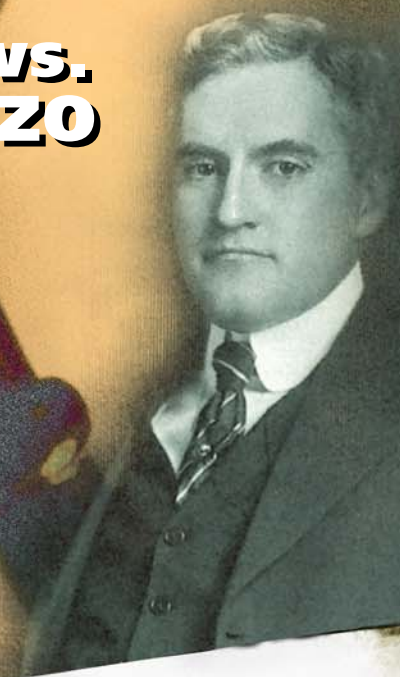


JULY/AUGUST 2004 | VOL. 76 | NO. 6

Journal

BAT MASTERSON vs. BENJAMIN CARDOZO



WILLIAM BARCLAY "BAT" MASTERSON

Born: 1853, Quebec, Canada
Curriculum Vitae Through 1913
Buffalo hunter, army scout, gunfighter, gambler
Deputy marshal, Dodge City, Kansas (hired by Wyatt Earp)
1876: Sheriff, Ford County, Kansas
1877: Appointed U.S. marshal southern district of New York by
1905: Pres. Teddy Roosevelt
1907: Sportswriter, Morning Telegraph

BENJAMIN NATHAN CARDOZO

Born: 1870, New York City
Curriculum Vitae Through 1913
Student, attorney, litigator, "cultured gentleman"
Left Columbia Law School; joined family law firm
1891: Partner in Simpson Werner & Cardozo of New York City
1903:

Inside

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Responses to Juvenile Crime
Court-Appointed Law Guardians
Varied Roles of Judges' Clerks
Developing Theory of the Case

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July/August 2004

Business, Corporate, Tax Limited Liability Companies

This practical guide, written by Michele A. Santucci, enables the practitioner to navigate the Limited Liability Company Law with ease and confidence. You will benefit from numerous forms, practice tips and appendixes. (PN: 41243/**Member \$55**/List \$75)

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The Report features the Association's efforts to expand access to justice, improve the legal process and protect the rule of law.

O N T H E C O V E R

The cover for this issue shows the key players in a little-known slice of legal history described in the article that begins on page 10. On the left is Bat Masterson, wearing his trademark derby hat. He is looking toward Benjamin Cardozo, shown at the time of his candidacy for New York State Supreme Court justice in 1913. This unlikely pair met in a courtroom on opposite sides of a libel suit that was precipitated by a boxing match between the two men in the corner: Carl E. Morris on the left, and "Fireman" Jim Flynn on the right.

Photo credits: Benjamin Cardozo, courtesy of Louis H. Pollak, U.S. District Judge, Eastern District of Pennsylvania; Bat Masterson, courtesy of the Ford County Historical Society, Dodge City, Kansas; Carl Morris, courtesy of The Cyber Boxing Zone. We would like to thank Raven Shaffer, Antiquities of the Prize Ring, for help in obtaining the image of Jim Flynn.

Cover illustration by Erin Corcoran.

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As I write this, it is the Fourth of July and I am concerned. Celebration of the freedoms of this country comes this year with a question mark. In these times when the wounds of September 11 remain fresh and the fight against terrorism of necessity persists, each of us should think long and hard about our freedoms – our individual rights and responsibilities and carefully crafted checks and balances of government powers – and how these principles can be perpetuated while maintaining national security.

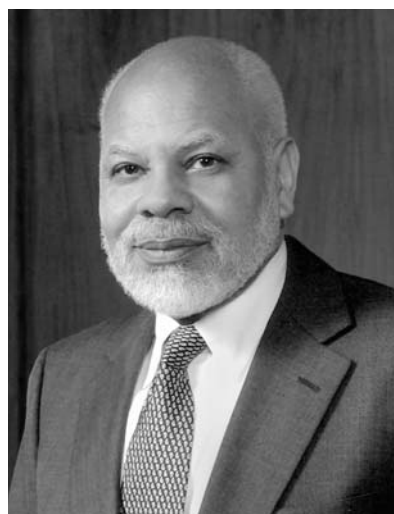
Tough times demand tough actions, we recognize, but it is in a climate such as this that our civil liberties and our system of justice can be at greatest risk. Where should the line be drawn and who has the power to draw it?

Giving impetus to these principles of freedom is the rule of law and giving voice to the law is an important role of the legal profession. Perilous times, when many are frightened, are when the lawyer's advocacy is needed – standing up for civil liberties, civil rights and due process in society and sounding the alarm of the danger of sacrificing rights "just this once." Who are better trained and suited to speaking out than lawyers? If not lawyers, then who? We have an opportunity to remind, to educate and to advocate what we have to lose and how easy it is for our freedoms to slip away.

This concern is not new, but has been expressed each time after this country has seen conflict. The banner in the Great Hall of the Bar Center in Albany sets out George Washington's words urging Edmund Randolph to accept the nomination of United States Attorney General – "The due administration of justice is the firmest pillar of good government." We can take lessons from the suspension of habeas corpus in the Civil War and the treatment of Americans of German and Japanese descent in the world wars. We can open the pages of our Association's Annual Meeting proceedings more than half a century ago and, in so doing, join the 1,100 members who heard Judge Charles W. Froessel of the Court of Appeals state:

It is the task of the lawyer and the judge to insure that in thus preparing ourselves to meet exterior aggression and interior menace we do not in the meantime, as Webster put it in his matchless eulogy on Washington,

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE



KENNETH G. STANDARD **Balancing Freedom And Security**

demolish the "well-proportioned columns of constitutional liberty." The courts will, I am confident, do their very best, but they cannot perform the task alone. In every fight for freedom the lawyer has been in the front line.

How can we serve on this "front line"?

We, as an Association and as individual members of the bar, must speak up for the rule of law, for the presumption of innocence and the right of the accused to counsel and a prompt and fair public trial. We must continue to analyze legislation, executive orders and other measures, as the Association did in a 2002 report on the presidential order on military tribunals. This report, prepared by our Coordinating Committee on Federal Anti-Terrorism Measures and approved by our House of Delegates, contended that military tribunals should be used only in narrowly defined circumstances and with appropriate due process. In 2003, our Task Force to Review Terrorism Legislation analyzed State legislation that would create new terrorist crimes and broaden law enforcement authority for investiga-

tions and prosecutions of suspected terrorists, recognizing the purpose of providing law enforcement officials with appropriate and effective tools to combat terrorism, but also citing the profession's responsibility to ensure that individual rights are preserved.

The U.S. Supreme Court concluded its term in June calling for access to the courts and counsel, with its decisions involving a U.S. citizen captured in Afghanistan in one case and non-citizen detainees at Guantánamo in another. Beyond giving emphasis to maintaining due process protections, these decisions also are serving to help clear the air and open dialogue. The freedoms of this country include candid discourse, analysis, criticism and disagreement about issues of the day, legislative proposals and other matters in the news. Yet, we have witnessed concern that expressing reservations about the Patriot Act, for example, could be construed as unpatriotic; likewise raising an issue about the proposed Civil Liberties Restoration Act or other such legislation should not be deemed as opposition to the concept of civil liberties.

KENNETH G. STANDARD can be reached by e-mail at president@nysbar.com

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Our work, as lawyers, is not limited to measures specific to terrorism and homeland security. We also must maintain our ongoing efforts to make counsel accessible to the indigent, to the working poor, to the middle class, to the small-business owner – indeed, to all. We must educate younger generations of our profession that liberty and law cannot be taken for granted. We need to teach them to be sentinels for the values and principles of our legal process and for equality of rights and opportunity. Likewise, our role is to increase public understanding, through our visits in the classroom, talks in the community, and discussions with the media.

I made many of these points when I addressed the New York Press Club annual dinner in late June in New York City.

Speaking at the “I Am an American Day” in 1944, Learned Hand described what is at risk in sacrificing freedoms and in failing to speak out: “Liberty lies in the hearts of men and women,” he said. “When it dies there, no constitution, no law, no court can save it; no constitution, no law, no court can even do much to help it.”

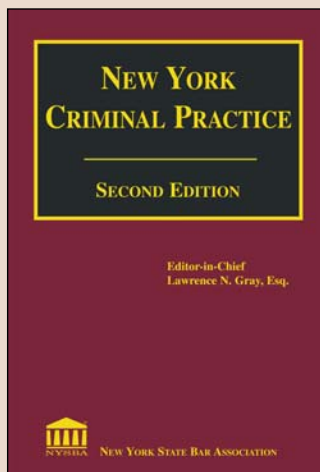
What are we to do? In essence, we need to continue to epitomize the highest values of the profession in standing up for justice. I welcome hearing from you about your experience in these efforts and your thoughts on our further actions in these trying times.

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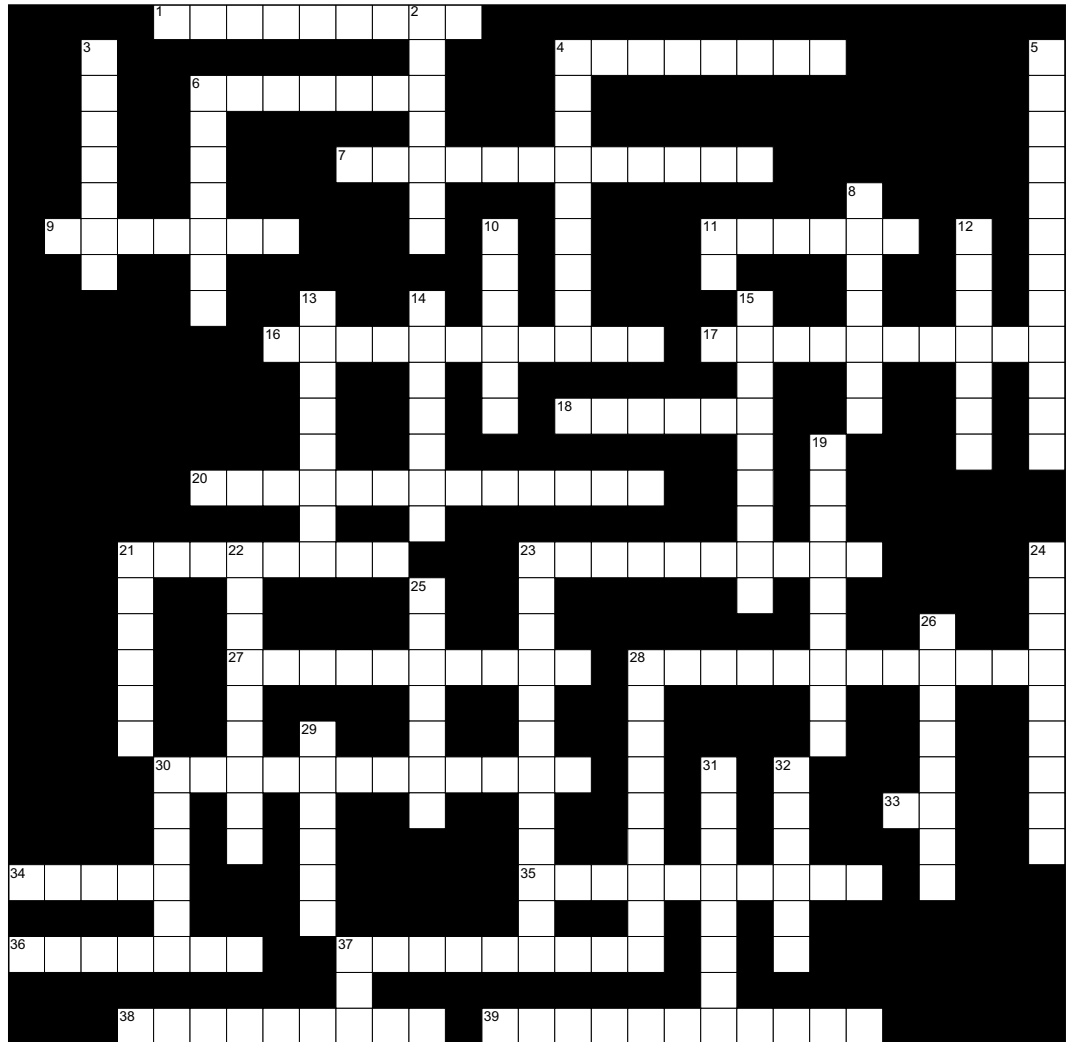


CROSSWORD PUZZLE

The puzzles are prepared by J. David Eldridge, a partner at Pachman, Pachman & Eldridge, P.C., in Commack, NY. A graduate of Hofstra University, he received his J.D. from Touro Law School. (The answers to this puzzle are on page 59.)

Across

- 1 *Lat.* among other things
- 4 Freedom or exemption from penalty, burden or duty
- 6 Against the law
- 7 The individual who forms a legal entity for business purposes
- 9 Access, entrance
- 11 A person under 18 years old
- 16 Lack of ability, knowledge, legal qualification or fitness
- 17 The grand jury's written accusation of a crime
- 18 To obstruct, hinder
- 20 Imprisonment, confinement
- 21 Needy, poor
- 23 Not essential or necessary
- 27 A court order prohibiting or requiring a specified act
- 28 Contrary to law
- 30 What evidence is when it cannot be admitted under established rules of law
- 33 "That is"
- 34 *Lat.* below, underneath
- 35 Want of legal, physical or intellectual ability
- 36 Contrary to standards of society; obscene



The Ayes Have It, by J. David Eldridge

- 37 In evidence, a conclusion sought to be established as a consequence of other facts
- 38 Incapable of being placed out or hired
- 39 Evidence tending to establish guilt

Down

- 2 Prohibited; unlawful
- 3 Seize and take into custody of law or court
- 4 Absence of knowledge
- 5 Mutually contradictory, contrary to one another
- 6 A third-party action
- 8 Possible signs

- 10 A state of mind seeking a given result through certain action
- 11 Used to indicate the previous reference
- 12 To accuse; charge
- 13 Imperfect, partial, unfinished
- 14 When the court clerk makes list of jurors selected for trial
- 15 Written agreement issuing bonds and/or debentures
- 19 Disinterested, favors neither party
- 21 To disregard willfully
- 22 One who leaves a country to permanently settle in another
- 23 Disproved or rebutted evidence

- 24 To hold harmless, secure against loss or damage
- 25 To surround, fence or hem in on all sides
- 26 Near at hand
- 28 Dying without a will
- 29 To obtain delay for adjustment
- 30 To weaken, make worse, lessen in power
- 31 In chambers, in private
- 32 To arouse, urge, provoke
- 37 Invitation for Bids



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Benjamin Cardozo Meets Gunslinger Bat Masterson

BY WILLIAM H. MANZ

Encounters between persons of widely different backgrounds are hardly unusual in the courtroom, but only occasionally, as in the William Jennings Bryan-Clarence Darrow confrontation at the *Scopes* “Monkey Trial,” do they involve two famous figures in American history. A lesser-known and particularly incongruous meeting of this type, took place in a Manhattan courtroom in May 1913, involving future Supreme Court Justice Benjamin N. Cardozo and Bat Masterson, a legendary figure of the Old West.

Perhaps because the case, *Masterson v. Commercial Advertiser Association*,¹ a libel suit by Masterson against a New York City newspaper, lacks any legal significance, the meeting of the two men has gone unmentioned in major works on Cardozo.² A more unlikely meeting is hard to imagine, however.

William Barclay “Bat” Masterson was a former buffalo hunter, lawman, gunfighter, and gambler whose friends had included Wyatt Earp, Wild Bill Hickok, Buffalo Bill Cody, and a young rancher from New York named Theodore Roosevelt. In 1874, at age 20, Masterson had fought Indians at the Battle of Adobe Walls and then took part in an army campaign against tribes in the Texas Panhandle and Indian Territory. Later, he served as sheriff of Ford County, Kansas (1878–1879) and as marshal of Trinidad, Colorado (1882–1883). In the late 1880s, he briefly owned a Denver gambling house and then managed a large gambling establishment in Creede, a Colorado mining boomtown.

By the 1880s, Masterson’s interests had also turned to boxing, and he attended the most notable matches of the 1880s and 1890s, including the epic 75-round bare-knuckle bout between Jake Kilrain and John L. Sullivan, and James J. “Gentleman Jim” Corbett’s victory over Sullivan. He had also been active in boxing circles as a founding member of the Denver, Colorado, Athletic Club, and, after being forced out of that organization by fight promoter Otto Floto, he had founded the rival Olympic Athletic Club. In 1903, after taking up residence in New York City, Masterson was hired by the *Morning Telegraph* as a sports editor and columnist.³

In contrast, the scholarly Cardozo had a sheltered life as a youth, and went straight into law practice after attending college and law school at Columbia University. Described by contemporaries as a “cultured gentleman,”⁴ he was not socially active, preferring to spend his evenings at home working on his memoranda and briefs. Within the courtroom milieu, however, Cardozo was every bit as formidable as Masterson had been in the wide-open frontier towns of the West. As Professor Andrew Kaufman has noted, he was “not the saintly man . . . associated with the elder Cardozo,”⁵ and he “[d]id not shrink from personal attack on the opposition or its counsel if needed.”⁶ Just short of his 44th birthday, he was an accomplished and experienced attorney, known for his ability to cross-examine witnesses.

Origins of the Case

The Cardozo-Masterson confrontation had its origins in a heavily promoted Madison Square Garden prize fight matching the latest “white hope,” “Oklahoma Giant” Carl Morris, against “Pueblo Fireman” Jim Flynn. The contest between the largely unknown Morris and Flynn, known as a competent boxer, had attracted significant interest in New York City sporting circles. However, when Masterson learned that both fighters were being financed by Morris’s manager, Frank B. Ufer, he questioned the integrity of the bout, charging that Flynn was being paid to “lie down” for Morris. In his



WILLIAM H. MANZ is senior research librarian at St. John’s University School of Law. A graduate of Holy Cross College, he received a master’s degree in history from Northwestern University and a J.D. from St. John’s University School of Law.

He wishes to thank Ralph Monaco, formerly director of the New York County Lawyers’ Association Library and now director of the New York Law Institute Library, for making available the association’s copy of the record and briefs of the *Masterson* case.

September 10, 1911 column, he remarked, “There have been a good many cooked-up affairs pulled off in the prizefighting, as everybody knows, but hardly one quite so daring or that smells so much like a polecat as the one between Flynn and Morris.”⁷ Two days later he wrote, “[T]he Flynn-Morris contest is a frame-up and should not by any means be permitted to go on.”⁸ Finally, on September 14, Masterson said, “As I’ve already stated in this column, ‘the whole thing has a peculiar look.’”⁹

Ufer’s answer to Masterson appeared on the day of the fight, September 15, 1911, included in an eight-paragraph front-page article in the *New York Globe and Commercial Advertiser*, entitled “Little Chance to Oust

Garden Club.” The article dealt almost entirely with the questionable validity of a lease on Madison Square Garden, but the final paragraph quoted Ufer’s remark that Masterson had “made his reputation by shooting drunken Mexicans and Indians in the back.”¹⁰ Masterson was apparently most displeased with the publication of Ufer’s remark. He promptly engaged the services of Benjamin Patterson, an experienced general practitioner with offices at 302 Broadway. On September 22, 1911, a summons and complaint were served on the Commercial Advertiser Association, the publishers of the *Globe and Commercial Advertiser*, charging that the article had libeled Masterson, and demanding \$25,000 in damages.¹¹

The lawsuit may have surprised the publishers as Masterson would have seemed an unlikely libel plaintiff. Heavily fictionalized versions of Masterson’s career had appeared for years, greatly inflating the number of men he had killed, and sometimes containing such lurid falsehoods as the decapitation of two Mexicans.¹² When his old friend President Theodore Roosevelt appointed Masterson a deputy marshal for New York City in 1905, wildly exaggerated tales of his exploits, characterized by one writer as “insufferable rot,”¹³ again appeared in the press. These accounts were generally positive, however, noting that Masterson had only killed men in self-defense or in the course of his official duties, and that his victims were lawbreakers. For years, Masterson had never really objected to such stories. In an 1890 letter written to Frank D. Baldwin, his former army commander, he once described coverage of his career as done with “recklessness” and an “utter disregard for the truth,” but concluded that the writers could do him no harm.¹⁴

Simpson and Cardozo’s practice usually consisted of contractual matters and commercial debt liquidation, but it did have some experience with libel cases.

Masterson had previously taken offense, however, when disparaged in the press by his enemies. In 1879, he wrote to the *Dodge City Times*, angrily denying a report by Bob Fry, editor of the *Speareville News*, that Masterson had threatened to lick “any s – of a b – that voted or worked against me at the last election,” and stating that the “words s – of a b –” as applied to Ford County, Kansas, residents should be confined to the offending editor.¹⁵ Masterson again responded in print in 1883, after the *Dodge City Times* editor, Nick Klaine, accused him of wrongfully using force to seize a prisoner from an Iowa peace officer. In a letter to the *Ford County Globe*, Masterson denied the charges, and claimed that the article

“was evidently written with a view of doing me a malicious and willful injury.”¹⁶

In the case of the *Globe and Advertiser* article, Masterson’s reaction may have been influenced by the considerable abuse he had taken for his charges about the Morris-Flynn fight. In a post-fight column, he reported receiving “a number of anonymous letters, in which I’ve been called the vilest names imaginable. These letters, without a single exception, contained the foulest abuse that a degenerate mind could conceive.”¹⁷ Unlike the offensive mail, the newspaper article had an identifiable source with the ability to pay for its transgression.

To handle its defense, the paper’s publishers hired the firm of Simpson & Cardozo.¹⁸ The firm’s practice usually consisted of contractual matters and commercial debt liquidation,¹⁹ but it did have some experience with libel cases. In 1892, it had won a libel action against the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle* for insurance agent Richard D. Alliger after an erroneous report of his arrest for forgery.²⁰ In 1911, it had successfully defended the Commercial Advertiser Association against a suit brought by one Oscar B. Bergstrom after the association’s paper reported his default on bail and subsequent incarceration in the Tombs prison. The Masterson suit was also not the first time that Cardozo had handled a case involving a public figure. In 1907, he successfully argued the appeal of Lee Shubert after the theater owner had lost a \$25,000 verdict in a breach of contract case.²¹ Cardozo then won a second trial, and prevailed again at the appellate level.²² He also represented producer Florenz Ziegfeld in an unsuccessful action against an actress who had allegedly violated an injunction against appearing on stage except under Ziegfeld’s management.²³

In the *Masterson* case, Cardozo's defense strategy rested on the grounds that Ufer's statement was essentially accurate, that it was not meant to be taken seriously, and that it could not have caused Masterson's reputation any harm. In his answer, Cardozo stated: "[T]he plaintiff is and has been for a great many years well known throughout the United States as a promiscuous carrier and user of fire arms and as having shot a number of men, including Indians, some of whom died as a result of the said shooting, and that he did on divers occasions become involved in conflicts in which he shot, wounded and killed a number of men, including Indians, and that his reputation at the time of the publication was due to such alleged exploits."²⁴ He also maintained that Masterson was "for a great many years known as a sporting man"²⁵ and claimed that Ufer's remark was "composed and published as the remark of one sporting man concerning another sporting man, and [was understood] to be humorous and jocular."²⁶

The trial began on Tuesday, May 20, 1913, in Trial Term, Part XI, of the New York County Supreme Court with Justice John Ford presiding. A former state senator, Ford had been elected a Supreme Court justice in 1906. Originally from Knowlesville, in upstate Orleans County, he was the son of Irish immigrants who won a scholarship to Cornell where he was captain of the football and crew teams. After graduating *magna cum laude* and Phi Beta Kappa in 1890, he began his legal career by working in a law office, and passed the bar in 1892.

Masterson's Testimony

The trial's star witness was, naturally, Bat Masterson. Described in a 1905 news article as "middle aged and middle sized,"²⁷ the graying 59-year-old man in the witness chair bore no resemblance to the popular image of a western hero or to the dapper figure portrayed by Gene Barry in the 1958–1961 *Bat Masterson* television program. His unremarkable appearance notwithstanding, the jurors listened closely as he testified under oath about his frontier adventures.²⁸ Justice Ford was also obviously quite interested, as he interrupted Masterson's testimony several times to ask for further details about his experiences.

When questioned by Benjamin Patterson, Masterson denied ever carrying a gun while employed by the *Morning Telegraph*, having been charged, indicted or convicted of any crime, shooting any Mexicans at all, having any personal encounter with an Indian, and shooting any drunken Indians or anyone else in the back.

In his cross-examination, Cardozo sought to establish that Masterson had indeed killed several men, including Indians. His initial question to Masterson was: "How many men have you shot and killed in your

life?"²⁹ Masterson denied killing 28 men as repeatedly reported by the press. Instead, he ventured that the number was probably three, a soldier in Texas who had shot him first, a Texas cowboy in Dodge City who had just fatally wounded his brother, Sheriff Ed Masterson, and another Texan, a wanted murderer, in 1879. He added that he had also shot a man in Dodge City in 1881, but didn't know if he'd killed him or not. As for Indians, he professed not to know whether he'd ever shot any, noting that in battle "I certainly did try to shoot them. . . . It wasn't my fault that I didn't hit them. . . . I haven't any idea of and can't give you any notion as to whether any of them fell under my fire."³⁰

Masterson also denied several widely circulated stories about his western career, including having been arrested in Dodge City and bringing armed men there to shoot inhabitants and intimidate residents. In response to Cardozo's question about altercations in Denver, he denied having a fistfight with Louis Spencer (a black-face comedian angered by Masterson's affair with his wife), or attacking fight promoter Reddy Gallagher with a gun. He did admit having a fistfight with rival boxing promoter Otto Floto, but denied striking him with a gun. He also confirmed that, while acting as a deputy sheriff, he had shot the gun from the hand of a policeman at a Denver polling place.

Cardozo then brought up an incident in 1902 when Masterson and several other westerners were arrested in Manhattan on suspicion of plotting to cheat a visiting Mormon elder, George A. Snow, in a rigged faro game.³¹ These charges had been dropped almost immediately, but Masterson was fined \$10 for carrying a pistol. Masterson insisted that he barely knew the others who had been arrested and that he had not been involved in any crooked scheme. He stressed that he was never "charged" with being involved in the crooked faro game, noting that "there was never any complaint filed against me."³² He also asserted that although he was fined for carrying the pistol, he was not arrested for that offense, and had not been "convicted" of anything. He also denied involvement in a fistfight at the Waldorf-Astoria, but admitted a "little mix-up," with words exchanged, but no blows struck.³³

Cardozo's questions next turned to the large number of articles about Masterson's career in the West. The witness denied knowledge of the specific content of such stories, saying, "There was so much of that stuff that I can't recall just what it was,"³⁴ and testified that he "was not at all interested in the accounts which the papers published."³⁵ Masterson indicated that he had never considered such stories as attacks on him, and that "[t]he mere fact that [he] was charged with killing a man standing by itself [he] never considered an attack upon

CONTINUED ON PAGE 14

[his] reputation.”³⁶ He also stated, “[S]pace writers have to live, and if they could make a living off of me, well and good, let them go ahead.”³⁷ Masterson differentiated the account in the *Globe* from other newspaper stories, characterizing it as “malicious,” and later as “obviously malicious.” Cardozo objected to both statements and successfully moved to have them stricken. Masterson stressed that what he most objected to was “the fact that [he] was charged with shooting drunken Indians and Mexicans in the back, when nothing of the kind ever happened,”³⁸ and that he resented the charge of shooting Indians “because [he] was charged with shooting drunken Indians in the back.”³⁹

On redirect examination by Patterson, Masterson described in detail various events he had testified about earlier, including his arrest in New York City, the three men he’d killed, and his participation at the Battle of Adobe Walls. As for the offending *Globe and Advertiser* article, he stated, “I have many friends among the public men of the United States. It would hurt my feelings to have them think I had shot drunken Mexicans and Indians in the back.”⁴⁰ In his recross, Cardozo attempted to establish that at least some of the men killed by Masterson had been drunk. However, all the witness would admit to having said earlier was that the men who had shot his brother had been drinking, but were not drunk, and that the soldier who had shot him “probably had been drinking.”⁴¹ When asked about his prior use of the word “intoxicated,” Masterson admitted that it was “his conclusion” that the men were intoxicated.

Other Witnesses

Masterson’s two witnesses, *Morning Telegraph* publisher William E. Lewis and John Coulter, the paper’s financial editor, did their best to bolster their colleague’s case. When cross-examined by Cardozo, Lewis denied that Masterson was a habitual associate of gamblers or “sporting men.” When asked by Cardozo about Masterson’s purported 28 killings, Coulter testified that it was his understanding that Masterson was “compelled to kill people.”⁴² Asked if Masterson’s reputation hadn’t been built up by killing large numbers of persons, he denied it, stating, “I would say that his reputation was built up because he was a most efficient officer of the law.”⁴³

The witnesses called by the defendant must have done little to bolster Cardozo’s case with the jury.

Leonard H. Edgren, the reporter who had researched the offending article, described Ufer as being very angry, contradicting Cardozo’s assertion that the comment was merely jocular.

Nothing helpful came from the next defense witness, James E. MacBride, the article’s author, who admitted

under cross-examination that he had made no effort to verify Ufer’s statement about Masterson.

Detective Patrick F. Gargan, the arresting officer in the rigged faro game incident, admitted that the complaining witness, George A. Snow, had never mentioned Masterson, and that Masterson had only been arrested because Gargan had seen him “do something.” However, he wasn’t particularly specific about just what it was that had been done, other than claiming that Masterson had been observed in the company of the alleged co-conspirators.

The defendant’s final witness, Manhattan District Attorney (and future governor) Charles S. Whitman, was equally unhelpful, stating that Masterson’s reputation for peace and order in New York was good and that he had never heard that his conduct in the West “was impelled by private motives or desire for revenge.”⁴⁴

Cardozo unsuccessfully moved for a directed verdict “upon the ground that it appears to be the uncontradicted evidence that the alleged libel has been justified; that this man had in fact killed a large number of persons, and that is all we charged him with doing.”⁴⁵

Trial Result

The trial resumed the next morning with the summations. In closing, Benjamin Patterson made a remark that became a major point in Cardozo’s appeal, saying, “If your Honor please, there is one thing I overlooked. In ‘The Winning of the West,’ Colonel Roosevelt spoke in the highest terms of Mr. Masterson.”⁴⁶ Cardozo immediately asked that the jury be instructed to disregard the remark. Justice Ford agreed, but when Cardozo then requested a mistrial, he was refused.

Ford’s proposed charge to the jury said that the verdict must be for the plaintiff in the amount of six cents up to any reasonable sum. Cardozo responded with a lengthy series of requests for charges, including several that would have allowed the jury to find that the article had been accurate in whole or in part. Ford did make some minor modifications in his charge, but none that significantly benefited the defendant’s case.

After deliberating, the jury brought in a verdict of \$3,500 for the plaintiff, along with \$129.25 in costs.⁴⁷ Cardozo, objecting to the size of the verdict, unsuccessfully moved that the verdict be set aside and that a new trial be granted.

The next day, a celebratory article by William E. Lewis appeared in the *Morning Telegraph*. It claimed that Masterson had been “vindicated,” maintained that attorney Patterson had permitted “the other side utmost latitude in their efforts to defend and justify the publication,” and praised Justice Ford for “impartially and ably conduct[ing] the trial.”⁴⁸

Benjamin Cardozo Cross-Examines Bat Masterson

Record at 22:

Q. Now, do you think of any other fights that you ever had?

A. Well, I am not thinking; I suppose you are doing all the thinking. I do not know of any other fights that I ever had; I have never had very many fights.

Q. You don't think you have been a fighting man at all?

A. No, indeed; I never had any one accuse me of it.

Q. How many fights have you had?

A. Well, I am 59 years old, and I have been – I can't tell you. I told you all about the serious troubles. The fist fights, if that is what you are referring to, I couldn't tell you anything about that.

Record at 23:

Q. Your counsel asked you whether you ever carried a pistol. When did you stop carrying a pistol?

A. When I ceased to be an officer. That has been a good many years ago. I was a United States officer here, and never carried any; and I haven't carried any in New York for the last ten years. The last time that I carried a pistol was, I think, probably in Denver when I was acting as Deputy Sheriff.

Q. Did you ever carry a pistol in the City of New York?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. Then it wasn't the last time that you carried a pistol when you were acting as Sheriff in Denver was it?

A. No. I had almost overlooked the New York incident.

Record at 24:

Q. You were arrested on the charge of being mixed up in a crooked faro game, weren't you?

A. Well, I never knew what I was arrested for; there was never any complaint against me.

Q. You mean to say that you didn't make any inquiry as to what the charge against you was?

A. No; I never learned. I attempted to. I heard what they said, and that is all I know about it.

Record at 26–27:

Q. You have, in your judgment, quite a reputation in this town, haven't you Mr. Masterson?

A. Well, I don't know what you mean by "reputation"; good or bad? What do you mean?

Q. Well, you are well known, – generally known, I mean?

A. Well, yes; yes, sir; I am very well known. I was well known when I came here. I don't think my reputation had been made by the affrays which I had been engaged in, in the West.

Record at 32:

Q. You have killed a great many men including your affrays in the Indian War, haven't you?

A. I think I have stated all here.

Q. Well, you are proud of those exploits in which you killed men aren't you?

A. Oh, I don't think about being proud of it. I do not feel that I ought to be ashamed about it; I feel perfectly justified. The mere fact that I was charged with killing a man standing by itself I have never considered an attack upon my reputation.

Appeal of the Verdict

Cardozo was hardly finished with the case, however. He filed an appeal with the Appellate Division, First Department a week later. In his brief, he reiterated his main themes at the trial, but also argued strenuously that Patterson's mention of Roosevelt's book required a reversal. Noting that the former president was not a witness and that the book was not in evidence, he characterized the attorney's remarks as "flagrantly improper,"⁴⁹ and argued, "It is idle to say that such misconduct is to be overlooked because the trial judge instructed the jury to disregard the remark."⁵⁰ Later, in his reply memorandum, Cardozo derided Patterson's claim that the remark was inadvertent, stating, "It was a deliberate attempt to gain an unrighteous advantage; and it should receive its fitting penalty."⁵¹

On the subject of the plaintiff's reputation, Cardozo presented an unflattering summary of Masterson's

career, which he characterized as “chequered.”⁵² Demonstrating the same facility with words he later exhibited in many of his judicial opinions, he remarked that during Masterson’s career the “monotony of fist fights was varied by encounters with weapons.”⁵³ With regard to Masterson’s arrest in 1902, he wrote that when “the champion of the west came to the far east . . . [h]e had hardly set foot in this city before he was arrested on the charge of a disgraceful offense.”⁵⁴ Cardozo also used Masterson’s testimony about this arrest as an example of his alleged lack of candor on the witness stand.

Reviewing other aspects of the plaintiff’s testimony, he asserted that Masterson’s only real complaint was the charge that his victims were drunk, which “cut [the libel] down to a pretty fine point.”⁵⁵ He concluded by stating that the plaintiff “complains, not because he has been defamed, but because he has not been sufficiently extolled.”⁵⁶

Cardozo also argued that, considering Masterson’s reputation, the damages were excessive. Cardozo claimed that Masterson had gloried in the stories about him and “lived on notoriety,”⁵⁷ concluding that his “sudden sensitiveness ought not to be rewarded with a gift of \$3,500 out of the defendant’s treasury.”⁵⁸

The brief also defended the content of the article,⁵⁹ stressing that Masterson had indeed killed several men, and quoted John Coulter’s statement that Masterson was spoken of “as an efficient killer.”⁶⁰ It also noted Whitman’s testimony that the number of Masterson’s victims was reputed to be more than 28 men. Cardozo continued to insist that Ufer’s remark was not to be taken seriously, but was merely “the rough, and rather rude, humor of sporting men and pugilists,”⁶¹ adding that the idea that anyone would take them seriously ran “counter to common sense and experience”⁶² and did not justify a \$3,500 verdict.

The remainder of the brief dealt with Justice Ford’s charge to the jury. It claimed that Ford had erred by charging that Masterson had been libeled as a matter of law and for refusing to allow the jury to consider whether the libel had been justified, either in whole or in part. He also objected to other aspects of the charge, including the failure to state that the article did not charge Masterson with cowardice and that there was no innuendo in the term “gunfighter.”

The appeal was decided by a memorandum opinion issued on December 19, 1913, by the Appellate Division,

First Department.⁶³ By a 3-2 vote, it reversed the trial court and awarded a new trial unless the plaintiff stipulated to a reduction of the verdict to \$1,000. Voting to reverse were Presiding Justice George L. Ingraham, a veteran jurist who had been on the First Department bench since its establishment in 1896, Chester McLaughlin, who would later serve on the Court of Appeals with Cardozo from 1917–1926, and Francis M. Scott. For affirmance were Frank C. Laughlin and John Proctor Clarke, both appointees of Bat Masterson’s friend, then-Governor Theodore Roosevelt.⁶⁴

Although Laughlin and Clarke’s dissent would have permitted an appeal to the Court of Appeals, at this point the case vanishes from the law reporters. There is also no mention of the appellate decision in either the *Morning Telegraph* or the *Globe and Commercial Advertiser*. Thus, it must be assumed the result was acceptable to both parties and that Masterson was paid his \$1,000 in damages.

This was probably the best result that Cardozo could have hoped to achieve. Arguing without the benefit of *New York Times v. Sullivan*,⁶⁵ both the facts and the law were against him. Ufer’s remarks taken as a whole were obviously false, and they were clearly motivated by his anger over the possibility that Masterson’s charges about the Morris-Flynn fight would hurt box office receipts. In addition, Masterson was a popular figure whose claim to a good reputation had the endorsement of both former President Roosevelt and the Manhattan district attorney. Thus, Cardozo’s best argument was his “common sense” claim that the passing remark of a man such as Ufer could have done no serious harm to Masterson’s reputation, and that significant damages were unwarranted.

Even if the Court of Appeals had heard the *Masterson* case, Cardozo would no longer have been involved. Less than a month after the Appellate Division decision, he began his judicial career as one of Justice Ford’s colleagues on the Supreme Court in the First Judicial District. Ford himself remained on the bench until his retirement in 1932. In the 1920s, he gained press attention as the founder of the Clean Books League, which sought to ban from the state such titles as D.H. Lawrence’s *Women in Love*.⁶⁶ The *Globe and Commercial Advertiser* was absorbed by the *New York Sun* in 1923. The *Morning Telegraph* survived until 1972, when it was taken over by the *Racing Form*. As for Bat Masterson, he died at his sportswriter’s desk in 1921, while working

***Arguing without the benefit of
New York Times v. Sullivan,
both the facts and the law
were against him.***

on his column. He is buried in Woodlawn Cemetery in the Bronx.

1. 160 A.D. 890, 144 N.Y.S. 1129 (1st Dep't 1913).
2. There is also no mention of the case in Andrew L. Kaufman's *Cardozo* (1998), Richard A. Posner's *Cardozo: A Study in Reputation*, Richard Polenberg's *The World of Benjamin Cardozo*, or in any law review article. The trial is briefly discussed in the most comprehensive Masterson biography, but no mention is made of Cardozo. See Robert K. DeArment, *Bat Masterson: The Man and the Legend* 385 (1979).
3. The *Morning Telegraph* was a daily that featured several pages of standard news coverage, but the majority of each issue was given over to the coverage of sports and show business events and personalities.
4. *New Members of the Court of Appeals*, Bench & B., Feb. 1914, at 2.
5. Kaufman, *supra* note 2, at 112.
6. *Id.*
7. W.B. "Bat" Masterson, *Morris-Flynn Fight a Bunk Says Masterson*, Morning Tel. (N.Y.), Sept. 10, 1911, at 9.
8. W.B. "Bat" Masterson, *Governor Dix in Town; Will Look Over Boxing*, Morning Tel. (N.Y.), Sept. 12, 1911, at 7.
9. W.B. "Bat" Masterson, *Flynn-Morris Contest Still Being Exploited*, Morning Tel. (N.Y.), Sept. 14, 1911, at 6. When the fight was held, Flynn easily defeated the larger, slower Morris in a 10-round decision. See *Fireman Jim Flynn Whips Carl Morris; Oklahoma Giant and "White Hope" Shows No Class in Garden Fight*, N.Y. Times, Sept. 16, 1911, at 8.
10. Record at 93, *Masterson v. Commercial Advertiser Ass'n*, 160 A.D. 890, 144 N.Y.S. 1129 (1st Dep't 1913) (hereinafter "Record").
11. *Id.* at 6.
12. See *Too Much Blood*, Atchison Champion, Nov. 17, 1881, reprinted in DeArment, *supra* note 2, at 215.
13. "Bat" Masterson – Here's How!, Wash. Post, Feb. 8, 1905, at 6.
14. DeArment, *supra* note 2, at 216.
15. *Id.* at 180.
16. *Id.* at 244.
17. W.B. "Bat" Masterson, *Morris Surely Out of the Championship Race*, Morning Tel. (N.Y.), Sept. 17, 1911, at 4.
18. Cardozo's partner, Angel Simpson, retired during 1913 and the firm name then became Cardozo & Engelhard.
19. Kaufman, *supra* note 2, at 93.
20. See *Alliger v. Brooklyn Daily Eagle*, 6 N.Y.S. 110 (Sup. Ct. 1889), *aff'd*, 127 N.Y. 651 (1891).
21. See *Perley v. Shubert*, 121 A.D. 786, 106 N.Y.S. 593 (1st Dep't 1907), *aff'd sub nom. Hupfel v. Boston Ins. Co.*, 198 N.Y. 520 (1910).
22. See *Perley v. Shubert*, 199 N.Y. 544 (1910).
23. See *Ziegfeld v. Norworth*, 148 A.D. 185, 133 N.Y.S. 208 (1st Dep't), *appeal dismissed*, 202 N.Y. 580 (1911).
24. Answer to Am. Compl. at 9, *Masterson v. Commercial Advertiser Ass'n*, 160 A.D. 890, 144 N.Y.S. 1129 (1st Dep't 1913).
25. *Id.*
26. *Id.*
27. "Bat" Masterson in Office, Wash. Post, Mar. 28, 1905, at 1.
28. Before charging the jury, Justice Ford noted how intently they had followed the case. See Record at 77.
29. Record at 17.
30. *Id.* at 19.
31. Faro involves correctly guessing which of the next two drawn cards will be high or low. The game could be rigged by tampering with the box from which the cards were dealt.
32. Record at 24.
33. *Id.* at 26.
34. *Id.* at 28.
35. *Id.* at 30.
36. *Id.* at 32.
37. *Id.* at 49.
38. *Id.* at 33.
39. *Id.*
40. *Id.* at 44.
41. *Id.* at 45.
42. *Id.* at 74.
43. *Id.* at 76.
44. *Id.* at 69.
45. *Id.*
46. *Id.* at 77. In the book, Roosevelt referred to Masterson as one of the men of "noble spirit" who "clean[ed] the West of its murderers, of its bandits, and of its criminals and making it the garden spot of America," quoted in William E. Lewis, W.B. "Bat" Masterson Vindicated; the Globe Will Pay \$3,500, Morning Tel. (N.Y.), May 22, 1913, at 4.
47. Record at 12.
48. Lewis, *supra* note 46, at 4.
49. Appellant's Brief at 11, *Masterson v. Commercial Advertiser Ass'n*, 160 A.D. 890, 144 N.Y.S. 1129 (1st Dep't 1913) (hereinafter "Appellant's Brief").
50. *Id.* at 12.
51. Appellant's Mem. in Reply at 2, *Masterson*, 160 A.D. 890.
52. Appellant's Brief at 4.
53. *Id.* at 6.
54. *Id.* at 7.
55. *Id.* at 19.
56. *Id.* at 11.
57. *Id.* at 9.
58. *Id.* at 19.
59. *Id.* at 6.
60. *Id.* at 4.
61. *Id.* at 19.
62. *Id.*
63. See *Masterson v. Commercial Advertiser Ass'n*, 160 A.D. 890, 144 N.Y.S. 1129 (1st Dep't 1913).
64. Roosevelt had appointed Laughlin to the Appellate Division in 1901. That year, he had also chosen Clarke to fill the unexpired Supreme Court term of the late Justice H.R. Beekman.
65. 376 U.S. 254 (1964).
66. See *Justice Shocked by Book in Home; Ford Angered When He Learns Library Sent His Daughter "Women in Love,"* N.Y. Times, Feb. 11, 1923, at 18.

Appropriating Artists Face Uncertainty in Interplay Between First Sale and Fair Use Doctrines

BY JASON D. SANDERS

Matthew Barney's work *Cremaster 2: The Man In Black* incorporated an entire copy of *Billboard* magazine mounted on a nylon frame, opened up to a particular page showing an advertisement that included a photograph of Johnny Cash. On that page, Barney had made various graphite, petroleum jelly and beeswax alterations and additions. On May 3, 2003, the photographer of the underlying photograph filed a copyright infringement action in a San Francisco federal court seeking damages not only from Barney, but also from the auction house that was planning to auction the *Cremaster* work, Barney's gallery, and a magazine that ran an image of the *Cremaster* work.

The case was settled out of court, and thus a decision was never made, but the result highlights the legal uncertainty now faced by appropriating artists. A copyright holder has a right to make the first sale of a work or copies of a work, as well as the exclusive right to prepare any derivative works, which are defined as any "work based upon [the] preexisting work," including "any other form in which a work may be recast, transformed or adapted."¹ This right attaches the moment the work is put in any tangible form.

Once the first sale has been made of a copyrighted work or a copy of it, "the owner of a particular copy or phonorecord . . . or any person authorized by such owner . . . without the authority of the copyright owner, [has the right] to sell or otherwise dispose of the possession of that copy or phonorecord."² Essentially, this allows a purchaser of a copyrighted work, such as a book, to resell that object without threat of copyright infringement.

Under a separate doctrine, the public may also make "fair use" of the work, which allows the use of copyrighted material in a new work without the owner's consent in certain "fair" circumstances, such as criticism, comment and parody.

The interplay between these principles has never been clearly defined, and as appropriation art has become more prominent, so has the threat of lawsuits. Those who claim to follow in the footsteps of Andy

Warhol or Marcel Duchamp may be choosing a dangerous path. For example, Warhol was threatened with a lawsuit by Patricia Caulfield over his use of a Caulfield photograph in making his *Flowers* paintings; Warhol settled.³ Sherry Levine was also subjected to pressure over her use of Edward Weston photographs; she stopped using them.⁴ Other artists such as Robert Rauschenberg and David Salle have similarly settled cases out of court when faced with copyright infringement actions.⁵ As one prominent gallery owner commented, "If these copyright laws had been applied from 1905 to 1975, we would not have modern art as we know it."⁶

Appropriation Art

An artist's use of a tangible object, such as pages of a book or newspaper, a movie ticket, or a soda can is a staple of modernism and postmodernism. Picasso and Braque, who incorporated copies of newspaper clippings and other physical objects into collages, were among the first prominent artists to use these techniques in the early 20th century.

Sometimes appropriation is used simply for visual aesthetics, and other times for social or artistic commentary. For example, Kazimir Malevich's *Composition with Mona Lisa*, made in 1914, was a clear visual commentary



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on the appropriated work. At the center of Malevich's work was an image of the *Mona Lisa*, cut out from a newspaper, with a large red "X" across its center, expressing his repudiation of the classical realist painting style.⁷ Other works, such as James Rosenquist's collages, may not be commenting on the incorporated image *per se*, but on what the image reflects about society, or simply the image's aesthetic value. Contemporary artists such as Tim Rollins, Nancy Chunn and Jason Rhoades continue the tradition of appropriation. These artists, at times, have all drawn or painted upon a background made up of pages from copyrighted texts, or otherwise incorporated copyrighted objects into their work.⁸

In determining potential liability for such artworks, a distinction must be drawn between "reproduction appropriation," in which an artist *reproduces* an image or aspect of a copyrighted work as part of a new work, and "consumption appropriation" in which an artist uses, and in doing so *consumes* the physical object, the original work itself, in the production of a new work.

Andy Warhol's *Flowers* would be considered a reproduction appropriation, because he reproduced the image of the flowers originally photographed by Patricia Caulfield.

Jason Rhoades' *PeaRoe Ramp* would be considered a consumption appropriation, because as part of the work he incorporated (and thereby consumed) the physical objects – Ivory Snow boxes (as well as, among other things, a 2003 XR50 Honda motorcycle).

Matthew Barney's work is an example of consumption appropriation, because it incorporates an entire copy of *Billboard* magazine. As a work of consumption appropriation, Barney's *Cremaster 2: The Man In Black* fell in the uncertain nexus of the competing copyright principles of transferability of tangible objects and protectability of the intellectual property embodied in those objects.

Albuquerque A.R.T. Decisions

The two cases with the most significant implications for liability in appropriation art arose in a situation far removed from the celebrity and creative process of Warhol or Jeff Koons. In the late 1980s and early 1990s a company called Albuquerque A.R.T. was sued for copyright infringement twice – once in California and once in Illinois – over its process of mounting lawfully pur-

chased book pages, note cards and lithographs onto decorative ceramic tiles for resale.⁹

Both at the trial level and at the appellate level, A.R.T. lost in California and won in Illinois.¹⁰ The two A.R.T. decisions conflict with each other, and the U.S. Supreme Court has not spoken directly on this issue. Thus, an artist's right to incorporate a physical copy of an existing work into a new creation is now narrower in California than in Illinois, and uncertain everywhere else. A recent Supreme Court decision, however, may signal the Court's willingness to engage the issue, and could potentially lead to greater creative freedoms for artists.

Ninth Circuit result: In *Mirage v. A.R.T.*, Albuquerque A.R.T. purchased a book of images by Patrick Nagel and,

without permission from the copyright holders of the book or the original artwork, removed selected pages from the book, mounted them individually on ceramic tiles and sold the tiles. In 1986, A.R.T. was sued for copyright infringement by the copyright holder of the Nagel images. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals ultimately held that A.R.T. had indeed violated the underlying copyright by creating an unauthorized derivative work of the Nagel images.¹¹

In applying the statute, the court focused on the phrase "any other form in which a work may be recast, transformed, or adapted" in the definition of a "derivative work."¹² The court held that this language only required that "the infringing work must incorporate a portion of the copyrighted work in *some form*."¹³

The court rejected A.R.T.'s defense that it was merely reselling an object it had lawfully purchased. It stated that the transfer of a copyrightable object does not grant the purchaser the right to create a derivative work of that object. With little analysis, the court determined that an owner's right to sell the work is secondary to the copyright holder's right to prohibit the making of derivative works. Indeed, this holding implies that a violation of copyright occurs as soon as any modifications are made – *whether or not there is even a resale of the modified object*. The implications of this are quite far-reaching. For example, this holding could be read to say that if notes are made in the margins of a book, they may constitute an infringement.

Seventh Circuit result: In 1994, Albuquerque A.R.T. was again sued over its process of purchasing images, mounting them onto ceramic tiles and reselling them. *Lee v. A.R.T.* was brought in the Northern District of

Sometimes appropriation is used simply for visual aesthetics, and other times for social or artistic commentary.

Illinois by Annie Lee, whose copyrighted note cards and small lithographs were purchased by A.R.T. and mounted on tiles. Both at the trial and at the appellate level, A.R.T. was held not to have violated the underlying copyrights.¹⁴

Judge Easterbrook, writing for the Seventh Circuit, initially noted that “one might suppose that this is an open and shut case under the doctrine of first sale.”¹⁵ The court reasoned that there was no economic rationale for allowing the copyright holder to preclude others from creating derivative works out of lawfully purchased copies, because the original artist captures the value of the work through the original sale.¹⁶ The court, however, was certainly aware of the previous decision in California, and noted the tension between the doctrine of first sale and the copyright holder’s exclusive right to prepare derivative works.¹⁷ Choosing not to resolve that tension, the court instead examined the narrow question of whether A.R.T. had even created a “derivative” work.¹⁸

The court analogized A.R.T.’s process to the framing of an artwork, and stated that if “mounting works a ‘transformation,’ then changing a painting’s frame or a photograph’s mat equally produces a derivative work.”¹⁹ Further, the court stated that when the case was argued by the parties, the court had asked:

[W]hat would happen if a purchaser jotted a note on one of the note cards, or used it as a coaster for a drink, or cut it in half, or if a collector applied his seal (as is common in Japan); [plaintiff’s] counsel replied that such changes prepare derivative works, but that as a practical matter artists would not file suit.²⁰

Finding this answer troubling at the least, the court stated, “A definition of derivative work that makes criminals out of art collectors and tourists is jarring despite [plaintiff’s] gracious offer not to commence civil litigation.”²¹ The court stated that the A.R.T. work was “bonded to a slab of ceramic, but it was not changed in the process. It still depicts exactly what it depicted when it left Lee’s studio.”²² Thus, the court held that by mounting the image on a tile, A.R.T. had not “recast, transformed or adapted” the original work and, therefore, no derivative work had been created; accordingly, there had been no copyright infringement.

The court’s reasoning in finding no infringement was very narrow, based only on the proposition that mounting the images did not sufficiently transform the origi-

nal to create a “derivative work.” Thus, an artist who appropriates and consumes a copy of an existing copyrighted work, but also sufficiently alters the copy to create a new “transformed” artwork, will find no solace in this holding.

While, on its face, this holding strengthens the rights of those who lawfully acquire copies of copyrighted works, the problem is that it creates an almost perverse incentive. The more “creativity” that is added to an existing work in creating a new work, the more likely it is that the new work will be considered “derivative” of the original and, thus, more likely that liability will attach. Copyright law would thus inhibit free expression, rather than provide an incentive for it.

“Moral Rights” And VARA

In the interim between the two A.R.T. decisions, Congress passed the Visual Artists Rights Act of 1990, known as “VARA,” which provided specific protections for authors of “works of visual art.”²³ The statute narrowly defines a protected

“work of visual art” as a work that exists in a single copy or in a signed, numbered, limited edition of fewer than 200 copies.²⁴

VARA gives artists the right to claim authorship in such works, to prevent the use of the artist’s name in connection with works the artist did not create, and to prevent the intentional distortion, mutilation or modification of such an artist’s work which would be prejudicial to the artist’s honor or reputation.²⁵ These protections are afforded to the author of the work, regardless of whether the author still holds the copyright.²⁶ These artists’ rights, generally known as rights of “attribution” and “integrity,” fall under the rubric of the “moral rights” of an artist over his or her work. Such rights are prevalent in European systems, but until the enactment of VARA, were not explicitly protected under American law.²⁷

VARA protects against a “modification” of a work only if (1) the work is a “work of visual art,” as defined in the statute, and (2) the modification is “prejudicial” to the artist. If, however, the Ninth Circuit’s interpretation of the derivative work protection is correct, when a work is “modified,” a derivative work is created – giving rise to infringement liability under general copyright law. Thus, even if the requirements under VARA (that the work be of limited production and that the modification be prejudicial) are not met, general copyright protection would prevent the modification.

Artists’ rights, generally known as rights of “attribution” and “integrity,” fall under the rubric of the “moral rights” of an artist over his or her work.

Because the Ninth Circuit's expansive interpretation of derivative work protection makes VARA's protections superfluous (and Congress did not likely intend to pass a meaningless statute), the continuing vitality of the Ninth Circuit's position is questionable.

Judge Easterbrook recognized in the Seventh Circuit's A.R.T. decision that, because the note cards at issue did not meet the definition of a "work of visual art," they would not be protected under VARA against the modification made by A.R.T.²⁸ The court cautioned that "[i]t would not be sound to use [the derivative works provision] to provide artists with exclusive rights deliberately omitted from the Visual Artists Rights Act."²⁹ Because, however, the holding of the decision was based on the finding that A.R.T. had not created a derivative work at all, the court's analysis of the VARA provisions was dictum.

U.S. Supreme Court in *Dastar*

The U.S. Supreme Court's decision last year in *Dastar* signals that the Supreme Court may be willing to engage this issue, and potentially to rein in the broad protections that ensnared A.R.T. in California.³⁰

The case involved Dastar Corporation, which bought a copy of the television series *Crusade In Europe*, for which the copyright protection had expired. Dastar edited the series down to about half the length of the original, added a new opening sequence, credit sequence and closing, and new chapter titles. It called the series *World War II Campaigns In Europe*, created new packaging, and omitted any reference to the original *Crusade In Europe* series. Dastar then sold the revised version as its own product, without any reference to the original copyright owners (although the copyright had expired). Twentieth Century Fox, which had owned the copyright for the original series, brought an action against Dastar. Because copyright protection had lapsed, Fox claimed that Dastar had violated trademark law by misrepresenting the "origin of the goods" – namely, a misrepresentation of the creator or "author" of the series.

The Supreme Court ruled in favor of Dastar, noting that it was unwise to grant trademark protection in an area that is already covered by VARA. Recognizing that VARA is the legislation that specifically provides an author with "the right . . . to claim authorship of that work," the Court noted that the "express right of attribution is carefully limited and focused: It attaches only to specified 'work[s] of visual art,' is personal to the artist, and endures only for the 'life of the author.'"³¹ The Court refused to issue a holding that "would render these limitations [of VARA] superfluous."³²

The Supreme Court's reasoning in *Dastar* is in line with the discussion of VARA in the Seventh Circuit's A.R.T. decision. Analogous to the trademark protection

Preemption in New York Practice

Protecting an artist's moral rights in New York may have become harder due to a recent ruling in the Southern District of New York. In 1983, New York passed the Artists Authorship Rights Act, becoming the second state, after California, to pass a statute protecting the moral rights of artists. The Artists Authorship Rights Act (AARA), embodied in N.Y. Arts and Cultural Affairs Law § 14.03, protects against:

[knowing] display in a place accessible to the public . . . a work of fine art or limited edition . . . or a reproduction thereof in an altered, defaced, mutilated or modified form if the work is displayed . . . as being the work of the artist, or under circumstances under which it would reasonably be regarded as being the work of the artist and damage to the artist's reputation is reasonably likely to result therefrom.

AARA protections overlap considerably with the protections afforded by the Visual Artists Rights Act (VARA), 17 U.S.C. § 106A, although there are some important distinctions. For example, VARA excludes from protection a work that is part of a building if the work cannot be removed without its "destruction, distortion or mutilation" and (1) the work was installed before the effective date of VARA or (2) the author and the building owner have specified in writing that installation of the work may subject it to destruction. There is no such exclusion in AARA.

In 2001, Forrest Meyers brought an action to enjoin the owners of the building at 559 Broadway from destroying one of his installations. The artwork, which had been installed before the passage of VARA, was composed of a series of aluminum bars bolted in the braces of the building. The work was part of a larger citywide project commissioned by City Walls, a predecessor to the Public Art Fund, an organization that continues to commission highly regarded artworks in public spaces throughout New York City. Likely concerned that his work might not be protected under VARA, Mr. Meyers brought an action under both VARA and AARA. In *Board of Managers of SOHO International Arts Condominium v. City of New York*,¹ the court dismissed Mr. Meyers' AARA claims, holding that AARA was preempted by VARA. In doing so, the court reasoned that "preemption occurs even when the state statute has a broader application."

1. 2003 U.S. Dist. Lexis 10221, No. 01 Civ. 1226 (DAB) (S.D.N.Y. June 17, 2003).

Partial Silence and a Transfer of Rights

Under New York law, it serves an artist to be specific if he or she wishes to retain certain, but not all, ownership rights in a work of art. One of the landmark rulings in that regard dates back to 1930, and concerns Hovsep Pushman and his painting *When Autumn is Here*. After completing the painting, Mr. Pushman turned it over to Grand Central Art Galleries to act as his agent for its sale. There was no discussion between Mr. Pushman and the gallery regarding reproduction rights. The painting was sold to the University of Illinois, which later sold the reproduction rights to the New York Graphic Society.

On learning that reproductions of his work were to be made, Pushman brought suit. The New York Court of Appeals rejected Pushman's contention that the sale of the physical work does not imply a transfer of the copyright. The Court held that though an artist's common law right to reproduce a work was separate and distinct from the ownership of the physical property, if an artist "wishes to retain or protect the reproduction right, [he or she] must make some reservation of that right when [he or she] sells the painting."¹ This seemingly harsh New York rule of total transfer was eventually abrogated by statute. N.Y. Arts and Cultural Affairs Law § 14.01 now provides that "the reproduction right" of a work of art is reserved unless it passes into the public domain by law or is otherwise "expressly transferred" in writing.

The underlying reasoning of *Pushman*, however, in many respects remains good law. In the recent dispute between Ronnie Greenfield (former member of "The Ronettes" and former wife of Phil Spector) and Philles Records over the right to license certain Ronettes recordings for use in connection with television and movies, the New York Court of Appeals relied on *Pushman* in interpreting the governing two-page contract. The Court reasoned that the otherwise broad contract's silence on the particular licensing issue was not an ambiguity and held in favor of Philles Records, stating that "the unconditional transfer of ownership rights to a work of art includes the right to use the work in any manner unless those rights are specifically limited by the terms of the contract."²

1. *Pushman v. New York Graphic Soc'y*, 287 N.Y. 302, 308 (1942).

2. *Greenfield v. Philles Records*, 98 N.Y.2d 562, 572, 750 N.Y.S.2d 565, 571 (2002).

sought by Fox, the Ninth Circuit's interpretation of general copyright protections renders VARA's more specifically delineated rights of attribution and integrity superfluous. Thus, if this issue is litigated again, the reasoning in *Dastar* may give the courts a clear basis for repudiating the Ninth Circuit's expansive approach.

An interesting test case may already be in the courts. A Utah-based video rental chain called Clean Flicks is in the business of offering for rent videos from which it has removed the "objectionable content" in the films, such as the nude scene in *Titanic*. In 2002, most likely fearing a suit from the members of the Directors Guild of America, Clean Flicks filed a preemptive action against several prominent directors seeking a declaration that its practices did not violate the rights of the directors.³³ The directors and several studios filed counterclaims alleging that Clean Flicks' practices violated the "false designation of origin" provisions of trademark law as well as copyright law. Because of the ruling in *Dastar*, there is a strong argument that the directors' false designation of origin claim is not tenable. If the court finds that to be the case, then will the court allow the action to go forward on copyright grounds? This action could be the test case of the Supreme Court's apparent inclination to scale back broad interpretations of generic intellectual property protections. Congress is apparently interested and not convinced that Clean Flicks or similar services will prevail under existing copyright and trademark laws. On June 16, 2004, a bill called the "Family Movie Act of 2004" was introduced in the House of Representatives. That bill would amend the Copyright Act and Lanham Act to specifically allow companies to continue to sell products that edit films for home viewing.³⁴ It seems that this battle will be fought in the legislature as well as in the courts.

Fair Use

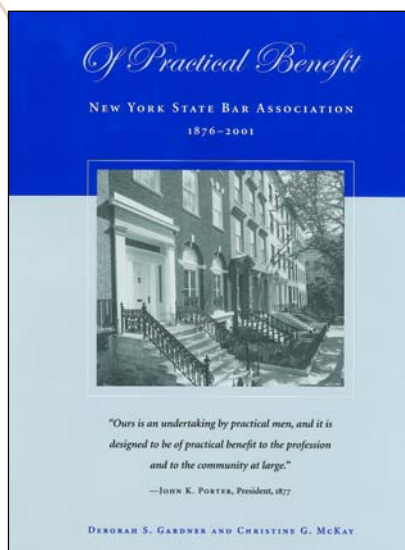
One more significant defense was not discussed in *Lee*, *Mirage*, or *Dastar*. The Copyright Act carves out a specific area of "fair use" of copyrighted works, which it delineates as not an infringement of copyright. Of these "fair uses," one of the most commonly asserted is that of parody. Though not asserted in either *Lee* or *Mirage*, an artist who appropriates an existing work in order to parody or comment on that work may still be protected by the fair use doctrine. Several artists have tested these waters previously, with varying degrees of success.³⁵

Generally, an artist who seeks to use the defense of parody will be much more likely to succeed if the work appropriated is both recognizable – or better yet, iconic – and is the subject of the parody. In a well-known example, a court found artist Jeff Koons liable for copy-

CONTINUED ON PAGE 24

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right infringement for his work *String of Puppies* because, in large part, the copied work was obscure and the parody was of society, not of the work itself.³⁶ As the Supreme Court stated in *Campbell v. Acuff-Rose Music, Inc.*, “[p]arody’s humor . . . necessarily springs from recognizable allusion to its object through distorted imitation. Its art lies in the tension between a known original and its parodic twin.”³⁷

Further, an appropriating artist who transforms the underlying work is also more likely to succeed on a fair use defense. On the other hand, the more of the work that is taken, and the less alteration that is done to that work, the greater the risk of a court finding a copyright violation.

Practical Concerns

Because liability may arise from the distribution of protected works as well as reproduction, potential defendants in an art-related lawsuit would include not only the appropriating artist, but also the gallery selling the work, or even the company publishing a catalog of the work. For those who are sued, or are fearful of being sued, to the extent that the action can be heard in the Seventh Circuit – or anywhere other than the Ninth Circuit – it would be helpful. The opposite advice applies to artists or copyright holders who believe that another artist has unlawfully appropriated their work.

Further, even assuming the court holds that an artist may appropriate an existing work if he or she “consumes” that work in the artist’s own, this does not clear all hurdles. Even if the original of the work is protected, reproduction of that new artwork containing the appropriating copy would still pose serious concerns. The appropriating artist would only be able to *reproduce* the “new work” if a license had been obtained from the original artist for the underlying work, or in circumstances in which a fair use defense applied. For example, if the appropriating artist or a gallery wanted to advertise the new work for sale, a court might consider the advertisement a fair use on the ground that the reproduction in an advertisement is ancillary to the right to sell the new work.³⁸ If, however, the appropriating artist wished to reproduce the new work on a series of calendars, that would likely be found to be prohibited unless a license was obtained with respect to the appropriated work or unless a fair use defense, such as parody, applied.

Conclusion

Matthew Barney’s technique of appropriating an existing text in the creation of the *Cremaster 2: The Man In Black* work is a well-established tool in contemporary art. Nonetheless, it falls in a very uncertain area of copy-

right law. Not only may artists, gallery owners, collectors and others who create or sell works of appropriation art face potential liability under current copyright decisions, because the law is so unsettled, it may be very difficult for even a well-informed individual to accurately gauge the potential liability.

Appropriation art has become far too common a practice to have its legality be unsettled. There is a need for courts to rectify the current uncertainty in copyright law and more clearly delineate the balance between copyright protection of existing works and an appropriating artist’s ability to incorporate such works into a new work. As it stands, the broad reach of general copyright protections may indeed stifle the creativity that the Copyright Act was intended to promote. Until this issue is more clearly decided, artists, purchasers and sellers should be aware of the potential liability arising from such works.

1. 17 U.S.C. § 106.
2. 17 U.S.C. § 109(a).
3. See Note: *Beyond Rogers v. Koons: A Fair Use Standard for Appropriation*, 93 Colum. L. Rev. 1473 (1993). See also *infra*, notes 35 and 36 and accompanying text.
4. *Id.*
5. *Id.*
6. See William M. Landes, *Copyright, Borrowed Images, and Appropriation Art: An Economic Approach*, 9 Geo. Mason L. Rev. 1, 17 (2000) (citing Geraldine Norman, *The Power of Borrowed Images*, Art & Antiques, Mar. 1996, at 125 (quoting art dealer Jeffrey Deitch)).
7. Several years later Marcel Duchamp marked up a similarly small-scale reproduction of the *Mona Lisa* by adding a mustache and goatee in his piece *L.H.O.O.Q.* (1919) which has itself become iconic.
8. Mr. Rollins works with Kids of Survival (K.O.S.) to create images laid upon the books/texts that embody motifs drawn from the text. In Tim Rollins’ work, “[t]ypically, actual pages from literary classics are laid on canvas to form a ground and then over painted with imagery that embodies motifs from the text.” Tim Rollins bibliography available at <<http://www.ku.edu/~sma/online/rollins/rollinsinfo.html>>. Nancy Chunn created a series of works entitled *Front Pages* which were 366 front pages of *The New York Times* from 1996 on which she made additions, comments, and eradications. See Press Release, Ronald Feldman Fine Arts Inc. (Dec. 22, 1996). Jason Rhoades creates sculptures that incorporate various objects, including objects containing copyrighted texts, such as a box of Ivory Snow soap. See Press Release, David Zwirner gallery (Sept. 1, 2003).
9. See *Mirage Editions, Inc. v. Albuquerque A.R.T. Co.*, 856 F.2d 1341 (9th Cir. 1988), cert. denied, 489 U.S. 1018 (1989); *Lee v. Deck the Walls, Inc.*, 925 F. Supp. 576 (N.D. Ill. 1996), *aff’d sub nom. Lee v. A.R.T. Co.*, 125 F.3d 580 (7th Cir. 1997).
10. See *Mirage Editions*, 856 F.2d at 1344; *Lee*, 125 F.3d at 581–83.
11. *Mirage Editions*, 856 F.2d at 1344.
12. *Id.* at 1343.

13. *Id.* at 1343-44 (emphasis in original) (citations omitted).
14. *Lee*, 125 F.3d at 581-83.
15. *Id.* at 581.
16. *Id.*
17. *Id.*
18. *Id.*
19. *Id.* at 582.
20. *Id.*
21. *Id.*
22. *Id.*
23. Pub. L. No. 101-650; 17 U.S.C. § 106A.
24. 17 U.S.C. § 101 (defining the term "work of visual art").
25. 17 U.S.C. § 106A.
26. 17 U.S.C. § 106A(a) (the right belongs to "the author of a work of visual art").
27. *See Lee*, 125 F.3d at 582.
28. *Id.* at 583.
29. *Id.*
30. *Dastar Corp. v. Twentieth Century Fox Film Corp.*, 539 U.S. 23 (2003).
31. *Id.* at 34.
32. *Id.* at 35.
33. Civil Action No. 02-M-1662 (MJW) (D. Colo. filed 2002).
34. The "Family Movie Act of 2004" would amend the Copyright Act and Trademark Act "[t]o provide that making limited portions of audio or video content of motion pictures imperceptible by or for the owner or other lawful possessor of an authorized copy of that motion picture for private home viewing, and the use of technology therefor, is not an infringement of copyright or of any right under the Trademark Act of 1946." H.R. 4586 108th Congr. (2004).
35. *See Campbell v. Acuff-Rose Music*, 510 U.S. 69 (1994) (parody defense successful); *Leibovitz v. Paramount Pictures Corp.*, 137 F.3d 109 (2d Cir. 1998) (parody defense successful); *Rogers v. Koons*, 960 F.2d 301 (2d Cir. 1992) (parody defense fails).
36. *Rogers*, 960 F.2d 301.
37. 510 U.S. at 588.
38. In the context of a right of publicity claim, similar uses have been allowed. *See, e.g., Hoepker v. Kruger*, 200 F. Supp. 2d 340, 349-53 (S.D.N.Y. 2002) (advertising for non-infringing work did not incur liability due to its incidental nature to the exhibit itself).

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Responses to Juvenile Crime Consider the Extent of Parents' Responsibility for Children's Acts

BY SUSAN L. POLLET

You are a parent of a teenager. Your teenager assaults another child, or kills a teacher, or steals someone's property, or commits any manner of crime upon a third person. Maybe your child is a pre-teen or younger. To what extent should civil or criminal sanctions be imposed against you, the parent, for failing to supervise and/or control your child?

We all know parents whom everyone thinks to be competent as parents, and yet their children are "out of control." Conversely, we all know children who seem centered and stable, with parents and home lives that one would think would create "acting out children." When are the efforts of parents raising their children the best they can, not enough?

The observation has been made that, as a practical matter, "it is extremely difficult to draw a precise link between parenting and violent behavior by their children. Children are not widgets on an assembly line; we cannot attribute their defects to the manufacturing process of the parental factory."¹

This article explores how the law has attempted to deal with parental responsibility, with an emphasis on the law in New York.

Juvenile crime is a topic of ever-increasing concern:

Generally, criminology theories and empirical studies indicate that families, economic status, academic achievement, peer groups, community attachment, and susceptibility to the media affect whether a child becomes delinquent.²

Alternatives for reducing juvenile crime that have focused on the parents have included laws on child abuse and neglect, statutes on contributing to the delinquency of a minor, and standards that hold parents civilly and criminally liable for their children's criminal acts.³ Efforts to "address the root causes of juvenile crime before the crime is committed" have included teaching morals in early childhood, providing character education in the schools, establishing intensive day care and family services for those below the poverty line, and having cities enforce juvenile curfews "to compen-

sate for parents' lack of supervision."⁴ Some states (including New York), in seeking to address the causes of juvenile crime, have used prevention programs, including "family training, mentoring, conflict resolution classes, criminal law instruction, community safe sanctuaries, and public service announcements."⁵

Parental Responsibility Laws

States and municipalities have enacted parental responsibility laws "that are noteworthy for their increased emphasis on holding parents guilty for the wrongdoing of their children. These laws evolved from 'endangering the welfare' statutes."⁶

This new penology is defined by several trends, including a greater emphasis on managing crime than on eliminating it, a greater focus on dangerous populations than on culpable individuals, a normalization of crime and anti-crime measures, and the use of lawmaking as a symbolic activity.⁷

Commentators have reported that 43 jurisdictions have enacted parental responsibility laws, the first of which was passed in Colorado in 1903.⁸ Parental liability statutes hold parents liable, either criminally or civilly, for failing to control their child's delinquent behavior.⁹ A "notorious" parental liability statute enacted in St. Clair Shores, Mich., for example, "based its liability on a theory of negligence, and it stated 'it is the continuous



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duty of the parent of any minor to exercise reasonable control to prevent the minor from committing any delinquent act.”¹⁰ Some commentators argue that the negligence standard is the most effective one for a parental liability statute.¹¹ Other scholars have advocated a “hybrid-type model” of parental liability laws, which includes possible monetary fines, criminal penalties and other court-ordered remedies.¹²

The critics of parental liability laws have argued, from a policy standpoint, that these laws create a greater division in family relationships, which could result in parental abuse of the child or increased violence between the parents,¹³ and that “laws and judicial action alone will never make all parents pay proper attention to their children.”¹⁴ Critics maintain that these laws are ineffective and underused.¹⁵ From a legal standpoint, critics argue that parental liability laws present issues of “vagueness, overbreadth, and imputing liability without fault.”¹⁶ The argument is made that parents have “a constitutionally protected interest in raising [their] children, an interest with which the State cannot lightly interfere. *E.g. Prince v. Massachusetts*, 321 U.S. 158 (1944); *Pierce v. Society of Sisters*, 268 U.S. 510, 535 (1925).”¹⁷

From a policy standpoint, commentators note that parental responsibility laws “are supported by the assumption that there is an incontrovertible nexus between ‘bad’ children and ‘bad’ parents.”¹⁸ This assumption is belied by the fact that as children develop, parental influence increasingly competes with other types of influence such as from peers, the community and popular culture, and, therefore, this approach is too simplistic.¹⁹ The argument is made that, because many theories on the causes of juvenile delinquency exist, and the impact of parental influence continues to be debated in the literature, there should be debate as well on legislative reasoning relying primarily on this “parental influence” theory to support creating parental responsibility laws.²⁰ Policy advocates state that a broader approach would work better because parental responsibility laws address only the family, and focus primarily on sanctioning parents as a means of reducing crime. Professionals from other disciplines could work together with legal professionals (*e.g.*, prosecutors).²¹

Advocates of parental liability laws argue that “increased civil and criminal liability for parents may be the quickest, most cost-effective way of getting parents to better monitor their children.”²² Commentators suggest that there should be a “coherent public policy

response,” enforced by tort law, to “encourage parents to control and monitor their children using the threat of pecuniary damages.”²³ The position is also taken that “victims of juvenile delinquency, vandalism, and other acts of violence or malicious mischief by minors must be granted relief and allowed to look to the parents for redress under circumstances reasonably indicating neglectful or irresponsible parenting.”²⁴ An argument raised is that parental liability should be expanded as a means of “promoting corrective justice” in circumstances where children harm others, but also to “underscore the shared nature of the responsibility for the children’s wrongs.”²⁵

With respect to parental civil liability, there have been three major stages in the development of this jurisprudence in the United States. The first is the traditional common-law view that,

except in rare instances, parents are not civilly liable for the acts of their minor children. The second stage is an exception to the common-law rule, carved out in the Restatement (Second) of Torts, section 316, which holds parents liable, in certain circumstances, for the torts of their minor children. The third stage is the creation of state statutes that hold parents liable for “the willful, malicious, or intentional conduct of their minor children.”²⁶

In the legal arena, the three major legal theories that advocate imposing civil parental liability are liability without fault, liability based on misaction, and liability based on inaction.²⁷ Although many states in the United States have, in the last few years, passed new laws or strengthened old ones to hold parents accountable for their children’s acts, in fact, few cases actually “make it to the courtroom.”²⁸

New York’s Position

What is the New York response to parental liability? With respect to criminal liability, the New York Penal Law contains a section regarding “endangering the welfare of a child,” a class A misdemeanor.²⁹ With respect to civil liability, parents of a child more than 10 and less than 18 years can be held civilly liable, pursuant to N.Y. General Obligations Law § 3-112, for damages caused by such child, where the child has “willfully, maliciously, or unlawfully damaged, defaced or destroyed . . . public or private property” or where such child has “knowingly entered or remained in a building and has wrongfully taken, obtained or withheld such public or private personal property from such building” or where

The three major legal theories that advocate imposing civil parental liability are liability without fault, liability based on misaction, and liability based on inaction.

such child "has falsely reported an incident or placed a false bomb."³⁰

With respect to New York case law, the longstanding approach has been that a "parent is not liable, merely by reason of his or her relationship, for the torts of the child,"³¹ unless the parent is "guilty of some further act or omission that, in conjunction with the relationship's duties and obligations, caused the damages."³² The Appellate Division, Second Department, in a leading case from 1937, which is recognized for illustrating the common-law rule, set forth certain situations when the parent may be held liable:

Where the relationship of master and servant exists and the child is acting within the scope of his authority accorded by the parent; (2) where a parent is negligent in intrusting to the child an instrument which, because of its nature, use and purpose, is so dangerous as to constitute, in the hands of the child, an unreasonable risk to others; (3) where a parent is negligent in intrusting to the child an instrumentality which, though not necessarily a dangerous thing of itself, is likely to be put to a dangerous use because of the known propensities of the child; (4) where the parent's negligence consists entirely of his failure reasonably to restrain the child from vicious conduct imperilling others, when the parent has knowledge of the child's propensity toward such conduct, and (5) where the parent participates in the child's tortious act by consenting to it or by ratifying it later and accepting the fruits.³³

Under common law, a parent is not liable for failure to supervise a child.³⁴ In the seminal case of *Holodook v. Spencer*, the New York Court of Appeals held that a parent's negligent failure to supervise his or her child is not recognized as a tort, actionable by a child.³⁵ Thus, the general rule in New York is "that there is no parental liability for the torts of minors."³⁶ The New York Court of Appeals has stated that "parents are in the best position to determine how much supervision is right for their children."³⁷ Case law has subsequently limited and distinguished *Holodook*.³⁸ In *Nolechek v. Gesuale*, the New York Court of Appeals held that "an alleged tort-feasor . . . may seek indemnity or contribution from the injured child's parent when the child's injury, and the tort-feasor's consequent tort liability, resulted from the parent's negligent entrusting of a dangerous instrument to the child."³⁹ (The dangerous instrument was a motorcycle in that case.) Commentators have noted that:

The New York courts are reluctant to intrude upon parents' rights to bring up their children as they see fit. At some point, though, the parents must be accountable for the actions of their children, especially if they are particularly aware of dangerous conduct.⁴⁰

The New York Court of Appeals has stated that "it is well-established law that a parent owes a duty to third parties to shield them from an infant child's improvi-

dent use of a dangerous instrument, at least, if not especially, when the parent is aware of and capable of controlling its use."⁴¹ The Court of Appeals explained the rule further in *La Torre v. Genesee Management*, holding that a mother could not be held liable for leaving her developmentally disabled child unsupervised at a shopping mall, even though the mother knew of the child's propensity for violent outbursts.⁴² The Court stated that it is "unreasonable to burden parents and guardians . . . by exposing them to rebound liability, flowing from a child's or adult's natural deficits or personal qualities" based merely on "general allegations."⁴³ The Court of Appeals established the rule that "parental liability for negligent entrustment is limited to circumstances where a parent's conduct creates a particularized danger to third persons that is plainly foreseeable."⁴⁴

Conclusion

New York has not enacted parental responsibility legislation that is as broad as the provisions enacted by some other states. Critics of such legislation would argue against having New York expand liability for parents of children who commit crimes. Preventing juvenile crime is a goal all would agree upon, and yet, the means of achieving that goal has varied by state. An interdisciplinary approach is essential with such complicated issues when crafting legislation nationwide in both the criminal and civil arenas.

1. Andrew Schepard, *Parental Responsibility: The Columbine Aftermath*, N.Y.L.J., July 8, 1999, p. 3.
2. Tami Scarola, Note, *Creating Problems Rather Than Solving Them: Why Criminal Parental Responsibility Laws Do Not Fit Within Our Understanding of Justice*, 66 Fordham L. Rev. 1029, 1073-74 (Dec. 1997).
3. *Id.* at 1040.
4. *Id.* at 1040-41.
5. *Id.* at 1074.
6. Paul W. Schmidt, Note, *Dangerous Children and the Regulated Family: The Shifting Focus of Parental Responsibility Laws*, 73 N.Y.U. L. Rev. 667, 677 (May 1998).
7. *Id.* at 668.
8. Eric Paul Ebenstein, Note, *Criminal and Civil Parental Liability Statutes: Would They Have Saved the 15 Who Died at Columbine*, 7 Cardozo Women's L.J. 1, 15 (2000).
9. Tammy Thurman, *Parental Responsibility Laws/Are They the Answer to Juvenile Delinquency?* 5 J. L. Fam. Stud. 99 (2003).
10. Ebenstein, *supra* note 8, at 16 (citing St. Clair Shores, Mich., Code 20.563(a) (1994)).
11. *Id.* at 17.
12. *Id.* at 20.
13. *Id.* at 20-21 (citing Christine T. Greenwood, *Holding Parents Criminally Responsible for the Delinquent Acts of Their Children: Reasoned Response or 'Knee-Jerk Reaction'?* 23 J. Contemp. L. 401, 427 (1997)).
14. *Id.* at 21.

15. Scarola, *supra* note 2, at 1046.
16. Ebenstein, *supra* note 8, at 21–22.
17. Schepard, *supra* note 1.
18. Thurman, *supra* note 9, at 101.
19. *Id.* at 102.
20. *Id.*
21. *Id.* at 107.
22. Ebenstein, *supra* note 8, at 28.
23. Valerie D. Barton, Comment, *Reconciling the Burden: Parental Liability for the Tortious Acts of Minors*, 51 Emory L. J. 877, 880 (Spring 2002).
24. *Id.* This commentator suggests several different legislative solutions, including allowing a rebuttable presumption of parental negligence for tortious actions by children under the age of seven, or statutes permitting the assertion of the doctrine of *res ipsa loquitur*, or strict liability.
25. Rhonda V. Magee Andrews, *The Justice of Parental Accountability: Hypothetical Disinterested Citizens and Real Victims Voices in the Debate Over Expanded Parental Liability*, 75 Temple L. Rev. 375, 442 (Fall 2002).
26. Andrew C. Gratz, Comment, *Increasing the Price of Parenthood: When Should Parents be Held Civilly Liable for the Torts of Their Children?*, 39 Hous. L. Rev. 169, 172–73 (2002).
27. Thurman, *supra* note 9, at 103.
28. *Id.*
29. N.Y. Penal Law § 260.10.
30. For a good discussion of this statute, and the case law interpreting it, see Joseph Mack, Comment, *Street Fights, Air Rifles, Shotguns, Minors & Their Parents. A New York Perspective on Parental Liability for the Torts of their Minors*, 21 Pace L. Rev. 441, 463–64 (Spring 2001).
31. *Steinberg v. Cauchois*, 249 A.D. 518, 519, 293 N.Y.S. 147 (1937) (citations omitted).
32. *Id.*
33. *Id.* (citation omitted).
34. Schepard, *supra* note 1.
35. 36 N.Y.2d 35, 45, 364 N.Y.S.2d 859 (1974).
36. Mack, *supra* note 30, at 468.
37. *Nolechek v. Gesuale*, 46 N.Y.2d 332, 338, 413 N.Y.S.2d 340 (1978) (citing *Holodook*, 36 N.Y.2d at 49–51).
38. Mack, *supra* note 30, at 450–63.
39. *Nolechek*, 46 N.Y.2d at 336; see Mack, *supra* note 30, at 457.
40. Mack, *supra* note 30, at 468.
41. *Nolechek*, 46 N.Y.2d at 338–39 (citations omitted).
42. 90 N.Y.2d 576, 665 N.Y.S.2d 1 (1997).
43. *Id.* at 582.
44. *Rios v. Smith*, 95 N.Y.2d 647, 652, 722 N.Y.S.2d 220 (2001). See *Linder v. Bidner*, 50 Misc. 2d 320, 270 N.Y.S.2d 427 (1966), in which the Supreme Court, Queens County, applying section 316 of the Restatement (Second) of Torts, held that in order for parental liability to arise, it must be demonstrated that the parents knew of the dangerous propensities of the child, and then neglected to use reasonable care to control the child so as to prevent the indulgence in those propensities. The court noted that there is no liability on the part of the parents for the general incorrigibility of the child.

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Court-Appointed Law Guardians Face Issues Involving Liability, Conflicts and Disqualification

BY GARY MULDOON

Being a law guardian – an attorney appointed to represent a minor – poses issues that differ from those that face counsel who represent other litigants. Some of these issues focus on ethical matters, including compensation, legal liability (malpractice), and disqualification.

A law guardian is appointed by a judge to provide representation in Family Court or state Supreme Court. The case may involve custody, adoption, juvenile delinquency, abuse or neglect, divorce, or post-divorce issues. The law guardian may be a private attorney or an employee of a legal aid society.

Liability and Immunity

In a family law proceeding – often focusing on the issue of custody¹ – the child is represented by a law guardian, while each parent has separate counsel. Decisions addressing whether a parent may sue a law guardian for negligence or legal malpractice hold that quasi-judicial immunity applies.² These cases are consistent with decisions in other contexts that quasi-judicial immunity extends to appointees of a judge.³ The threat of civil liability of a law guardian would inhibit necessary investigation and advocacy for children in furtherance of their best interests.⁴

One lower court decision notes, however, that a law guardian does not possess quasi-judicial immunity for intentional torts against a party.⁵

While a malpractice suit may be barred, there is no reimbursement for the law guardian for defending the action.⁶

Conflicts of Interest

One difficulty with a parent or other party suing a law guardian is the ongoing nature of a family law case. If a client sues his or her own attorney, at that point an obvious conflict arises. Where another party sues an opposing attorney, no conflict then occurs – the other party and attorney had antagonistic positions from the outset. But where the law guardian is sued by a parent – who may be a party to a pending family law case – the law guardian, while not representing that parent, might

eventually advocate that the child be placed with, or visit with, that parent or the other parent, or another party. Filing suit against the law guardian could itself create a conflict of interest.

Should a law guardian, upon being sued, move to withdraw?⁷ Should the judge who has appointed the law guardian, grant the withdrawal motion? If so, does this create a situation where a disgruntled parent can use the simple expedient of bringing a collateral lawsuit to remove a law guardian for one possibly more favorably disposed to the parent's wishes? Using an even easier route of filing an ethics complaint with the grievance or disciplinary committee, does this compel the law guardian to withdraw?

A parent is usually a poor candidate to raise issues of conflict of interest and improper representation of the child, yet the minor is legally unable to raise these issues, and may also be unable to articulate his or her concerns, or even realize that a problem exists with representation.⁸

Normally, one party may not disqualify the attorney of another party – the other party has the right to counsel of his or her choice.⁹ In custody cases, each parent almost inevitably has a significantly different perception of the law guardian. Based on that perception, one parent may seek to disqualify the law guardian.¹⁰ Such a motion will usually fail.¹¹

In one case where a parent sought to disqualify the law guardian, the basis for the application was the



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“advocate-witness” rule.¹² The court denied disqualification of the law guardian, finding there was no showing that the attorney would be called as a witness.¹³

Where there are several children in a family, one law guardian is often appointed to represent all. When a conflict of interest arises among the children, however, new counsel for the children may be required.¹⁴ A law guardian’s judgment regarding the best interests of the child may lead to properly advocating a position that is contrary to the child’s expressed wishes.¹⁵

Disqualification Granted

Where the mother’s attorney was president of the legal aid society that employed the law guardian, the law guardian’s judgment could reasonably be affected, and the children could not consent to representation after full disclosure of the conflict.¹⁶

In another case, however, where two separate divisions of a legal aid society represented the mother on a criminal case as well as the child in a termination of parental rights case, disqualification was not ordered. No information had been disclosed from one division to the other. In addition, the mother had delayed significantly in moving for disqualification and further delay would have imposed a significant burden on the child.¹⁷

It is important that the law guardian’s judgment be independent of both parents and other litigants. In Supreme Court, a judge can order the parties to pay the law guardian’s fees. The law guardian, however, should obtain court approval beforehand for such compensation. Where compensation occurred outside of what the court ordered, the law guardian was removed.¹⁸

A parent may properly refer children to an attorney, who then may represent them. In a custody or neglect case, however, the appearance or possibility of a conflict of interest¹⁹ precludes allowing the parent to retain counsel for the children or become so involved in the representation. In other cases where the interests of the parent and child do not conflict, such as juvenile delinquency, it may be appropriate for parents to retain counsel for the minor.

The “no-contact” rule applies to a child represented by a law guardian: another attorney may not communicate directly with the child.²⁰ In one case where the father’s attorney had a psychiatrist examine the child without the law guardian’s knowledge and consent, the father’s attorney was disqualified and use of the psychiatric examination was barred.²¹

Like other attorneys in a lawsuit, a law guardian should not have *ex parte* contact with the judge.²² Providing a law guardian’s report to the judge, which commonly occurred in some courts in the past, is improper: not only is it *ex parte*, it also may place the law guardian in the role of an unsworn witness.²³ The law

Sample Letter to Parents

The following is a sample of an introductory letter that a law guardian might send to the parents of the affected children in a case involving custody.

Dear (Parent 1 and Parent 2):

I am writing to you about the custody proceeding that is going on. The judge has appointed me to act as a “law guardian.” I will be the legal representative of your child(ren), _____.

As you know, the next court appearance is _____, 20__, at ____ m. It will be necessary for me to meet with the child(ren) before that, and perhaps more than once. Please understand that anything that I discuss with the children remains private, just as your conversations with your attorney remain private. Also, during the course of my involvement, it may be necessary for me to make recommendations to the court. These will be based on my contact with the child(ren), contacts with others, and my own evaluation. The recommendation will be mine, rather than the child(ren)’s.

Enclosed is a copy of the court order assigning me. As it notes, as a law guardian, it may be necessary to contact others, such as child care, schools, agencies and doctors as part of my representation.

I would also appreciate the opportunity to speak with each of you regarding your own concerns. If your attorney wishes to be present during such a meeting, by this letter I am requesting him/her to notify me. Because I am a law guardian, representing the child(ren), be advised that information you provide to me is not covered by the attorney-client privilege, and I may disclose it.

Please contact my office so that we may arrange a time to meet.

The order provides that both parents are responsible to pay the fees for representing your child(ren). If you have any questions on this, please discuss it with your attorney.

Very truly yours,
Law Guardian

Enc.

c: (Attorney - Parent 1)
(Attorney - Parent 2)

guardian may properly advocate the client’s position in the presence of other counsel.²⁴

Compensation

In Family Court cases, the law guardian is usually paid by New York State, although a Family Court judge may require payment by the parties.²⁵ (The Fourth

Department does not permit law guardians in Family Court to be paid by the parties.²⁶) A private attorney who acts as law guardian may be paid by New York State at the rate fixed by statute, now \$75 per hour.²⁷ A private law guardian is subject to Part 36 of the Rules of Court.²⁸

The trial judge may require the parents to pay the law guardian at the prevailing rate for attorneys in private practice, rather than the assigned counsel rate.²⁹ A parent required to pay the law guardian's fee may, at the end of the case, seek a hearing on the appropriate amount of the fee, but not at the time an interim award is made.³⁰

Where the law guardian is not paid by New York State, but instead by a private source (usually the parents), interim payments of law guardian fees may be appropriate.³¹

A law guardian should timely apply for compensation, but he or she does not forfeit the right to be paid by not complying with a court's informal request for submitting the voucher, so long as the application is made within the statute of limitations.³²

Conclusion

The role of the law guardian is changing, taking on a more important function in custody cases as well as in other family law litigation. Higher standards are expected of lawyers who represent children.³³

1. In some types of cases, appointment of a law guardian is mandatory. In others, e.g., custody, the appointing of a law guardian is discretionary. *Merril Sobie*, New York Family Court Practice § 14.2 (1996); see *Wilson v. Bennett*, 282 A.D.2d 933, 724 N.Y.S.2d 520 (3d Dep't 2001).
2. *Drummond v. Drummond*, 291 A.D.2d 368, 737 N.Y.S.2d 628 (2d Dep't 2002); *Blunt v. O'Connor*, 291 A.D.2d 106, 737 N.Y.S.2d 471 (4th Dep't 2002).
3. See *Mosher-Simons v. County of Allegany* (*In re Estate of Eck*), 288 A.D.2d 823, 732 N.Y.S.2d 771 (4th Dep't 2001) (county that performed home study at court's direction had immunity), *aff'd*, 99 N.Y.2d 214, 753 N.Y.S.2d 444 (2002); *Pertilla v. Genetic Design*, 166 Misc. 2d 843, 634 N.Y.S.2d 1006 (Sup. Ct., Chenango Co. 1995) (laboratory appointed by court).
4. *Bradt v. White*, 190 Misc. 2d 526, 740 N.Y.S.2d 777 (Sup. Ct., Greene Co. 2002); see Susan L. Thomas, Annotation, *Liability of Guardian ad litem for Infant Party for Negligence in Connection with Suit*, 14 A.L.R. 5th 929 (1993).
5. See *Bradt*, 190 Misc. 2d 526 (dictum).
6. See *Stein v. Murphy*, 82 A.D.2d 794, 439 N.Y.S.2d 221 (2d Dep't 1981) (assigned counsel defending malpractice suit). But see *United States v. Barner*, 285 F. Supp. 2d 568 (M.D. Pa. 2003) (attorney who represented defendant in federal court under Criminal Justice Act awarded fees under 18 U.S.C. § 3006A(d)(1) as compensation for the "opportunity costs" lost in appearing at 17 days of hearings to defend himself against allegations of ineffective assistance of counsel).

7. A law guardian should be permitted to withdraw where it is clear that the law guardian and minor are not communicating. *In re Elianne M.*, 196 A.D.2d 439, 601 N.Y.S.2d 481 (1st Dep't 1993).
8. One commentator has stated:
A law guardian has a special obligation when representing the very young child. An infant or toddler obviously cannot formulate or articulate a specific legal position, and children of elementary school age may not be fully capable of guiding a law guardian. In these situations it may be preferable for the court to appoint a law guardian *ad litem* in addition to the law guardian, but Family Courts rarely do so.
Sobie, *supra* note 1, § 14.3. Cf. *Fargnoli v. Faber*, 105 A.D.2d 523, 524, 481 N.Y.S.2d 784 (3d Dep't 1984) ("It is evident that guardians ad litem should not normally be appointed when minors are the subject of proceedings in Family Court, but that Law Guardians or counsel of their own choice should represent the minors.").
9. See *S & S Hotel Ventures Ltd. P'ship v. 777 S.H. Corp.*, 69 N.Y.2d 437, 443, 515 N.Y.S.2d 735 (1987).
10. A motion to disqualify the law guardian must be made in order to preserve the issue for appeal. *In re "Nicole VV,"* 296 A.D.2d 608, 746 N.Y.S.2d 53 (3d Dep't 2002).
11. See *Petkovsek v. Snyder*, 251 A.D.2d 1087, 674 N.Y.S.2d 211 (4th Dep't 1998); *King v. King*, 266 A.D.2d 546, 698 N.Y.S.2d 906 (2d Dep't 1999); *Maurer v. Maurer*, 243 A.D.2d 989, 663 N.Y.S.2d 421 (3d Dep't 1997); *Stien v. Stien*, 130 Misc. 2d 609, 496 N.Y.S.2d 902 (Fam. Ct., Westchester Co. 1985); see also *Smith v. Smith*, 241 A.D.2d 980, 667 N.Y.S.2d 141 (4th Dep't 1997); *Zirkind v. Zirkind*, 218 A.D.2d 745, 630 N.Y.S.2d 570 (2d Dep't 1995).
12. The Lawyer's Code of Professional Responsibility, DR 5-102 (hereinafter "Code").
13. *Herald v. Herald*, 305 A.D.2d 1080, 759 N.Y.S.2d 275 (4th Dep't 2003).
14. *In re H. Children*, 160 Misc. 2d 298, 608 N.Y.S.2d 784 (Fam. Ct., Kings Co. 1994).
15. *Carballeira v. Shumway*, 273 A.D.2d 753, 710 N.Y.S.2d 149 (3d Dep't 2000); see *James MM. v. June OO.*, 294 A.D.2d 630, 740 N.Y.S.2d 730 (3d Dep't 2002).
16. *B.A. v. L.A.*, 196 Misc. 2d 86, 761 N.Y.S.2d 805 (Fam. Ct., Rockland Co. 2003).
17. *In re Commitment of T'Challa D.*, 196 Misc. 2d 636, 766 N.Y.S.2d 500 (Fam. Ct., Kings Co. 2003), *aff'd*, 3 A.D.3d 569, 770 N.Y.S.2d 649 (2d Dep't 2004).
18. *Davis v. Davis*, 269 A.D.2d 82, 711 N.Y.S.2d 663 (4th Dep't 2000); see *Fargnoli v. Faber*, 105 A.D.2d 523, 481 N.Y.S.2d 784 (3d Dep't 1984).
19. See *Campolongo v. Campolongo*, 2 A.D.3d 476, 768 N.Y.S.2d 498 (2d Dep't 2003) (disqualification of parent's attorney).
20. Code, DR 7-104; NYSBA Committee on Professional Ethics, Op. 656 (1993).
21. *Campolongo*, 2 A.D.3d 476.
22. *In re Connor*, N.Y.S. Commission on Judicial Conduct (Sept. 22, 2003), available at <<http://www.scjc.state.ny.us/Determinations/C/connor.htm>>. See *Weiglhofer v. Weiglhofer*, 1 A.D.3d 786, n.1, 766 N.Y.S.2d 727 (3d Dep't 2003); *Cobb v. Cobb*, 4 A.D.3d 747, 771 N.Y.S.2d 476 (4th Dep't 2004); see also *Flynn-Federico v. Federico*, ___ A.D.3d ___, 777 N.Y.S.2d 649 (1st Dep't 2004) (improper for judge to initiate *ex parte* contact with forensic neutral).

23. "In some cases, a law guardian has been requested by the Court to submit a separate pre-trial report and recommendations, or the attorney has elected to submit such a report. Frequently, the report includes hearsay statements, summaries of out of court interviews, impressions, or factual conclusions. The preparation and submission of such a report is inconsistent with the purpose and role of an attorney. The law guardian is not a social worker or a probation investigator. . . . Further, a law guardian who submits a report and recommendation opens the possibility that he will or should be called as a witness." NYSBA Committee on Children and the Law, Guide to Representing Children, Law Guardian Representation Standards, Commentary to Standard B-7 (Nov. 1999), available at <[http://www.nysba.org/Content/NavigationMenu/Attorney_Resources/NYSBA Reports/Guide_to_Representing_Children/Guide_to_Representing_Children.htm](http://www.nysba.org/Content/NavigationMenu/Attorney_Resources/NYSBA_Reports/Guide_to_Representing_Children/Guide_to_Representing_Children.htm)>.
24. See *Rueckert v. Reilly*, 282 A.D.2d 608, 723 N.Y.S.2d 232 (2d Dep't 2001).
25. See *Campo v. Campo*, 3 A.D.3d 565, 772 N.Y.S.2d 68 (2d Dep't 2004).
26. *Lynda A.H. v. Diane T.O.*, 243 A.D.2d 24, 673 N.Y.S.2d 989 (4th Dep't 1998).
27. N.Y. Judiciary Law § 35(3). N.Y. Comp. Codes R. & Regs. tit. 22, §§ 679.14 (Second Department); 835.5 (Third Department); 1032.6 (Fourth Department). By statute, the maximum amount of compensation is \$4,400, although that may be exceeded where extraordinary circumstances exist. Also in extraordinary circumstances, a court may award in excess of the statutory hourly rate. *Krista M. v. Gregory D.*, 194 Misc. 2d 526, 753 N.Y.S.2d 712 (Fam. Ct., Madison Co. 2003).
28. 22 N.Y.C.R.R. § 36.1(a)(3).
29. G. Van Ingen, Annotation, *Allowance of Fees for Guardian ad litem Appointed for Infant Defendant, As Costs*, 30 A.L.R.2d 1148 (1953).
30. *C.E. v. P.E.*, 177 Misc. 2d 272, 676 N.Y.S.2d 403 (Sup. Ct., Bronx Co. 1998). See *Campo v. Campo*, 3 A.D.3d 565, 772 N.Y.S.2d 68 (2d Dep't 2004) (Family Court award of \$250 per hour to law guardian, \$50 more than had even been requested, reduced on appeal).
31. *C.E.*, 177 Misc. 2d 272.
32. *Benatovich v. Koessler*, 231 A.D.2d 880, 647 N.Y.S.2d 880 (4th Dep't 1996).
33. See Linda D. Elrod, *Raising the Bar for Lawyers Who Represent Children: ABA Standards of Practice for Custody Cases*, 37 Fam. L.Q. 105 (2003).

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Judges' Clerks Play Varied Roles In the Opinion Drafting Process

BY GERALD LEBOVITS

In 1875, Massachusetts Chief Justice Horace Gray hired a law-school graduate to be his secretary. The Chief Justice paid the young man — whom he called a puisne¹ judge — from his own pocket. A few years after the Chief Justice was elevated to the Supreme Court, the United States government decided to pay for a clerk for each Justice.² Most Justices hired stenographers, but Justice Gray continued to hire young law graduates.

In 1919, after the government decided to pay for typists and a clerk, the other Justices began to hire recent law graduates. Thus began in federal court the institution of law clerks,³ which became common in federal court in 1936, when district judges were allowed to use law clerks, and widespread since 1959, when certifications of need for district judges were no longer required.⁴

What Law Clerks Do

Law clerks, the generic title used in this article, are integral to the decision-making process, both federally and in every state court of record. They “are not merely the judge’s errand runners. They are the sounding boards for tentative opinions.”⁵ Law clerks do “time-consuming and essential tasks: checking the record, checking citations, performing legal research, and writing first drafts Law clerks are indispensable to the judges, enabling them to focus on the decision itself and the refinement of the decision in writing.”⁶ Dan White, the satirist, explains the law clerk’s role this way: “All judicial clerks do the same thing, namely, whatever their judges tell them to do.”⁷

Law clerks are extensions of their judges. Whatever they do reflects on their judges. Good law clerks will excel at research, writing, administering the docket, and conferencing cases if in a trial part. Good law clerks maintain all personal and judicial confidences, play devil’s advocate with and be confidants to the judge, leave the decision making to the judge, save the judge from committing errors, and commit few of their own. A poor law clerk “dislikes library work, or . . . is unhappy unless agitating for a cause, or . . . is addicted to the telephone or cannot stand solitude.”⁸

Law Clerk Confidentiality

A maxim for law clerks is that what happens in chambers stays in chambers. Rarely while they work for judges have law clerks been known to share secrets. History records only one notorious example.⁹ In 1919, Justice Joseph McKenna’s law clerk was accused of leaking word of the decision in *United States v. Southern Pacific Co.*¹⁰ The clerk’s alleged co-conspirators profited from insider trading. When the plot was uncovered, the clerk resigned and was indicted for “conspiracy to defraud the Government of its right of secrecy concerning the opinions.” The clerk argued that no law forbade his supposed conduct, but his motion to dismiss was denied, as was his appeal to the D.C. Circuit and his petition for certiorari to the Court of his former employ.¹¹ The prosecution, however, eventually moved to dismiss the charges. Everything else about this affair is shrouded in mystery, except this: When the clerk, later a successful Washington baker, died at 83, he was cremated, and his ashes were “strewn on court property . . . under the cover of darkness.”¹²

Current law clerks may not reveal current confidences, but may they discuss their duties after they retire? The conventional wisdom is that law clerks must take confidences to the grave.¹³ But dozens of the nation’s most eminent attorneys and judges have written in surprising detail about their judges and the role they and their judges played in cases of national consequence.¹⁴ Law-clerk disclosure has turned into a “long-



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standing historical tradition that has developed over the past sixty years.”¹⁵

A law clerk to Justice Robert Jackson was once accused of betraying confidences about other law clerks.¹⁶ In an article that created a firestorm of protest and support, then-Mr. William Rehnquist wrote that “a majority of the clerks I knew [showed] extreme solicitude for the claims of communists and other criminal defendants.”¹⁷ Apparently recovered from that controversy, then-Justice Rehnquist later wrote a beautiful portrayal of his judge in an article that disclosed no confidences.¹⁸

One can write about experiences as a law clerk and divulge nothing secret. For a piece of this kind from a two-year New York Court of Appeals clerk, see an article by Mario M. Cuomo.¹⁹

Law-Clerk Writing

According to a federal judge who knows, “most judicial opinions are written by the judges’ law clerks rather than by the judges themselves.”²⁰ Law clerks often write first drafts: “It is an ill-kept secret that law clerks often do early drafts of opinions for their judges.” Law-clerk opinion writing comes as no surprise to those who work in the courts: “It is widely recognized . . . that law clerks now draft many of the decisions that emanate from . . . chambers.”²¹ By their writing, law clerks play a role in decision making: “[M]any judges, if not most, require their law clerks to draft opinions for motions before the judges even skim the briefs. . . . [M]any motions present a close call. The person who gets to take the first crack at it (*i.e.*, the law clerk) may influence the outcome.”²² The outcome is influenced because “[h]e who wields the pen on the first draft . . . controls the last draft.”²³

Law clerks, especially at the appellate level, also write bench memorandums.²⁴ The bench memorandum, or report, may include the following: A concise statement of the facts, with a verification of the litigants’ statements of fact by reference to the record; a statement of the issues in contention; the litigants’ arguments on the issues, verifying the authorities; an analysis of the issues and the law; a list of questions that inquiry at oral argument might resolve; a recommendation on whether the court should decide the matter with a full, *per curiam*, or memorandum opinion; and a draft *per curiam* or memorandum opinion if the law clerk recommends either following a screening process.

The precise format of the bench memorandum depends on the court’s tradition, but the memorandum should emphasize the relevant issues and be impartial,

critical, and thorough — but not so thorough that the judges might as well have read the briefs and the record before oral argument. The law clerk’s goal is to familiarize the court with the case before oral argument and to focus a judge who wishes to do further research. It is appropriate for neutral, objective clerks to state their views pre-argument. The court may, and often does, disagree with the clerks’ views after oral argument and additional study. Moreover, “the only mission of a [memorandum] opinion is to inform the parties why the court is deciding as it is and to assure them that the court considered and understood the case. . . . Staff in these cases can relieve the judges of the initial drafting job, simple though it may be, thereby freeing judge time for the other demands of the court’s business.”²⁵

Is law-clerk writing good or bad for the administration of justice? According to D.C. Circuit Judge Patricia M. Wald, “judges who write every word of their own opinions (except for a few certifiable geniuses) do not produce works of markedly greater clarity, cogency, or semantic skill. The opposite is more likely true. . . . I for one would not return to the days when law clerks sharpened pencils and checked citations; the present system for deciding cases could not sustain that development.”²⁶

Some believe that a rule should be enacted to make it unethical for law clerks to write judicial opinions.²⁷ Most believe, however, that law-clerk writing is good for the courts.²⁸

The Interplay Between Law Clerk And Judge in Opinion Writing

Much law clerk-judge writing is collaborative.²⁹ But whether the law clerk prepares the initial drafts or the final edits, the entire adjudicative function and decision-making process must remain exclusively with the judge. The litigants’ rights and public confidence in the judiciary demand no less. Even if the law clerk writes every word of a particular opinion, the judge must agree with and understand every one of those words as if the judge alone wrote each word. Every word and citation must be the authentic expression of the judge’s thoughts, views, and findings. This requirement forces judges to review, with an eye toward editing, every opinion but the most routine, mundane, and brief draft.

In the end, “no matter how capable the clerk, the opinion must always be the judge’s work.”³⁰ That is because “[w]e lose the judge’s processed involvement when technically proficient law clerks write the opin-

“All judicial clerks do the same thing, namely, whatever their judges tell them to do.”
— Dan White

Law Clerks in New York

The position of law clerk in New York has been authorized for some judges since 1909.¹ New York clerks are appointed differently from federal law clerks and play somewhat different, larger roles.

Like federal clerks, New York clerks should be selected with care. The judge-clerk relationship is "the most intense and mutually dependent one . . . outside marriage, parenthood, or a love affair."² But unlike federal judges, who typically appoint recent law-school graduates and mostly ask them to serve one- or two-year terms, New York judges tend to appoint experienced attorneys and retain them for lengthy durations as career court employees. New York practitioners and judges alike appreciate the maturity and wisdom that an experienced law clerk brings to a busy state court.

A federal clerkship has more status than a New York clerkship, but New York clerks are paid far better and in the main enjoy decidedly greater responsibilities, especially in the trial courts. Federal clerks can earn top salaries when they leave their judges, but New York clerks often secure job opportunities for which their federal counterparts must wait years: The New York judiciary is filled with law clerks who went directly from their clerkships to the bench, either by appointment or election.

In New York, court attorneys are called law clerks when they work for a Court of Claims judge or are the personal appointment of an elected

Supreme Court justice. Otherwise, they are court attorneys — from the court attorneys in the New York City Civil Court's Housing Part, to the pool attorneys in Supreme Court, to the court attorneys to the Chief Judge of the State of New York. Law clerks and court attorneys used to be called, respectively, law secretaries and law assistants.

Central staff court attorneys of the Court of Appeals answer to the Chief Judge and the court rather than to any particular Associate Judge. Court attorneys in the Appellate Division and the Appellate Term answer to the Presiding Justice of the Department or Term. Court attorneys assigned to a trial-term judge answer first to their judge, then to their supervising and administrative judges, and ultimately to the person who appoints them: the Deputy Chief Administrative Judge for New York City Courts or the Deputy Chief Administrative Judge for Courts Outside New York City. Law clerks are hired and fired by their justices alone.³ Trial Term court attorneys not assigned to a judge answer to their chief court attorney, then to their administrative judge, and ultimately to their respective Deputy Chief Administrative Judge.

The distinction between personally appointed law clerks and court-appointed court attorneys affects law clerks' and court attorneys' ethical obligations in terms of political activity,⁴ a fact of life in New York because many judges are elected from law-clerk ranks.

1. See N.Y. Judiciary Law §§ 166, 173 (Laws of 1909, Ch. 35), which gave Supreme Court justices the power to appoint confidential attendants and confidential law assistants.
2. Patricia M. Wald, *Selecting Law Clerks*, 89 Mich. L. Rev. 152, 153 (1990).
3. *In re Blyn v. Bartlett*, 39 N.Y.2d 349, 359–60, 348 N.E.2d 555, 560–61, 384 N.Y.S.2d 99, 104–105 (1976) (per curiam). A personally appointed clerk to an elected Supreme Court justice need not even be a lawyer. *In re Gilligan v. Procaccino*, 27 N.Y.2d 162, 166–68, 263 N.E.2d 385, 385–87, 314 N.Y.S.2d 985, 987–88 (1970).
4. See Gerald Lebovits, *Judicial Ethics, Law Clerks and Politics*, N.Y.L.J., Oct. 21, 1996, at 1, col. 1 (examining New York's Rules of the Chief Judge (governing nonjudicial-employee conduct) and the Rules of the Chief Administrator of the Courts (governing judicial conduct) as they apply to law clerks and court attorneys).

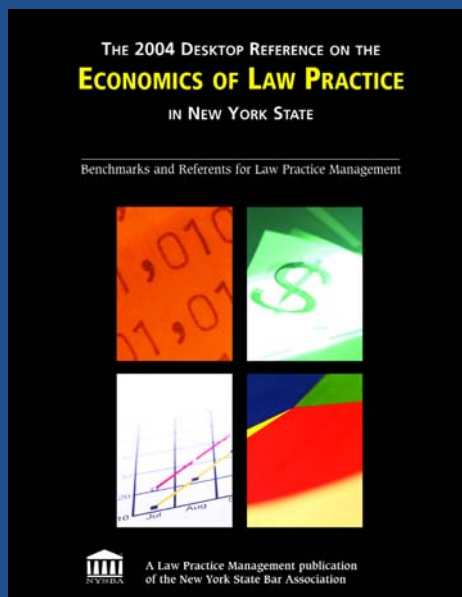
ions and the judge understands his role more as a decision maker and editor, if that, than as a writer."³¹ Although judges delegate "the task of stating the reasons for the decision, not the authority to decide . . . , the justice must make the final version his own opinion, because he is responsible for what it says."³² Thus, "the strongest control over staff personnel in their dealings with the judges is an ordinary sense of personal relationships. The judge is the boss. What he says and does

are the final mandates on an issue . . . "³³ Third Circuit Senior Judge Aldisert gives this advice to his clerks: "You were not selected by me to be a 'yes man.' . . . [Yet] when the decision is in, that is it."³⁴

Crediting Law Clerks and Law Students

Federal case law, including Supreme Court case law, is filled with textually relevant judicial acknowledgments that law clerks performed legal research.³⁵ But a

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judge should never acknowledge that a law clerk or judicial intern (often called “extern”) wrote the opinion. Doing so makes it appear that someone other than the judge decided the case. Reversal and remand to a different judge might be warranted if a judge credits a law clerk’s “preparation of this opinion.”³⁶ If a federal judge thanks an intern for assisting in writing an opinion, the West Group will print that appreciation.³⁷ So will the *New York Law Journal* if a New York State judge does so. A Westlaw check disclosed a surprising 146 published opinions (82 in the First Department, 64 in the Second Department) from 1990 to March 2004, in which the *Law Journal* printed acknowledgments to student interns from New York State judges.

Judicial interns, especially those who receive law-school academic credit for their work, are now accepted features in the courthouse.³⁸ Judges who thank their interns do so out of kindness to students who, mostly without pay, make a significant contribution. What is kind to the interns, however, is unkind to the litigants and the public. This is not to suggest that judges not use interns to help with opinions. To the contrary, judges and their law clerks improve legal education and sometimes their opinions when they assign research, writing, and editing tasks to interns, so long as the judge and the law clerk monitor all student work closely. But crediting the intern makes it appear that the court delegated its decision-making obligations to an unaccountable law student.

A higher authority forbids what the *New York Law Journal* and the West Group permit. For the past decade, the New York State Law Reporting Bureau has put into effect a Court of Appeals policy in which the State Reporter will not print judicial acknowledgments to law clerks or interns. This policy suggests that judges who want to thank their clerks and interns reconsider their impulse, however well meaning. Before the Court announced that policy, the New York State Official Reports occasionally printed irrelevant acknowledgments that law students provided “research assistance” “in the preparation of this opinion.”³⁹

Law-Clerk Cheating

Heaven forbid, a law clerk must never slip language or references past a judge. That happened in *United States v. Abner*,⁴⁰ which contains multiple allusions to the songs and albums of the Talking Heads rock band. The law clerk included these references to get free Talking Heads concert tickets. To no one’s dismay, law clerks have been fired for including non-judge-approved writing in judicial opinions. Judge Jerry Buchmeyer⁴¹ tells the story of the soon-to-be-dismissed law clerk in *State v. Lewis*.⁴² Without consulting a judge, the clerk added a

lawyer’s lament, written as a fictional “reporter,” to the Kansas official reports:

Statement of Case, by Reporter
This defendant, while at large,
Was arrested on a charge
Of burglarious intent,
And direct to jail he went.
But he somehow felt misused,
And through prison walls he oozed,
And in some unheard-of shape
He effected his escape.

* * *

LEWIS, tried for this last act,
makes a special plea of fact:
“Wrongly did they me arrest,
As my trial did attest,
And while rightfully at large,
Taken on a wrongful charge.
I took back from them what they
From me wrongly took away.”

* * *

Opinion of the Court. PER CURIAM:
We — don’t — make — law. We are bound
To interpret it as found.
The defendant broke away;
When arrested, he should stay.
This appeal can’t be maintained,
For the record does not show
Error in the court below,
And we nothing can infer.
Let the judgment be sustained —
All the justices concur.

Nor may a judge use an outside expert — as opposed to an intern, law clerk, special master, or referee — to assist in opinion writing.⁴³ As the New York Court of Appeals wrote in *In re Fuchsberg*, “law clerks often contribute substantially to the preparation of opinions. [But] [w]e cannot accept respondent’s explanation that he looked upon the law professors he consulted as ‘ad hoc’ law clerks.”⁴⁴

First Amendment Rights

May a law clerk refuse to draft an opinion? In *Sheppard v. Beerman*, a law clerk to a Supreme Court, Queens County, justice declined to draft an opinion that, the clerk claimed, would result in “railroading” a defendant. The justice fired the clerk in December 1990 after the clerk called him a “son of a bitch” and “corrupt.” The clerk sued the justice under 42 U.S.C. § 1983. District Judge I. Leo Glasser of the Eastern District of New York twice granted the justice’s motions to dismiss the complaint. Citing the law clerk’s free-speech rights, however, the Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit

reversed — twice.⁴⁵ From a unanimous *Sheppard II*: “[T]he relationship between a judge and clerk is one based upon trust and faith. . . . But the First Amendment protects the eloquent and insolent alike.”⁴⁶

In early 2002, Judge Glasser granted the now-retired justice’s summary-judgment motion, which the justice filed after he and others, including his two children, were subjected to 31 depositions.⁴⁷ In early 2003, in *Sheppard III*, the Second Circuit affirmed, “[g]iven the explosive exchange between Beerman and Sheppard and Sheppard’s inability to produce any evidence supporting his claim of improper motive,”⁴⁸ and the Supreme Court denied certiorari in late 2003.⁴⁹ The 13-year saga thus ended on a First Amendment analysis, but not on whether a law clerk may refuse to write an opinion.

Advice to Law Clerks and Practitioners

Law clerks have neither the judge’s commission nor the judge’s experience. Some clerks tend to overwrite; they include the irrelevant because they are unsure about what is important and because they might not have been at oral argument.

Practitioners can overcome a possible obstacle by making it easy for clerks to read and understand their papers — thus making it easy for the court to rule for them. Getting to the point quickly, applying law to fact succinctly, attaching photocopies of key precedents and statutes (for trial judges), making clear what relief is requested, and countering the other side’s points in writing as opposed to leaving them for oral argument are among the good habits practitioners should consider, not only for judges but especially for their clerks.

For judges and their clerks, communication is one answer to assuring quick and accurate decision making and opinion writing. Here is another for clerks. Law clerks, who come and go, must learn a valuable talent: how to emulate their judge’s writing style. Writing is connected to personality. Personality is reflected in the tone of the writing. Personality traits and writing styles do not change easily or overnight. Judges have preferences. Law clerks should learn them. Learning them maintains consistency, lets the judge adjudicate rather than edit for style, and, no small benefit, improves the law clerk’s writing. The best ways to learn the judge’s writing style is to study the judge’s opinions and to profit in future cases from the judge’s edits to current drafts.

Law clerks do not only write, whether opinions or jury charges. They also work with the public, whether it is scheduling cases or settling them. Law clerks are their judges’ alter egos. Clerks are imbued with the sense that they are more than their judges’ lawyers. As the Fifth Circuit put it, “Clerks are privy to the judge’s thoughts

in a way that neither parties to the lawsuit nor his most intimate family members may be.”⁵⁰ Clerks expect litigants and lawyers to deal with them as if they are dealing with the judge. Practitioners should realize that treating a member of the court family disrespectfully will not advance their cause. And clerks, who are subject to many of the same ethical rules as judges,⁵¹ must treat litigants and lawyers with the respect, competence, and intelligence with which the judge with the mandate must treat all.

1. Pronounced “puny.”
2. See 24 Stat. 254 (1886).
3. To study the history and current role of law clerks in America, see Paul R. Baier, *The Law Clerks: Profile of an Institution*, 26 Vand. L. Rev. 1125 (1973); George D. Braden, *The Value of Law Clerks*, 24 Miss. L.J. 295 (1953); Heather Bupp-Habuda, *Law Clerk’s Ethical Boundaries*, 38 Fed. B. News & J. 213 (1991); Norman Dorsen, *Law Clerks in Appellate Courts in the United States*, 26 Modern L. Rev. 265 (1963); John G. Kester, *The Law Clerk Explosion*, 9 Litig. 20 (1983); Cornelius J. Moynihan, Jr., *Ghostwriters in the Courts*, 17 Litig. 37 (1991); John B. Oakley & Robert S. Thompson, *Law Clerks and the Judicial Process: Perceptions of the Qualities and Functions of Law Clerks in American Courts* (1980); Richard A. Posner, *The Federal Courts: Crisis and Reform* 102–119 (1985); Nadine J. Wichern, Comment, *A Court of Clerks, Not of Men: Serving Justice in the Media Age*, 49 DePaul L. Rev. 621 (1999); Eugene A. Wright, *Observations of an Appellate Judge: The Use of Law Clerks*, 26 Vand. L. Rev. 1179 (1973). A book-length volume about law clerks by 15 prominent judges, academics, politicians, and journalists is found in *Law Clerks: The Transformation of the Judiciary*, 3 Long Term View: A Journal of Informed Opinion (1995).
4. J. Daniel Mahoney, *Law Clerks: For Better or Worse*, 54 Brooklyn L. Rev. 321, 325–26 (1988).
5. *Hall v. Small Business Admin.*, 695 F.2d 175, 179 (5th Cir. 1983) (Rubin, J.).
6. Jefferson Lankford, *Judicial Law Clerks: The Appellate Judge’s “Write” Hand*, Arizona Att’y 19, 21 (July 1995).
7. D. Robert White, *The Official Lawyer’s Handbook* 71 (1983).
8. Robert Braucher, *Choosing Law Clerks in Massachusetts*, 26 Vand. L. Rev. 1197, 1199 (1973).
9. This story is told best in Chester A. Newland, *Personal Assistants to Supreme Court Justices: The Law Clerks*, 40 Or. L. Rev. 299, 310 (1961), and John B. Owens, *The Clerk, The Thief, His Life as a Baker: Ashton Embry and the Supreme Court Leak Scandal of 1919*, 95 Nw. U. L. Rev. 271 (2000).
10. 251 U.S. 1 (1919).
11. See *Embry v. United States*, 257 U.S. 655 (1921).
12. David J. Garrow, *“The Lowest Form of Animal Life”? Supreme Court Clerks and Supreme Court History*, 84 Cornell L. Rev. 855, 849 n.27 (1999) (book review).
13. See Comment, *The Law Clerk’s Duty of Confidentiality*, 129 U. Pa. L. Rev. 1230 (1981).
14. For an illuminating look at the extent to which former Supreme Court law clerks have disclosed confidences, see Garrow, *supra* note 12 (reviewing Edward Lazarus, *Closed Chambers: The First Eyewitness Account of the*

- Epic Struggles Inside the Supreme Court (1998), and Dennis J. Hutchinson, *The Man Who Once Was Whizzer White: A Portrait of Justice Byron R. White* (1998) (footnotes in title omitted)).
15. Garrow, *supra* note 12, at 893.
 16. See William H. Rehnquist, *Who Writes Decisions of the Supreme Court?*, U.S. News & World Rep., Dec. 13, 1957, at 74.
 17. *Id.*
 18. See William H. Rehnquist, *Robert H. Jackson: A Perspective Twenty-Five Years Later*, 44 Albany L. Rev. 533 (1980).
 19. *The New York Court of Appeals: A Practical Perspective*, 34 St. John's L. Rev. 197 (1980).
 20. Richard A. Posner, *Cardozo: A Study in Reputation* 148 (1990).
 21. Jeffrey O. Cooper & Douglas A. Berman, *Passive Virtues and Casual Vices in the Federal Courts of Appeals*, 66 Brooklyn L. Rev. 685, 697 (2001).
 22. Abby F. Rudzin & Lisa Greenfield, *Ten Brief-Writing Don'ts — The Judicial Clerk's Perspective*, 85 Ill. B.J. 285, 285 (1997).
 23. Patricia M. Wald, *The Rhetoric of Results and the Results of Rhetoric: Judicial Writings*, 62 U. Chi. L. Rev. 1371, 1384 (1995).
 24. For advice on writing a bench memorandum, see Alvin B. Rubin & Laura B. Bartell, *Law Clerk Handbook: A Handbook for Law Clerks to Federal Judges* 143–44 (Fed. Jud. Ctr. rev. ed. 1989); Richard B. Klein, *Opinion Writing Assistance Involving Law Clerks: What I Tell Them*, 34 Judges' J. 33 (1995).
 25. Daniel J. Meador, *Appellate Courts: Staff and Process in the Crisis of Volume 49* (1974).
 26. Wald, *supra* note 23, at 1384.
 27. See David McGowan, *Judicial Writing and the Ethics of the Judicial Office*, 14 Geo J. Legal Eth. 509, 555 (2001) ("Judges should write their own published opinions. They should not have law clerks or anyone else do the writing for them.").
 28. See, e.g., Alex Kozinski, *Making the Case for Law Clerks*, 3 The Long Term View: A Journal of Informed Opinion 55 (1995).
 29. Douglas K. Norman, *Legal Staff and the Dynamics of Appellate Decision Making*, 84 Judicature 175, 175 (2001). To avoid the dangers of allowing pool, or central staff, attorneys to produce "no judge" opinions, see an article by (later recalled) California Chief Justice Rose E. Bird, *The Hidden Judiciary*, 17 Judges' J. 4 (1978). To make effective use of law clerks in opinion writing while preventing bureaucratic, or committee, writing, see a piece by Second Circuit Judge J. Daniel Mahoney, *supra* note 4, and another by an Arkansas Supreme Court justice, George Rose Smith, *A Primer of Opinion Writing for Law Clerks*, 26 Vand. L. Rev. 1203 (1973).
 30. Federal Judicial Center, *Judicial Writing Manual* 11 (1991).
 31. William Domnarski, *In the Opinion of the Court* x (1996).
 32. Bernard E. Witkin, *Manual on Appellate Court Opinions* § 10, at 16 (1977).
 33. Jack Leavitt, *The Yearly Two Foot Shelf: Suggestions for Changing Our Reviewing Court Procedures*, 4 Pacific L.J. 1, 17 (1973).
 34. Ruggero J. Aldisert, *Duties of Law Clerks*, 26 Vand. L. Rev. 1251, 1256–57 (1973).
 35. See *Conroy v. Aniskoff*, 507 U.S. 511, 527–28 (1993) (Scalia, J., concurring) (noting that legislative history "examined and quoted" was "unearthed by a hapless law clerk to whom I assigned the task"); *Hazelwood Sch. Dist. v. United States*, 433 U.S. 299, 318 n.5 (1977) (Stevens, J., dissenting) (noting his law clerk's statistical analysis); *Noto v. United States*, 76 S. Ct. 255, 258 n.4 (1955) (Harlan, J.) (noting that data came from the record "or from the research of my Law Clerk").
 36. See, e.g., *Parker v. Connors Steel Co.*, 855 F.2d 1510 (11th Cir. 1988) (Gibson, J.) (mandating recusal of federal district judge who credited his law clerk in a footnote), *cert. denied*, 490 U.S. 1066 (1989).
 37. See, e.g., *Veras v. Strack*, 58 F. Supp. 2d 201, 201 n.1 (1999) (Baer, J.) (acknowledging student intern); *Masayesa for & o/b/o Hopi Indian Tribe v. Zah*, 816 F. Supp. 1387, 1393 n.* (D. Ariz. 1992) (Carroll, J.) (acknowledging law clerk).
 38. See generally Gerald J. Clark, *Supervising Judicial Interns: A Primer*, 36 Suffolk U. L. Rev. 681 (2003); Rebecca A. Cochran, *Judicial Externships: The Clinic Inside the Courthouse* (2d ed. 1999).
 39. See *In re Application of the Dist. Att'y of Queens County*, 132 Misc. 2d 506, 512 n.5, 505 N.Y.S.2d 293, 297 n.5 (Sup. Ct. Queens County 1986) (Rotker, J.); *People v. Sadacca*, 128 Misc. 2d 494, 501 n.3, 489 N.Y.S.2d 824, 830 n.3 (Sup. Ct. N.Y. County 1985) (Rothwax, J.). One reported opinion went even further: "The hard work, thorough research and scholarship of Edward Larsen, New York Law School Intern participating in the Richmond County Bar Association Summer Intern Program, is gratefully acknowledged and in large measure credited in the formation of this opinion. Mr. Larsen has the sincere thanks of this Court." *Wolkoff v. Church of St. Rita*, 132 Misc. 2d 464, 473, 505 N.Y.S.2d 327, 334 (Sup. Ct. Richmond County 1986) (Kuffner, J.).
 40. 825 F.2d 835 (5th Cir. 1987) (Garza, J.).
 41. *Criminal Law: The Escape*, 45 Tex. B.J. 541, 542 (Apr. 1982).
 42. 19 Kan. 260 (1878).
 43. See, e.g., *In re Judicial Disciplinary Proceedings Against Tesmer*, 219 Wis. 2d 708, 580 N.W.2d 307 (1998) (per curiam) (reprimanding judge for having law professor write 32 opinions).
 44. 43 N.Y.2d (J), (Y), 426 N.Y.S.2d 639, 648–49 (per curiam) (Opn. of Censure — Ct. on Jud. 1978).
 45. See *Sheppard v. Beerman*, 822 F. Supp. 931 (E.D.N.Y. 1993), *aff'd in part & vacated in part* by 18 F.3d 147 (2d Cir.) (Altimari, J.) (*Sheppard I*), *cert. denied*, 513 U.S. 816 (1994), *on remand to & dismissed* by 911 F. Supp. 606 (E.D.N.Y. 1995), *vacated & remanded*, 94 F.3d 823 (2d Cir. 1996) (McLaughlin, J.) (*Sheppard II*).
 46. 94 F.3d at 829.
 47. See *Sheppard v. Beerman*, 190 F. Supp. 2d 361, 362 (E.D.N.Y. 2002), *aff'd*, 317 F.3d 351 (2d Cir. 2003).
 48. *Sheppard v. Beerman*, 317 F.3d 351, 357 (2d Cir. 2003).
 49. *Sheppard v. Beerman*, 124 S. Ct. 135 (2003).
 50. *Hall*, 695 F.2d at 179.
 51. See generally John Paul Jones, *Some Ethical Considerations for Judicial Clerks*, 4 Geo. J. Legal Ethics 771 (1991).



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Early Review by Medical Experts Offers Opportunity to Develop Theory of the Case More Efficiently

BY STEVEN WILKINS

Additional requirements and distinctions set medical malpractice suits apart from other personal injury claims,¹ but one similarity between med-mal cases and other tort actions is frequently overlooked: a good case is built on early and thorough investigative efforts to discern the departures from accepted conduct.

Too often, general practitioners who also do medical malpractice cases postpone investigating the exact details of the medically negligent act until the pretrial period, when a testifying expert signs on.

A medical malpractice case typically begins when a potential client contacts an attorney and relates an experience with a medical caregiver² or hospital that turned out poorly. Although there is a natural tendency to evaluate the potential of the case by focusing on the amount of damages, this is a classic example of backwards thinking.

The decision to proceed with litigation is more efficiently made when it is based on facts in the medical record that can unequivocally substantiate the existence of negligent conduct. An experienced malpractice attorney will always put the chart first.

Classically, in order to comply with CPLR 3012(a),³ a licensed caregiver should review the facts of the case and agree that there is a reasonable basis to commence an action, even before a complaint is filed. In practice, however, many firms rely at this point on an informal expert review. Typically, an office staff person or a paralegal prepares a summary of events, which is then transmitted or conveyed to the reviewer without a copy of the primary records. With this approach, the initial reviewer's opinion is unfortunately and clearly based only upon hearsay.

Importance of the Initial Review

A professional who is knowledgeable in the relevant field, and not a nurse or paralegal, should perform the initial review. Cases proceed more smoothly when the initial review is thorough, compelling and performed by such a caregiver. Ideally, the reviewer will have wide

experience and no allegiances. Money spent on this kind of a thorough expert review at the outset of a case avoids the embarrassment and anxiety of finding out too late that the theory of the case is suspect or that the case is not as strong as was originally thought. The non-professional reviewer may not see the full scope of the issues to be considered.

Why not use the eventual testifying expert to do the review? Being able to identify what kind of expert will eventually be needed is unrealistic. Testifying often requires specialists whose rates for such an initial review are prohibitive, even in this high-stakes game. It is difficult to assess availability of the testifying expert when the time from initial review until trial can be years. What's more, many specialist reviewers focus only on their own backyard. Hiring a cardiologist to review a case might lead to disregarding the potentially negligent actions of the gastroenterologist involved. Other specialist reviewers may tend to justify the actions of their specialty group peers and place the blame on other specialists in other fields. Only later, when experts in these other fields are hired to review, at an additional expense, is misdirection suspected.

If the eventual testifying expert is ill-equipped to do the initial valuation of a chart and identify the best theory, who should be used for this initial review? Ideally,

CONTINUED ON PAGE 44

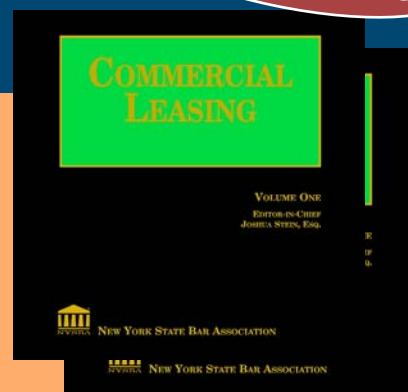


STEVEN WILKINS (medmalattorney service@nysbar.com) is a physician and lawyer who has been reviewing medical records for several attorney groups in the Greater New York area for the last eight years. He was a general and critical care surgeon for 10 years before graduating from Hofstra University School of Law. He graduated from Massachusetts Institute of Technology and received his medical degree from State University of New York at Downstate Medical College, where he was president of his class.

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Checklist for Early Involvement By an Evaluating Physician

1. Can the patient intake be performed by a physician affiliated with your office?
2. Is the expert competent in the field of medicine to be reviewed?
3. Has a complete set of the medical records been acquired?
4. Once the records are obtained in the office, do not prepare any documents to assist the expert in determining the chronology of events. These documents could alter the theory of the case identified by the expert and might not be accurate. Instead, just send copies of the records for evaluation.
5. Make sure any additional records identified as necessary by the expert are procured.
6. Will the expert produce a written report for your use?
7. Will the expert sit down with you in the office and assure that you understand the relevant medicine as well as the departures from the standard of care?
8. Can you postpone the bill of particulars until after the expert review is available? If not, are any modifications necessary?
9. Has the reviewer identified texts or pertinent journal articles that can be used to help refresh the eventual testifying expert on the pertinent standards of care?
10. Will the expert assist you in identifying and procuring experts willing to testify?

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 42

the best reviewers have wide clinical experience in a general field, like internal medicine, general surgery, or critical care. The ability to scrutinize a medical chart for potential errors is a talent borne of wide experience, and is typically contrary to the mindset of practicing specialist physicians. Further, the ability to identify the legal theory most likely to persuade a jury is the real Holy Grail, and specialist physicians do not typically involve themselves in this type of a search.

Although any intelligent, objective specialist expert can scrutinize a record to corroborate or dismiss a theory already proposed, actively searching for a potential mistake is often viewed by these medical experts as a defiance of their medical fraternity, and is therefore

somehow distasteful. As a result, their searching is not performed as objectively.

Many firms use nurses to perform their initial reviews. This is an inefficient means of identifying every strong case. Nurses can competently decipher handwriting and find data sheets in the record confirming actions that were taken, but they do not always understand the underlying thought processes of the treating physician. Nuances, couched by the writer in phrases such as “pain out of proportion to the findings,” may fail to alert a nurse to the significance of the fact that the writer has an underlying belief that bowel ischemia is present. The nurse reviewer may fail to understand these phrases, but even if understood, may fail to recognize their significance in the malpractice action. In the case alluded to, the only evidence that a gastroenterologist had implored a surgeon to wrongfully explore the abdomen, when an endoscopy should have first been performed, was the quoted material above. The importance of the phrase had been missed and the gastroenterologist almost escaped liability. Too often, reports by nurse reviewers are peppered with parentheses, their contents beseeching the attorney to “find out from an expert what this means.”

If the attorney has access to a physician, podiatrist, or dentist willing to help injured, neglected patients and ignore the jeers of his or her peers, then the initial assessment acts as a template for the rest of the case. With the help of these enlightened medical caregivers, discovery is no longer a random search for implicating records. It becomes a focused search for the medical office records of important ancillary providers who can corroborate the proposed theory. Depositions are no longer a blind search for random contrary or conflicting statements, instead they become an opportunity to lock a defending caregiver into an explanation before he or she has had the opportunity to develop an alternate theory justifying the actions taken. The objective should be to find an enlightened physician who recognizes that helping a plaintiff’s attorney is akin to helping a patient. To palliate the effects of iatrogenic injuries, fighting disease sometimes means fighting physicians. Only physicians willing to buck the establishment are inclined to take this step.

Assessing the Case

Provided you are fortunate enough to find such an ideal case reviewer, what are the steps you should expect the reviewer to take in helping an attorney assess the case? If possible, the reviewer should be involved even as early as the initial patient intake. This helps show the potential client that the attorney is serious about reviewing the events leading to the injury, and helps dispel a plaintiff’s notion that a bad result neces-

sarily equates with malpractice. As a show of power, it also contributes to a client's respect for the firm handling the case. An attorney who introduces the reviewing doctor to the potential client gains immediate credibility.

Once the initial meeting of the attorney, client and medical reviewer takes place, a decision to obtain the records follows whenever a potentially negligent action is suspected. When a potential client's story fails to pass the initial evaluation of either the attorney or reviewer, it is unlikely that a case exists. Bad and frivolous cases are nipped in the bud at minimal expense.

Careful evaluation of medical records by a professional reviewer requires ignoring any chronologies prepared by office staff. Sometimes, innocuous entries in the record may provide the most compelling cases. In one recent example, a woman suffered a complication of her pelvic surgery. Although the complication (ARDS) was a known risk and could not have been predicted while she was in the intensive care unit, seven days after hospital admission an alcohol level was ordered after a phone call by a physician. The suspicious circumstances surrounding this order led to the theory that a hospital cover-up of an inadvertent administration of intravenous alcohol had occurred. There was no way the patient could have drunk alcohol while on a ventilator, paralyzed in the ICU. The effects of any alcohol that could have been swallowed before hospital admission were long gone, especially because the patient had been sober for four years. Predictably, the ordering of the alcohol level was never mentioned in the initial paralegal's review. The alleged injury of postoperative cognitive dysfunction could just as easily have been attributed to the alcohol as to the ARDS.⁴

After preparing a chronology, each action of every potential defendant must be analyzed. When a course of conduct is puzzling, a professional reviewer may approach experts in the field or research the relevant issue in the medical library of a nearby university or hospital. These resources are not as readily available to those outside the medical field. This research effort also allows the reviewer to develop relationships with experts who later may become testifying experts on the case.

When the assessment is completed, a written analysis should be prepared. Although many firms prefer to tape record the expert's findings and avoid writing anything on grounds that it is open to discovery by the defen-

dants, any material so prepared is probably protected by the attorney privilege.⁵ The report should specifically explain the negligent action and the causative link to the various injuries suffered. After the attorney has had

an opportunity to read the report, the reviewer should present it in person, providing the opportunity for the attorney and any associates to fully understand what happened medically and to ask questions. This meeting of the minds assures that pleadings are then artfully drawn. It also makes it more likely that the explanations given by the medical caregiver

will be easily understood by laypersons. Complicated medicine makes for difficult jury cases.

In sum, by involving a professional reviewer in the early decision making, by using a reviewer with a wide experience in the pertinent field (but not one whose experience is only in that field), and by planning out the exact details of the negligent behavior to be charged, a plaintiff's medical malpractice attorney maximizes the chance of victory and avoids the anxiety-provoking last-minute change in strategy.

When a course of conduct is puzzling, a professional reviewer may approach experts in the field or research the relevant issue in the medical library of a nearby university or hospital.

1. Some of these distinctions include a different statute of limitations, as codified in CPLR 214(a), tactical decisions regarding the composition of the bill of particulars, expert disclosure rules, codified in CPLR 3101(d), and statutory limits on contingency fees. In fact, the index to the CPLR has five columns of distinctions under the heading, "Medical and Dental Malpractice."
2. For purposes of readability, "caregiver" or "reviewer" is used throughout this article to identify doctors, dentists and podiatrists.
3. CPLR 3012(a)(1) states that a certificate accompanying the complaint must be executed by the attorney for the plaintiff and must state that at least one medical caregiver in the respective field of medicine, dentistry, or podiatrics has been consulted, is reasonably knowledgeable regarding the relevant issues and that, based on that review, the attorney believes the commencement of the action is reasonable.
4. This case has not yet settled and is still being litigated at the time of publication.
5. Because initial reviewers are not testifying experts, their reports are not governed by CPLR 3101(d). CPLR 3101(a) is inapplicable because there is a limitation on the broad discovery presumption in cases where the material is attorney work product. *Hoening v. Westphal*, 52 N.Y.2d 605, 439 N.Y.S.2d 831 (1981). CPLR 3121 allows independent medical examination material to be shared, but as long as the report is based on the chart and not on a medical examination of the patient, this section is inapplicable.

Partial Fall 2004 Seminar Schedule

(Subject to Change)

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PROGRAM	DATE	LOCATION
Henry Miller — The Trial	September 10 October 29 November 5	New York City Uniondale, LI Westchester
Bridging-the-Gap: Intellectual Property	September 21 September 28 October 19 October 26 October 27 November 3	Uniondale, LI Rochester New York City Buffalo Albany Syracuse
† Ninth Annual NYS and City Tax Institute	September 22–23	New York City
Basic Surrogate's Court Practice	September 24	New York City
† Hot Topics in Real Property Law and Practice (video replay)	September 29	Jamestown
Hot Topics in Landlord/Tenant Practice	October 1	New York City
Suing and Defending Municipalities	October 1 October 1 October 28 November 3 November 10 November 19 December 3	Rochester New York City Albany Buffalo Westchester Uniondale, LI
† Ethics and Professionalism (video replay)	October 1	Canton
Practical Skills: Basic Matrimonial Practice	October 5	Albany, Buffalo, Melville, LI, New York City, Rochester, Syracuse, Westchester
Gathering and Presenting Evidence in the 21st Century	October 6 October 29 November 3	Uniondale, LI New York City Rochester
Residential Mortgages	October 7 October 12 October 20 October 29 November 4	Albany New York City Uniondale, LI Buffalo Westchester
Microsoft Word for the Law Office with Leigh Webber	October 14 October 15 October 28 October 29	New York City Westchester Buffalo Syracuse
Health Care Provider Transactions: Practical Issues and Skills	October 15 October 28 November 5	New York City Albany Rochester
Article 9 of the UCC	October 20	New York City
Advice From More Experts: More Successful Strategies for Winning Commercial Cases in Federal Courts	October 22	New York City
Products Liability: Great Cases Revisited	October 22 November 5	Albany, Uniondale, LI Buffalo, New York City
Update 2004 (live sessions)	October 22 November 5	Syracuse New York City

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Practical Skills: Probate and the Administration of Estates	October 27	Buffalo, Melville, LI, New York City, Rochester, Syracuse
Matrimonial Update 2004	October 29 October 29 November 5 November 19 December 3 December 10	Albany, Westchester Syracuse Buffalo Melville, LI Albany New York City
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Local Criminal Court Practice	November 4 November 5 December 2 December 7	Uniondale, LI New York City Buffalo Albany
Practical Skills: Forming and Advising Businesses	November 15	Albany, Buffalo, Melville, LI, New York City, Rochester, Syracuse, Westchester
Modern Discovery	November 17 November 19 December 3	Melville, LI Albany, Rochester New York City
† Advanced Elder Law	November 18 December 2 December 3	New York City, Syracuse, Uniondale, LI Albany Westchester
Ethics and Professionalism	November 4 November 18 November 23 November 29 December 2 December 8	Buffalo Rochester Westchester Albany, New York City Uniondale, LI Syracuse
The Sixth Annual Institute on Public Utility Law	November 19	Albany
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† Advanced Real Estate Practice	December 3	New York City

ATTORNEY PROFESSIONALISM FORUM

To the Forum:

I recently had an unsettling experience in a litigated matter, in which I felt that my client was interfering with the exercise of my professional judgment.

I represent a corporate client in a highly technical and specialized area of the law. We were served with a discovery request that called for the production of numerous confidential documents. Procedural principles unique to this practice area require the court to conduct a tedious, lengthy *in camera* inspection of each individual document prior to its production. Technically, such a hearing is scheduled upon a motion to compel discovery or on a motion for a protective order. As a practical matter, however, there is no legal or factual basis for opposing the former or making the latter, because no relief will be granted to either side without the hearing. In fact, research and experience has taught me that such hearings are invariably ordered in every case, and that no judge has ever failed to do so.

Reaching the conclusion that a hearing to review the confidential documents was inevitable, I consented to one without a motion being made, and because I viewed such motion practice as a mere technical formality I did not consult my client in advance. To be clear, I did not stipulate to the production or admissibility of any documents at the hearing, nor did I waive any applicable privilege. However, my client vociferously objected, and threatened to take its future business elsewhere.

While I aspire to high standards of professionalism, including the waiver of mere formalities (see EC 7-38), I am concerned that my client is trying to pull the steering wheel out of my hands. Further, I am concerned that my relationship with this client may have been irreparably damaged. Was I right in waiving unnecessary motion practice?

Sincerely,
Baffled

Dear Baffled:

You are both right and wrong.

At first blush, your unilateral decision to waive a procedural formality without consulting your client probably did not affect the merits of the case, nor did it substantively prejudice your client's rights within the meaning of the Code of Professional Responsibility. To that extent, you did nothing wrong. However, there is more to the issue than that. Indeed, your question highlights the tension between the client's right to make substantive decisions, and the exercise of a lawyer's professional judgment regarding strategy and procedure.

Under the Code of Professional Responsibility, a lawyer is obligated "to seek the lawful objectives of the client through reasonably available means permitted by law and the disciplinary rules . . ." DR 7-101(A)(1). The duty of zealous advocacy has been called "the fundamental principle of the law of lawyering."¹ Moreover, the Ethical Considerations provide that "the authority to make decisions is exclusively that of the client and, if made within the framework of the law, such decisions are binding on the lawyer" (EC 7-7).

On the other hand, as pointed out by Professor Roy Simon of Hofstra University School of Law, the Code permits a lawyer "to do six unzealous things" without violating the duty of zealous representation.² For example, a lawyer is permitted to "exercise professional judgment to waive or fail to assert a right or position of the client," may refuse to participate in conduct the lawyer views as illegal, and may accede to reasonable requests by opposing counsel that would not prejudice the rights of the client (see DR 7-101(B)). The Ethical Considerations urge a lawyer to waive "procedural formalities, and similar matters which do not prejudice the rights of the

The Attorney Professionalism Committee invites our readers to send in comments or alternate views to the responses printed below, as well as additional hypothetical fact patterns or scenarios to be considered for future columns. Send your comments or questions to: NYSBA, One Elk Street, Albany, NY 12207, Attn: Attorney Professionalism Forum, or by e-mail to journal@nysba.org.

This column is made possible through the efforts of the NYSBA's Committee on Attorney Professionalism. Fact patterns, names, characters and locations presented in this column are fictitious, and any resemblance to actual events or to actual persons, living or dead, is entirely coincidental. These columns are intended to stimulate thought and discussion on the subject of attorney professionalism. The views expressed are those of the authors, and not those of the Attorney Professionalism Committee or the NYSBA. They are not official opinions on ethical or professional matters, nor should they be cited as such.

client" (EC 7-38). Moreover, the Code encourages lawyers to "follow local customs of courtesy or practice," and to be courteous and respectful to adversaries and others (see EC 7-36, 7-37, 7-38).

In short, a lawyer is entitled to make procedural decisions "not affecting the merits of the cause or substantially prejudicing the rights of a client" (EC 7-7), but the client is entitled to make substantive decisions – preferably, with the benefit of the lawyer's advice, experience and counsel.

Your question suggests that you did not consent to the production of confi-

dential documents. Rather, you did no more than to waive the formality of a pointless motion, which you had no legitimate ground to oppose (*see* DR 7-102(A)(1) [frivolous or dilatory actions taken merely to harass or injure another proscribed]), in favor of a hearing at which you presumably would vigorously advocate your client's interests. Thus, at least within the letter of the foregoing sections of the Code, you were right.

However, in the broader realm of attorney professionalism, which incorporates not only competence, good judgment and integrity, but also dedicated service to clients, you get a somewhat lower grade. The fact that you may have been within the strictures of the Code in waiving a procedural formality seems to have been of little comfort to the client, who disagreed with you about whether to waive the procedural formality of a hearing. Because the client insisted on the motion practice, and in so doing was advancing an objective that was neither illegal nor prohibited by principles of substantive law, you probably should have discussed the issue with the client before making the decision.

The Code's Ethical Considerations urge a lawyer to "exert best efforts to ensure that decisions of the client are made only after the client has been informed of relevant considerations" (EC 7-8), and also provide that a lawyer "may urge any permissible construction of the law favorable to the client, without regard to the lawyer's professional opinion as to the likelihood that the construction will ultimately prevail" (EC 7-4). In view of these concepts, it is preferable to communicate with the client about procedural matters, even concerning decisions that appear to fall within the lawyer's professional judgment.

Once your client is convinced that he or she has been included in discussions of even procedural questions, that client may ultimately decide that your judgment can be trusted and that regular contact on such subjects is no

longer necessary. That would leave the steering wheel in your hands when procedural issues arise, which is where you clearly want it to be.

The Forum, by
Barry R. Temkin
Fiedelman Garfinkel & Lesman
New York, NY

1. Monroe Freedman, *The Errant Fax*, Legal Times 26 (Jan. 23, 1995) (quoting Geoffrey C. Hazard, *The Law of Lawyering*).
2. Roy Simon, *Simon's New York Code of Professional Responsibility Anno.* (2003) at 700.

LETTERS TO THE FORUM:

We received the following reader response to the June question and answer, "Wondering About a Wise Guy":

To the Forum:

I read with interest the letter printed in the June 2004 *Journal* concerning the *Sopranos* episode wherein a matrimonial attorney told Carmella Soprano that he could not represent her because he had previously met with Tony about a possible divorce.

Let's go one step further. Let's assume that Tony "poisoned" a number of specialists in the field and Carmella was therefore deprived of her choice of competent counsel, and let's further assume that one or more of the "poisoned" counsel were not part of a scheme or plot with Tony. How can they free themselves from the constraints of disqualification and offer counsel to those seeking legal services within EC 2-1, 2-26, 2-31 and 2-33?

I can think of (1) seek an opinion from the appropriate Bar Association Committee, (2) a Court order or (3) apply an equitable remedy – *i.e.*, "take a chance" and let the opponent move to disqualify.

Any guidance you can offer will be helpful to those in this situation.

Very truly yours,
Gerald Goldstein
Davidoff Malito & Hatcher LLP
New York, NY

QUESTION FOR THE NEXT ATTORNEY PROFESSIONALISM FORUM:

To the Forum:

I am General Counsel to a major University. A former graduate student (I shall call her Ms. Fortune), who was academically dismissed from the science program in which she was enrolled, has initiated a *pro se* lawsuit. In a rambling and verbose complaint, she claims a breach of contract, along with a number of other convoluted and inartfully stated causes of action. For example, Ms. Fortune claims bad academic advising, unfair grading, prejudices of various sorts, an incompetent science department generally and an unwillingness to make accommodation for a reading disability. In addition to naming the University as a defendant, she has named 14 faculty members and two administrators as individual defendants, citing various wrongs they allegedly committed against her during her academic career.

Needless to say, these persons are extremely upset at being targeted in the action, and several have demanded that the University allow them to hire private attorneys, whose fees are to be paid by the University. Not only might this result in an enormous expense for the University, but I personally would have to deal with up to 16 separate attorneys, as well as the *pro se* plaintiff herself.

We (that is, the relevant officers of the University and I) believe the complaint to be unfounded. In simple terms, Ms. Fortune did not fulfill graduate requirements and her time for doing so expired. Further, the faculty involved believed that she would not be successful, even if her time to complete the program had been extended. In short, it appears that the University has a strong defense to this suit. That, however, does not solve my immediate problem about the requests for outside counsel.

I have asked the individual defendants to postpone any decision about

CONTINUED ON PAGE 52

Specialty Retirement Plans

BY GEORGE KOZOL

Owners of family businesses and self-employed professionals can benefit greatly from specialty retirement plans. The term “specialty retirement plan” encompasses fully insured pension plans, age-weighted profit-sharing plans with contributions based on employee class, and 401(k) plans with profit-sharing features.

These plan designs, which became possible with the passage of federal tax legislation in 1996¹ and 1997,² are beginning to take hold in the financial services community. As accountants, tax attorneys and other financial advisors were coming to understand the retirement plan design potential offered by the '96 and '97 tax legislation, the federal government presented us with the Economic Growth and Tax Relief Reconciliation Act of 2001³ (the “2001 Tax Act”). Many provisions of the 2001 Tax Act, which by and large first took effect in 2002, have a salutatory impact on specialty retirement plan designs.

Chart A depicts the greater tax savings and benefit levels that the 2001 Tax Act has given to fully insured plans, also known as 412(i) plans.

Chart B depicts the enhancements that the 2001 Tax Act has brought to safe harbor 401(k) plans with age-weighted profit-sharing features.

The 2001 Tax Act brought still another specialty retirement plan option – a 401(k) plan with profit-sharing features. This post-2001 Tax Act retirement plan design means that a self-employed individual or owner of a family business with modest payroll can now afford to offer a 401(k) plan rather than a SIMPLE IRA⁴ or SEP⁵ plan.

Chart C compares a post-2001 Tax Act 401(k) plan with a SIMPLE IRA

and SEP. Clearly, an individual who would like to achieve a higher level of retirement savings over what is possible with a SIMPLE IRA or SEP can do so with a modern 401(k) plan.

The charts suggest that specialty retirement plans will soon supplant conventional IRAs, SIMPLE IRAs, SEPs and salary deferral 401(k) plans as the most effective retirement programs for many business owners and self-employed individuals.

The first two reasons are intuitive: specialty plans provide greater tax-deductible contributions for the owner or self employed, which leads to greater post-retirement income potential. The third reason for the increased popularity of specialty retirement plans is that they allow the business owner and self-employed individual to lessen the opportunity costs⁶ associated with sponsoring and contributing to a retirement plan. The reduced opportunity cost potential relates to the fact that federal pension law permits the purchase of life insurance on plan participants using retirement plan funds.⁷ In doing so, the business owner can use the funds that would have otherwise been devoted to insurance for myriad other business needs. A lawyer might invest in his caseload inventory. A manufacturing company could upgrade its equipment. A retail establishment might take on additional product lines, and so forth.

Life insurance is not, however, permitted in conventional IRAs, SIMPLE IRAs or SEPs.⁸ Moreover, as a practical matter, life insurance is not generally offered in deferral only or deferral with employer match 401(k) plans, because the contribution levels year to year are not predictable and the amounts involved could generally not achieve a meaningful pre-retirement

survivor benefit for most participants. Thus, the business owner or self-employed professional who opts for one of these plans would have to arrange for his or her life insurance using funds that could have been used for other business purposes.

The renaissance of the defined benefit plan and the emergence of age-weighted class segmented profit-sharing plans have required advisors to become reacquainted with life insurance rules pertaining to qualified plans.⁹ The regulations provide that a pension plan exists primarily to provide retirement benefits but it “may also provide for the payment of incidental death benefits through insurance or otherwise.”¹⁰ The regulatory language regarding the incidental benefit rule in the context of a profit-sharing plan is more expansive. Specifically, the regulations provide that a profit-sharing plan is “primarily a plan of deferred compensation, but the amounts allocated on the account of the participant may be used to provide for him or his family incidental life or accident or health insurance.”¹¹ The Internal Revenue Service has interpreted this language as allowing a profit-sharing plan participant to acquire second-to-die coverage on the participant and his or her spouse.¹² Thus, profit-sharing plan participants are permitted to use their profit-sharing plan funds to achieve significant estate liquidity without making current gifts.

Over the years, the Internal Revenue Service has provided objective guidance on the meaning of the word “incidental” in this context. In the case of a defined-benefit pension plan, life insurance benefits will be considered incidental if the death benefit provided does not exceed the

amount of the death benefit that would be paid if all benefits under the plan were funded by retirement income – endowment policies that have a death benefit of \$1,000 for each \$10 per month of life annuity promised under the plan at retirement age.¹³ This test has come to be referred to as the “100 to 1 test.” In the case of a profit-sharing plan, the IRS has ruled that incidental death benefit limitation allows the plan to provide whatever life insurance benefit can be achieved using less than one half the amount allocated annually to the participant’s account.¹⁴

The nature of a profit-sharing plan is such that a much greater insurance benefit can be achieved for the owner of a closely held business or a self-employed professional by relying on the “aged money” provisions of the federal tax and labor law. These rules, which are independent of the incidental benefit rule, permit the use of profit-sharing funds to acquire unlimited amounts of insurance on the life of the participant, or for that matter on the lives of anyone in whom the participant has an insurable interest, using employer contributions that have been in the plan for at least two years.¹⁵ In short, the business owner or self-employed professional is able to achieve all of his or her estate liquidity via a profit-sharing plan or 401(k) plan with custom profit-sharing feature.

Although the ’96 and ’97 tax legislation made it possible for small business owners and self-employed professionals to add insurance benefits to their retirement plans, some accountants and attorneys were reticent about the idea. The advisors were troubled that life insurance benefits provided under a retirement plan are included in the estate of the insured participant for estate tax purposes. The estate tax relief¹⁶ provided by the 2001 Tax Act has blunted this criticism.

The increasing credit shelter amount, along with the putative perception that the 2009 credit shelter amount of \$3.5 million will be extend-

	Pre 2001 Tax Act		Post 2001 Tax Act	
	<u>W2 Wage</u>	<u>412(i)</u>	<u>W2 Wage</u>	<u>412(i)</u>
Doctor (Age 55)	\$170,000.00	173,324	\$205,000.00	204,265
Nurse (Age 35)	\$40,000.00	11,947	\$40,000.00	11,948
Total		185,271		216,213
% to Doctor		94		95

CHART B

Pre 2001 Tax Act

	<u>W2 Wage</u>	<u>Employer Contribution</u>	<u>Elective Deferral</u>	<u>Safe Harbor</u>	<u>Catch-Up Deferral</u>	<u>Total</u>
Owner (Age 55)	\$170,000.00	13,125	10,500	5,100	-	28,725
Employer (Age 35)	\$40,000.00	-	-	1,200	-	1,200
% to Owner						96

Post 2001 Tax Act

	<u>W2 Wage</u>	<u>Employer Contribution</u>	<u>Elective Deferral</u>	<u>Safe Harbor</u>	<u>Catch-Up Deferral</u>	<u>Total</u>
Owner (Age 55)	\$205,000.00	21,850	13,000	6,150	3,000	44,000
Employer (Age 35)	\$40,000.00	800	-	1,200	-	2,000
% to Owner						95.7

CHART C

(W2 wage of \$100,000)

	Pre-2001 Tax Act			Post 2001 Tax Act		
	<u>SEP</u>	<u>SIMPLE</u>	<u>Micro(k)</u>	<u>SEP</u>	<u>SIMPLE</u>	<u>Micro(k)</u>
Salary Deferral	-	6,000	10,500	-	9,000	13,000
Catch-Up Deferral	-	-	-	-	1,500	3,000
Max. Employer Contr.	15,000	3,000	2,925	25,000	3,000	25,000
Total Contribution	15,000	9,000	13,425	25,000	13,500	41,000

ed to future years or that the federal estate tax may be repealed, promises to increase the popularity of retirement plan designs with insured pre-retirement survivor benefits. Moreover, the fact that life insurance within a qualified plan is included in the estate of a

participant for tax purposes is probably of no moment for many business owners. In this regard, the business owner whose children are active in the business would do well to leave the business to the children and provide for his or her surviving spouse using

CHART D

Estate Tax Relief

Year	Credit Shelter Amount
2000-2001	675,000
2002-2003	\$1,000,000
2004-2005	\$1,500,000
2006-2008	\$2,000,000
2009	\$3,500,000
2010	NA
2011	\$1,000,000

the life insurance held in the qualified plan. The unlimited marital deduction would insulate the insurance proceeds from estate tax.

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1. Small Business Job Protection Act of 1996, P.L. 104-188, 110 stat. 1755.
2. Taxpayer Relief Act of 1997, P.L. 105-34, 111 stat. 788.
3. P.L. 107-16, 115 stat. 38.
4. SIMPLE is the acronym for Simplified Tax Favored Retirement Plan for Small Employers, a retirement plan type authorized by Section 1421 of the Small Business Job Protection Act of 1996.
5. SEP is the acronym for Simplified Employee Pension, a retirement plan type authorized by Section 152(b), Revenue Act of 1978, P.L. 95-600, 92 stat. 2797.
6. Opportunity costs represent the benefits that a decision maker forgoes when he or she takes an action that forecloses alternative actions. In the business world the notion of opportunity costs allows the business owner to evaluate the cost and benefit of competing proposals.
7. Treas. Reg. § 1.401-1(b)(1)(i).
8. I.R.C. § 408(a)(3); Treas. Reg. § 1.408-2(b)(3).
9. See Finston & Gilles, 351 3rd TM Plan Qualification Pension and Profit Sharing Plans, A-9 and 10; *see also* Stephen J. Krass, The Pension Answer Book (2002 ed., Panel Publishers, N.Y.).
10. Treas. Reg. § 1.401-1(b)(1)(i).
11. Treas. Reg. § 1.401-1(b)(1)(ii).
12. Rev. Rul. 61-164, 1961-2 CB 99.
13. Rev. Rul. 61-121, 1961-2 CB 65; Rev. Rul. 68-453, 1968-2 CB 163; Rev. Rul. 74-307, 1974-2 CB 126.
14. Rev. Rul. 57-213, 1957-1 CB 157; Rev. Rul. 60-84, 1960-1 CB 159.
15. Rev. Rul. 71-295, 1971-2 CB 184.
16. I.R.C. § 2010(c), as amended by P.L. 107-16, 115 stat. 71.

ATTORNEY PROFESSIONALISM FORUM
CONTINUED FROM PAGE 49

hiring their own attorneys, to let me respond to the complaint for everyone, and to conduct the litigation alone, at least for the present. I have explained that should it appear, at any time, that the interests of an individual defendant (or defendants) are different from those of the University, I would so advise that person or persons, who would then be free to hire individual counsel. I also told them that whether the University would cover the cost of outside counsel would be determined on the facts as they emerged during the litigation.

My question: Is this a fair, logical, fiscally responsible and ethical way to handle the requests for individual representation?

Thanking you in advance for your reply, I remain,

Fiscally and Ethically Concerned

Questions, comments, alternate views?
Contact us at journal@nysba.org.

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A fitting and lasting tribute to a deceased lawyer can be made through a memorial contribution to The New York Bar Foundation. This highly appropriate and meaningful gesture on the part of friends and associates will be felt and appreciated by the family of the deceased.

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LANGUAGE TIPS

BY GERTRUDE BLOCK

Question: I need some help with my "assist" and some assist with my "help." My colleagues and I differ somewhat on how to write the sentences in the following paragraphs and I am unclear how much the correct answer is driven by idiomatic usage as opposed to formal rules of grammar.

Answer: Attorney Jeremy A.K. Zeliger, of Cohoes, N.Y., provided two illustrations of his question. The first was the sentence, "Mediators help parties (communicate/to communicate) more effectively." His question, should the word *to* be deleted? The answer is yes. The word *to*, although not ungrammatical, is unnecessary and redundant.

That part of his question was easy. The next was not so easy: Are the verbs *help* and *assist* interchangeable? The illustrative sentence he submitted was, "The goal of the program is to assist employees to resolve conflicts at the earliest stage." He added that he thought *help* would be better in this sentence than *assist*, though he didn't know why. And does one assist another *with* or *to* something?

Both the questioner and I prefer *help* in that sentence, perhaps because using a one-syllable verb instead of a two-syllable verb and avoiding the word *to* ("To help employees resolve conflicts") makes the construction briefer and more direct.

The next question was: When we use *assist* do we *assist with* or *assist to*? Dictionaries were of little help with the answer. The *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (Fourth Edition, 2000) defines *assist* as "to give help or support to, especially as a subordinate or supplement." That definition indicates a slight distinction in the meaning of the two verbs. The preposition *with* seems to connote help

that does not result in finality. "My father assisted me with my homework." His assistance did not finish the job. But the preposition *in* does seem to indicate a conclusion to the action: "He assisted me in getting into my car."

Question: Where do I put the question mark in the following sentence, "Will you be attending the Retreat; let me know so I can arrange to meet with you." The person who sent the question added, "Yes, I know. I could make two sentences or re-organize the ideas, but let's not fight the hypo."

Answer: I'd like to oblige, but English sentence structure forbids. You can't insert a question mark anywhere in the quoted sentence, so you have to make two sentences out of the one you submitted. "Will you be attending the Retreat? Let me know so I can arrange to meet with you."

The same reader had a question about the punctuation of possessive nouns, as in the following sentence: "It is in the U.S.'s interest" or "It is in the U.S.' interest."

The way you pronounce the word determines the answer. If you pronounce the -s when you say the word, add -s when you write the word. Some examples are, "The witness's testimony," "Congress's actions," "my boss's approval."

If you don't pronounce the -s, don't add it when you write the word. Some examples are, "Moses' commandments," "Socrates' death," "My thesis' conclusion."

If any of these constructions seem awkward, switch to the periphrastic possessive. For example, instead of "My thesis' conclusion," say, "The conclusion of my thesis." If you are a native speaker, your ear will guide your punctuation. Your ear will also act as a guide in the punctuation of plural nouns ending in -s: "The Joneses' family reunion"; "the four agencies' agreements."

As for singular compound nouns, add the -s to the last noun: "my mother-in-law's sister"; "the secretary-treasurer's minutes." When the compound is plural, add the -s after forming the plural: "my brothers-in-law's requests";

"the attorneys general's convention." If the resulting construction sounds awkward, use the periphrastic possessive: "the requests of my brothers-in-law"; "the convention of the attorneys general."

For abbreviations, add -s to the singular form: "PBS's documentary"; "P.J.'s opinion"; but to plural abbreviations add just the apostrophe: "The M.D.s' study"; "the J.D.s' meeting."

The possessive forms of the personal pronouns and of the relative pronoun *who* are easy to remember. They need no punctuation: "his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs; and whose. But indefinite pronouns: *somebody's, anybody's, everybody's, someone's, anyone's*, and *no one's* do require apostrophes, as shown.

After this long discussion, you may agree with Oliver Goldsmith, who wrote, in *She Stoops to Conquer*:

Let schoolmasters puzzle their brain,

With grammar, and nonsense, and learning;

Good liquor, I stoutly maintain,

Gives genius a better discerning.

GERTRUDE BLOCK is lecturer emerita at the University of Florida College of Law. She is the author of *Effective Legal Writing* (Foundation Press) and co-author of *Judicial Opinion Writing* (American Bar Association).

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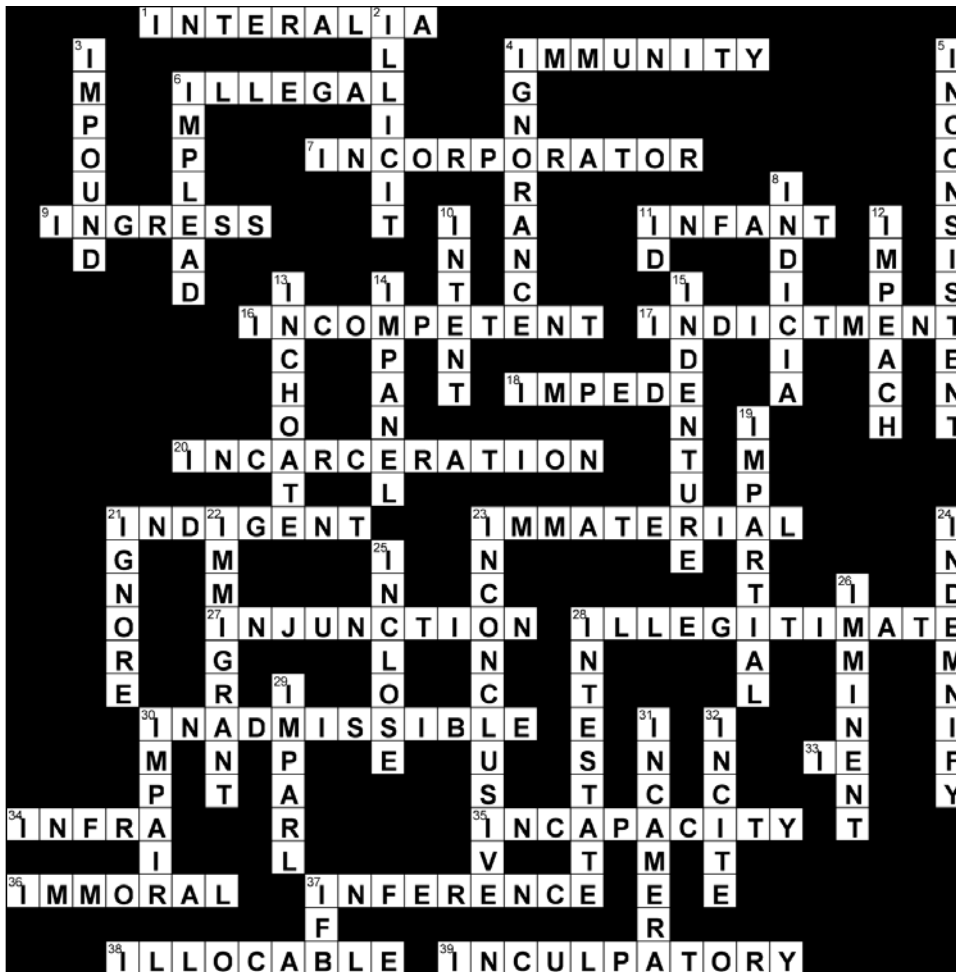
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Answers to Crossword Puzzle on page 8.



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Most often, art forms result in banalities, like the federal opinion that irrelevantly, even flippantly, used lines from the *Saturday Night Live* "Wayne's World" skits and the 1992 hit movie, *Wayne's World*: "In short, Prime Time's most bogus attempt at removal is 'not worthy' and the Defendants must 'party on' in state court."¹⁴ Or the Ninth Circuit's Vanna White opinion, which wished they could all be California girls: "[A]n attractive appearance, a graceful pose, blond hair, an evening gown, and jewelry are attributes shared by many women, especially in Southern California."¹⁵ Or the New Jersey Supreme Court's Bruce Springsteen "Born to Run" opinion: "Fleming claims that despite the difficulty of working in a prison, she remained the kind of person who '[a]t the end of every hard earned day . . . [found] some reason to believe.'"¹⁶

Springsteen isn't the only musician lionized in the judicial reports. In *United States v. Youts*,¹⁷ the Tenth Circuit used four footnotes to venerate John Denver and the Grateful Dead in a criminal prosecution for train wrecking.

Judges should know something about the classics, not merely about popular culture. Here's why, from Learned Hand: "[A] judge [must] have a bowing acquaintance with Acton and Maitland, with Thucydides, Gibbon

and Carlyle, with Homer, Dante, Shakespeare and Milton, with Machiavelli, Montaigne and Rabelais, with Plato, Bacon, Hume and Kant . . . [E]verything turns upon the spirit in which he approaches the questions before him."¹⁸

Mores and culture affect decision making. Judge Hand was right: The more learned the judge, the better the opinion. But judges should be wary of airing their erudition. Knowing about pop culture or the classics is different from including them in a judicial opinion.

GERALD LEBOVITS is a judge of the New York City Civil Court, Housing Part, in Manhattan. An adjunct professor at New York Law School, he has written *Advanced Judicial Opinion Writing*, a handbook for New York's trial and appellate courts, from which this column is adapted. His e-mail address is GLebovits@aol.com.

1. Ruggero J. Aldisert, *Opinion Writing* 196 (1990).
2. *In re Carlos P.*, 78 Misc. 2d 851, 358 N.Y.S.2d 608 (Fam. Ct., Kings County 1974) (Gartenstein, J.).
3. *Mileski v. Locker*, 14 Misc. 2d 252, 257, 178 N.Y.S.2d 911, 917 (Sup. Ct., Queens County 1958) (Pette, J.).
4. 407 U.S. 258 (1972) (Blackmun, J.).
5. *United States v. Dumont*, 936 F.2d 292, 294 (7th Cir.) (Easterbrook, J.), cert. denied, 502 U.S. 950 (1991).
6. *City of New York v. United States Dep't of Com.*, 739 F. Supp. 761, 762 (E.D.N.Y. 1990) (McLaughlin, J.).
7. *Reuther v. Southern Cross Club, Inc.*, 785 F. Supp. 1339, 1340 (S.D. Ind. 1992) (Barker, J.).
8. *Carter v. Ingalls*, 576 F. Supp. 834, 835 (S.D. Ga. 1983) (Bowen, J.).
9. *O'Shea v. City of San Francisco*, 966 F.2d 503, 504 (9th Cir. 1992) (Beezer, J.) (footnote omitted).
10. *People v. Craig*, 151 Misc. 2d 442, 445, 581 N.Y.S.2d 987, 989 (Sup. Ct., Bronx County 1992) (Eggert, J.).
11. *Brush v. Office of Personnel Mgmt.*, 982 F.2d 1554, 1559 (F. Cir. 1992) (Smith, J.).
12. *Aoude v. Mobil Oil Corp.*, 862 F.2d 890, 890-91 (1st Cir. 1988) (Selya, J.).
13. *United States v. Harrington*, 947 F.2d 956, 964 (D.C. Cir. 1991) (Edwards, J., dissenting) (telling the story from Hans Christian Andersen, *The Emperor's New Clothes* (Pictureback ed., Random House 1978)).
14. *Noble v. Bradford Marine*, 789 F. Supp. 395, 397 (S.D. Fla. 1992) (Paine, J.).
15. *White v. Samsung Elect. Am., Inc.*, 971 F.2d 1395, 1405 (9th Cir. 1992) (Alarcon, J., concurring & dissenting).
16. *Fleming v. Correctional Healthcare Solutions, Inc.*, 164 N.J. 90, 99-100, 756 A.2d 1035, 1040 (2000) (per curiam) (alteration in original) (quoting Bruce Springsteen, "Reason to Believe," on *Nebraska* (Sony/Columbia 1982)).
17. 229 F.3d 1312 (10th Cir. 2000) (Seymour, C.J.).
18. Learned Hand, quoted in N.Y. Times, Nov. 18, 1954, Mag. at 14 (reprinted in Henry J. Abraham, *The Judicial Process* 61 (7th ed. 1998)).



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Should judges veto vox populi in opinion writing?

According to one master opinion writer, "Literature, poetry, popular culture and other art forms can be worked effectively into opinion writing."¹ One example of blending literature with opinion writing comes from the New York Family Court, which relied on *Invisible Man*, Ralph Ellison's novel about racism in America, to issue an order the court itself said it had no jurisdiction to issue.² Another is from the New York Supreme Court, which drew from Shakespeare's *King Lear* to condemn two children who cheated their mother: "How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is to have a thankless child."³

Many U.S. Supreme Court opinions contain art forms. Often the art overtakes the opinion, as in *Flood v. Kuhn*,⁴ which lists 88 baseball greats and footnotes two baseball verses in exempting baseball from antitrust laws.

This is from one judge of the law-and-economics school: "The Grateful Dead play rock music. . . . Wherever the Dead appear, there is a demand for LSD in the audience. Demand induces supply. Vendors follow the band around the country; law enforcement officials follow the vendors."⁵ Another federal judge, from Brooklyn, opened with a Bible lesson:

Census-taking has never been easy, and has rarely received favorable press. King David learned this the hard way. In First Samuel, the King directed his Census Bureau, one Joab, to "go through all the tribes of Israel From Dan to Bersabee, and number ye the people that I may know the number of them." When Joab had reluctantly counted as far as 800,000, David realized that, in

some eyes, his task might be regarded as hubris on the scale of the Tower of Babel. He repented, lamenting: "I have sinned very much in what I have done; But I pray thee O Lord, to take away the iniquity of thy servant because I have done exceedingly foolishly." The Lord turned a deaf ear for he sent David a pestilence and 70,000 died.⁶

One federal judge quoted the entire theme song of the 1960s TV show *Gilligan's Island* in footnote one, and began as follows: "'Just sit right back and you'll hear a tale' of what happened when David Reuther, while vacationing in the Cayman Islands at the Pirates Point Resort hotel, decided to go SCUBA diving — 'a fateful trip that started from this tropic port, aboard this tiny ship.'"⁷

Movies, too, attract opinion writers. One court far, far away from New York, joined the dark side by dwelling on *Star Wars*:

The study of prisons and the *pro se* litigants who inhabit them is like the study of astronomy or even science fiction. The explorer of the world of prisons and *pro se* plaintiffs embarks upon a fantastic voyage into another world, even another galaxy, far, far away. Prisoners protect themselves with the laser-light power of their constitutional rights. Prison officials shield themselves with administrative autonomy. Both sides have power, but both must exercise restraint, lest they give in to the dark side of the force.⁸

This federal opinion opened with a history lesson:

Plutarch, the great biographer, recounts the battle between the foot soldiers of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus,

and the Romans at Asculum in 280 B.C. Six thousand Romans were felled that day. Pyrrhus lost three thousand of his own troops. According to Plutarch, when advised that he had won the battle, Pyrrhus reportedly replied in so many words: "Another such victory and I am undone." In this case, history will recount that, like Pyrrhus, plaintiffs won a battle, but lost the war.⁹

Cinderella is popular with opinion writers who enjoy using literary references for metaphoric comparison. This, from New York, is elegant: "A Judge of this State who crosses a State line instantly undergoes a transformation as dramatic as Cinderella's midnight metamorphosis."¹⁰ But this, from the Federal Circuit, is forced: "The language of this statute is as clear as a glass slipper, there is no shoehorn in the legislative history, and the government, just as surely as Cinderella's step-mother, cannot make the fit."¹¹

Mores and culture affect decision making. But judges should be wary of airing their erudition.

Other opinions incorporate fairy tales. From the First Circuit: "In the end, Aoude huffs and puffs, but he fails to blow down the edifice which the district court competently constructed from the facts of record and the applicable law. Cf. *The Three Little Pigs* 16–18 (E. Blegvad ed. 1980) (house three)."¹² From the D.C. Circuit: "Like the Emperor's new clothes, the Sentencing Guidelines are a bit of a farce."¹³

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