of a provisional application with the guidance of a patent attorney and request that the patent attorney spend time simply to review the application to advise on the legal requirements and potential pitfalls. This means that the attorney fees for a provisional patent application may be substantially less than attorney fees associated with preparing a full utility application.

Fifth, the provisional patent application precludes loss of patent rights resulting from activity and public disclosures related to the target inventions. For example, almost every country except the U.S. has an absolute novelty requirement with regard to patent rights. That is, in these countries, any public disclosure of the target invention prior to filing a patent application results in a loss of patent rights. For many start-ups this can be somewhat disconcerting. On the one hand, the start-up may want to preserve the right to pursue patent protection outside of the U.S. On the other hand, immediate business opportunities and time demands often conflict with the timely preparation and filing of a utility patent application. However, through international treaties, most countries will recognize a filing date of a provisional application filed in the U.S. Thus, the applicant may be able to file for a provisional application and convert it to a utility application that can be filed in the U.S. and other treaty countries within 12 months.

Although the provisional application provides a cost-effective tool for creating a patent portfolio, filing a provisional application does not end the portfolio development process. Once the provisional application is filed, and when finances and time permit, the company should be diligent in filing utility applications that may claim the benefit of the provisional application filing date. This is true for a number of reasons.

First, the provisional application is not examined and will go abandoned 12 months after it is filed. Therefore, the filing of the provisional application provides no more than a filing date placeholder for the subject matter it discloses. Second, the utility application costs more than the provisional applications to prepare and file. Thus, a company must adequately budget and plan for this expense. Third, as time passes the time available for patent matters may become more difficult in view of product cycles, marketing launches, and sales events. Hence, budgeting time for planning and reviewing filings of subsequent utility applications based on a provisional application becomes important. Fourth, products and technologies continually evolve and change, often soon after the filing of a provisional application. Therefore, a company must continually revisit their patent portfolio and strategy to reassess whether the provisional application can provide sufficient protection in view of further development.

Over time, companies that value their intellectual assets set aside time, money and resources to further enhance their patent portfolio. To do this a company may move to the deployment phase. In the deployment phase, the company begins the competitive analysis process to study industry trends and technology directions, especially those of present and potential competitors. The company may also evaluate patent portfolios of competitors and other industry players.

Also in the deployment phase, the company may incorporate the licensing process. Here, the company determines whether to license or acquire patents from others, particularly where the patent portfolio is lacking protection and is vulnerable to a third-party patent portfolio. Alternatively, in the licensing process the company determines whether to license or cross-license its patent portfolio to third parties. The deployment phase may also include the litigation process. Here, the company determines whether to assert patents in a lawsuit against third party infringers.

In summary, for most start-up companies, devising a patent portfolio development strategy early on can be a wise investment to help the company develop and build a strong foundational asset on which to grow. This investment will likely reward the company with positive returns for years to come.

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For many technology companies, developing a patent strategy is an important component of the business plan. However, for many the approach for developing a patent strategy is more happenstance than execution of a precisely defined plan. To help develop a patent strategy, this document provides a checklist for getting organized in preparation for developing a comprehensive patent strategy for the company.

A. Business and Patent Portfolio Goals

Starting in the development phase, the patent strategy identifies the key business goals of the company. Clear business goals provide a long-term blueprint to guide the development of a valuable patent portfolio. In particular, the company should:

- List the business goals for the company.
- Identify key industry players (competitors, partners, customers).
- Identify technology and/or product directions (within company and within industry).
- Determine whether a patent portfolio be used offensively (i.e., as a “sword” asserted against others; revenue generation, etc.), defensively (i.e., used as a “shield” or counterclaim against others who file suit first), for marketing purposes (i.e., to show the outside world a portfolio to demonstrate company innovation), or a combination of these.
- Meet with attorney to align goals, industry information, technology/product information, and patent portfolio use to outline core patent strategy.

B. Evaluation of Company Assets

The evaluation process begins by mining and analyzing intellectual assets within the company. Intellectual assets include products, services, technologies, processes, and business practices of the company. In this process, a company organizes and evaluates all of its intellectual assets. To help think of what the intellectual assets may be, consider the business goals and technology and/or product directions outlined previously. For example, for each business goal, determine what are the core technologies and/or products that will help drive that goal.

Note that organizing intellectual assets involves working with key executives who can provide input to help align the patent strategy with the business objectives. Here, the company should:

- Identify team members that will lead the mining and analysis process. The selected members should have an understanding of the commitment this will require and an ability and desire to commit sufficient time for the commitment. The team members should have the backing of management and management should understand the implications of insufficient time and effort as it impacts the implementation and execution of this phase and the costs involved with it.
- Identify employees that create intellectual assets for the company.
- Clearly articulate the business goals and align the technology and/or product directions with those goals.
- Identify the intellectual assets. To help determine this, gather and organize documented materials. Examples of documented materials include business plans, company procedures and policies, investor presentations, marketing presentations and publications, product specifications, technical schematics, and software programs. It may also include contractual agreements such as employment agreements, assignment and license agreements, non-disclosure and confidentiality agreements, investor agreements, and consulting agreements.
Identify the anticipated life span for each intellectual asset. For example, critically evaluate the anticipated lifespan of technologies and/or products before they are likely to be replaced with the next generation?

Identify the market for each intellectual asset.

Identify products/product lines incorporating each intellectual asset.

Identify those intellectual assets best suited for patent protection.

Review risk analysis with attorney involving competitor studies.

Prepare budget for patent strategy and patent procurement (See attorney to obtain insights on various costs and fees associated with this step. Some considerations for fees include setting and implementing the patent strategy, preparing patent disclosure materials, preparing and prosecuting patent applications, and maintaining the patent portfolio).

C. Procurement Phase

While the evaluation phase is in progress, the company can move into the procurement phase. In the procurement phase of the patent strategy, a start-up company builds its patent portfolio to protect core technologies, processes, and business practices uncovered during the evaluation phase. Typically, a patent portfolio is built with a combination of crown-jewel patents, fence patents, design-around patents, and portfolio enhancing patents. Each patent may have a unique value proposition for the company. An integral part of the procurement phase is to develop and establish a process for patent procurement and management. This allows the company to capture all inventions to evaluate intellectual property protection options that include patent, trade secret and copyright. In addition, a thought-out, well-organized process can be an important component of maintaining cost controls. Thus, in the procurement phase, a company should consider:

Identify a patent administrator to oversee, coordinate, and manage the patent process and patent review committee.

Identify a patent review committee that will be responsible for this phase. Members of the committee may include a cross-section of company individuals that together can integrate the company’s patent strategy with its business strategy and financial considerations. Here again, the selected members should have an understanding of the commitment this will require and an ability and desire to commit sufficient time for the commitment. As with the prior phase, team members should have the backing of management and management should understand the implications of insufficient time and effort as it impacts the implementation and execution of this phase and the costs involved with it.

Draft invention disclosures (See attorney for Invention Disclosure Form). Note that the level of completeness for the invention disclosure (see also next step) may impact the cost of patent preparation and, subsequently, patent prosecution (examination). Hence, a good invention disclosure form often is helpful in organizing and articulating an invention for others in this process to understand the key aspects for protection consideration and its benefits.

Evaluate completeness of invention disclosures and determine whether (and what) additional details may be required.

Critically evaluate each invention disclosure in the context of the patent strategy (including considerations of product life, potential time to issuance, and industry trends/directions).

Weigh risks versus reward of a conducting a prior art search. Note that a prior art search is not required, but may be worthwhile to have a better understanding of the boundaries of what type of legal protection may be available. However, there are risks of certain type of prior art searches, such as searches of issued patents that should be discussed with an attorney.
Evaluate benefits and risk of provisional versus utility patent application with attorney.

Forward invention disclosure to an attorney for patent application drafting.

Over time, determine whether to conduct further competitive analysis to study industry trends and technology directions and identify patent portfolio coverage in view of same.

Over time, evaluate risk versus reward of studying patent portfolios of competitors and other industry players to identify how to further strengthen its patent portfolio.

Tune the budget for patent portfolio procurement and development. (See attorney to obtain insights on various costs and fees associated with tuning, including aspects such as pruning, focus for prosecution, etc.).

D. Deployment Phase

A company that values its intellectual assets may set aside time, money and resources to further enhance its patent portfolio. To do this a company may move to the deployment phase. The deployment phase may include licensing all or part of a patent portfolio to others in the industry or to alternative applications for the technology. Alternatively, it may include asserting rights established by its patents, such as through litigation. The deployment stage often includes high-level management involvement. In this stage a company should consider:

- Review “sword”, “shield”, and/or “market” strategy considerations.

- Determine risks and benefits of various enforcement options (cease & desist; cross-license; etc.). Evaluate impact on business goals and reporting and financial statements.

- For “sword” evaluate competitor products for infringement considerations and determine risks versus rewards of cease and desist strategy or licensing strategy.

- For “sword”, evaluate strength of competitor patent portfolios to access the potential for competitor counter-attacks.

- For “shield” evaluate impact of patent with respect to potential aggressors.

- For “market” review patent portfolio to identify those assets that company can sell for cash or use to spin out new business.

The above outline provides one approach to a comprehensive patent strategy. As with any strategy, the approach your company may take could differ and should be flexible enough to account for those differences. Companies that take the time and effort to develop a patent strategy will be well positioned to capitalize on the rewards for the time, money and effort spent early on as their business continues to grow and prosper.

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The selection of an invention for patenting must be based on the business goals and needs of the client. This mandates that the prosecutor take the time to understand the patentee's business, and not merely its technology—the mere technical ‘coolness’ of an invention is not a sufficient reason for patenting it.

The patentee's business is typically focused around some number of markets or market segments. Identification of these markets is necessary to determine who are likely competitors, and what are types of products or services they offer. This informs how to structure different claims for products, systems, or “components,” to better ensure infringement by different parties.

Next, in each of these markets, identify the competitive advantages on which the patentee seeks to capitalize. The competitive advantages may be in specific product features or functionality, technology independent product or service architecture, a service offering, or in satisfying particular customer requirements (e.g., security, fault tolerance, real time updates, etc.). It is these competitive advantages that the patent portfolio must as a whole seek to protect. Since it is unlikely that any one patent will protect all of the company’s competitive advantages, the strategy is to develop a ‘minefield’ of patents that must be negotiated by the competition in order to effectively compete.

With the competitive advantages so identified, the next step is to identify which technologies support each competitive advantage. In some instances the competitive advantage will be created by a technical achievement; in others multiple different technical features will cooperatively provide this support. Each of these technical features, or their relevant combinations is then evaluated for the threshold requirements of novelty and non-obviousness. Satisfying these patentability requirements is a necessary but not sufficient condition for filing a patent application. That question is answered by evaluating a number of “strategic value considerations.”

- Does the invention have longevity? An invention has to be useful not just today, but for at least 5-9 years, time enough for a patent to issue and be either lucratively licensed or enforced against infringers.

- Are others likely to infringe? A primary solution to a major technical problem, may provide a powerful blocking patent, whereas a “one of many” solution generally adds value in a portfolio built around a product or technology infrastructure. Even if the invention is not itself a candidate for a blocking patent, consider whether it can, together with a number of other patents form a sufficient “mine field” of protection around the patentee’s business space. This approach is commonly used in patent licensing pools that cluster around a technology standard. Further, patents on second and third best solutions, even if they are not going to be in the patentee’s own products, can form effective barriers to entry by increasing the cost to others to design around.

- Can infringement be cost effectively detected, particularly before litigation? Duplication of “customer facing” technology or features (e.g., end user products or services, user interface features, business methods) is easier to detect and confirm infringement. This increases the likelihood of efficient enforcement and reduces the costs associated with convincing an infringer to cease or take a license. Patents on internal technical architectures, such as chip structures, internal data processing algorithms, and other “below the surface” features are more costly difficult to enforce, as they often require access to a competitor’s engineering documentation, source code or other trade secret material. In addition, patents on these types of inventions often do not directly target eCommerce competitors who integrate software and systems from other vendors to create their eCommerce business. Better are the high level “service offering” patents that describe the functional aspects of the patentee’s services or products, independent of specific technical architecture of implementation.
Are there valuable licensing or business opportunities provided by the patent? Licenses to competitors may create value for the patentee, either through direct revenue, or often more importantly, through a cross license to the competitors’ patents, thereby providing a greater scope of design freedom. Patents on technical infrastructure often provide licensing opportunities to non-competitors outside of the patentee’s primary business space. This creates a source of additional return on the investment without giving up the competitive advantages provided by the patent in the patentee’s markets. In some instances, patents may serve as the core of a new business opportunity that can be spun out of the company. These opportunities should be addressed as well.

What patents are the company’s competitors obtaining? Competitive intelligence is another important part of the invention selection process. While U.S. patent applications can be confidential for at least 18 months, regular searches on issued patents, published U.S. and international applications provides significant information. If a competitor is filing aggressively in a particular technology area, that should increase the value of inventions by the company in that same area. This ensures some patent assets to form the basis of a defensive cross license if needed in the future. In particular, when the company’s engineers find out what patents their competitors are getting, it often yields a competitive atmosphere and more invention disclosures.

These various criteria can be differently weighted according to the patentee’s business needs. For example, each criteria can be rated on a scale of 1 to 5, and the total scores added; inventions with scores over some threshold (typically tied to an available budget) are selected for patenting. More common is simply using this information to make an overall informed judgment about whether an invention is worthy of patenting.

The final consideration is the patentee’s available budget. Clearly, all patentees should patent the inventions that score highly on the foregoing considerations, that are the “crown jewels” of the company’s technology. For patentees with high legal budgets, there is greater flexibility, particularly in patenting inventions that are merely second best solutions or portfolio builders. Yet even for those with modest legal budgets, serious consideration should be given to the “mine field” approach. This is because most patentees will very rarely come up with a formidable competition-stopping pioneering patent. Most will likely develop incremental advances in their field with the occasional “key feature” invention that is important to the company’s product, but that is not essential to the competition. A portfolio then of “key feature” patents works as a whole to increase the costs to competitors for doing business, which itself becomes a competitive advantage to the patentee.

Selecting inventions to patent is not a science—it’s every bit as complex and strategic as selecting which products or services to bring to market. Insight into the industry, a strong sense of business strategy, economics, and a bit of luck all play a part. Close collaboration between patent counsel and the client leverages the client’s own business expertise and knowledge of the industry and competitive position with patent counsel’s understanding of how to best position patents for successful prosecution, licensing, and litigation.

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