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**PRELIMINARY DRAFT REPORT OF THE SECOND CIRCUIT TASK FORCE ON
GENDER, RACIAL, AND ETHNIC FAIRNESS
IN THE COURTS**

June 10, 1997

Hon. Sharon E. Grubin

Co-Chair

Hon. John M. Walker, Jr.

Co-Chair

**Hon. John T. Curtin
Hon. Sterling Johnson, Jr.
Hon. Constance Baker Motley
Hon. Sonia Sotomayor
Ellen Mercer Fallon, Esq.
Fern Schair, Esq.
Sue Ann Shay, S.D.N., Esq.**

Members

Please substitute the attached pages 27 and 33 for pages 27 and 33 in the bound volume of the Draft Task Force Report.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

and respondents' inaccurate recollections.

Notwithstanding some risk of survey error, we are satisfied that the Baruch Report provides a reliable basis for drawing the conclusions we have reached. Because our effort is to report the general extent to which various forms of conduct have occurred (rarely, occasionally, or often) and, where relevant, to note significant differences in the responses of various reporting groups (for example, between male and female judges, or between white and minority lawyers), the relatively minor risk of some survey error does not detract from the validity of our conclusions. We are reporting general patterns, and do not purport to be making a more refined analysis. For example, when we note, in reliance on the 29.8% of the sample reported in Table 16 of the Baruch Report, that many minority male lawyers report that they have been subjected to derogatory or racial comments, it does not matter whether the actual percentage of all minority male lawyers within the Second Circuit is really 27% or 32%, or even 25% or 35%. It is sufficient for our purposes to have learned that such an occurrence happens to a very significant proportion of minority male lawyers.

The data as to occurrences (conduct that has been experienced or observed) concern three sets of people: (1) those to whom the biased treatment is said to have occurred, (2) those said to be responsible for the biased treatment, and (3) those who say they observed the biased treatment. We have thought it helpful in our discussion to make an initial division among those to whom the biased treatment was directed: first, parties and witnesses, and second, lawyers. Within each of these categories, we then make a further division among those who say they observed the biased treatment: judges, court employees, and lawyers.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

experiencing biased conduct based on race or ethnicity.²²

Although the percentages of judges²³ and court employees²⁴ observing biased

their **competence** had been challenged, which they attributed to **gender bias**. Baruch Report, Table 15.

²²29.8% of **minority male lawyers** and 29.4% of **minority female lawyers** reported that they had experienced **derogatory racial or ethnic remarks**.

12.9% of **minority male lawyers**, and 1.9% of **minority female lawyers** reported that they had experienced an **imitation or parody of manner or speech**, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias.

16.8.% of **minority male lawyers**, and 15.7% of **minority female lawyers** reported that they were **helped or coached in a patronizing way**, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias. Baruch Report, Table 16.

²³1.8% of male judges and 16.7% of female judges reported observing **lawyers ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

0.9% of male judges and 8% of female judges reported observing **lawyers helped or coached in a patronizing way by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

1.8% of male judges and 8.3% of female judges reported observing a **female lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer by other lawyers**. Baruch Report, Table 7.

0% of male judges and 4% of female judges reported observing **derogatory racial or ethnic comments by lawyers about other lawyers**.

2.7% of male judges and 4% of female judges reported observing a **minority lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer by other lawyers**. Baruch Report, Table 10.

²⁴5.5% of white male employees, 11.7% of white female employees, and 20.5% of minority employees reported observing **lawyers ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

3.7% of white male employees, 4.2% of white female employees, and 7.1% of

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	v
Chapter One	
Introduction	1
A. The Task Force, The Committees, and Their Methods	1
B. Diversity as a Goal	4
C. The Objective of the Task Force Study	5
Chapter Two	
A Brief Description of the Circuit and its Caseload	7
A. New York, Connecticut, and Vermont	7
B. The Caseload	9
Chapter Three	
A Profile of Article III Judges, Bankruptcy Judges, and Magistrate Judges, and of the Public and Private Bar	12
A. Gender of Judges	14
B. Race and Ethnicity of Judges	17
C. The Gender, Race, and Ethnicity of the Public Bar	18
D. Gender, Race, and Ethnicity of the Private Bar	19
1. Gender of Private Lawyers	20
2. Race and Ethnicity of Private Lawyers	21
Chapter Four	
The Baruch Report: Survey Results of Observations of and Opinions of Judges, Lawyers, Law Clerks, and Courtroom Deputies	23
A. Occurrences of Biased Behavior	28
1. Biased Conduct Directed at Parties and Witnesses	28
2. Biased Conduct Directed at Lawyers	32
3. Judges' View of a Duty to Intervene Concerning Biased Conduct	36

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

B. Opinions or Beliefs About Biased Treatment of Lawyers	37
1. Opinions and Beliefs About Judges Concerning Treatment of Lawyers	37
2. Opinions and Beliefs of Lawyers Concerning Treatment of Lawyers	39
Conclusions	42

Chapter Five

The Court as Appointer	44
A. The Appointment of Bankruptcy Judges	44
B. The Appointment of Magistrate Judges	47
C. The Appointment of Quasi-Judicial Officers	51
D. The Criminal Justice Act Panels	53
E. The Appointment of Judicial Law Clerks	56
F. Appointments to Bench-Bar Committees	62
G. Invitations to the Circuit Judicial Conferences	63
Conclusions	65

Chapter Six

The Court as Employer	66
A. Introduction	66
B. The Employing Units	67
C. Applicable Law	67
D. Statistical Analysis of Workforce Data and Employment Decisions	70
E. Employee Survey	76
F. Personnel Policies	77
Conclusions	79

Chapter Seven

The Litigants	80
A. Non-English Speaking Litigants	82
B. <u>Pro Se</u> Litigants	86
C. Employment Discrimination Litigants	88
Conclusions	91

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter Eight

The Jurors	92
A. The Composition of Juries	92
1. The Data	94
2. Northern District of New York, District of Connecticut, and Eastern District of New York	95
3. Comparisons of the Jury Pools with District Demographics in the Southern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont	96
B. The Juror Survey	99
1. Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in Jury Selection	100
2. Jurors' Perspective on the Role of Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in Court Proceedings	104
Conclusions	105

Chapter Nine

Complaints	106
A. Complaints about Judges	106
B. Complaints about Lawyers	109
C. Complaints about Court Employees	110
Conclusions	112

Chapter Ten

Conclusions and Recommendations	113
I. General Recommendations	113
II. Specific Conclusions and Recommendations	113
A. The Baruch Report	113
Recommendations	114
B. The Court as Appointer	115
Recommendations	116
C. Court as Employer	117
Recommendations	118
D. Litigants	119
Recommendations	120

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

E. The Jurors	120
Recommendations	121
F. Complaints	121
Recommendations	122

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Preface

The Task Force is deeply indebted to the many volunteers and others without whose considerable efforts this report would not have been possible.

[Specific acknowledgements of appreciation to those individuals who contributed to this report will be set forth at this point in the final draft.]

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter OneIntroductionA. The Task Force, The Committees, and Their Methods

In the fall of 1993, the Second Circuit Judicial Council, the body statutorily responsible for Second Circuit governance,¹ voted unanimously to create a Task Force on Gender, Racial, and Ethnic Fairness, composed of seven judicial officers and three lawyers (one from each of the circuit's three states).² The Judicial Council's action followed a 1992 resolution by the Judicial Conference of the United States stating that "because bias, in all of its forms, presents a danger to the effective administration of justice in federal courts," the circuits should conduct "education programs for judges, supporting personnel and lawyers to sensitize them to concerns of bias based on race, ethnicity, gender, age, and disability and the extent to which bias may affect litigants, witnesses, lawyers, and all those who work in the judicial branch."³ In early 1994, Congress, in the Violence Against Women Act, asked the federal courts to study "the nature and extent of gender bias," including an examination of the treatment of lawyers, litigants, witnesses, and jurors, the treatment of court

¹At the time of the vote, the Judicial Council consisted of Chief Circuit Judge Newman; Circuit Judges Kearse, Cardamone, Winter, Miner, Altimari, and Mahoney; Chief District Judges Griesa, McAvoy, Platt, Cabranes, Telesca, and Parker.

²The Task Force originally included the Hon. Lawrence W. Pierce, who has since retired.

³By the time the Second Circuit Task Force was established, the Ninth Circuit had issued a report on gender fairness in its courts, and the District of Columbia Circuit had undertaken simultaneous studies of gender and race fairness. The Second Circuit Judicial Council asked its Task Force to study both issues, and to report its findings and recommendations.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

employees, and appointments by judges.⁴

To avoid the difficulties inherent in asking judges to evaluate themselves, the Task Force asked outside observers -- members of the bar and legal academics -- to conduct an independent investigation and present their report to the Task Force. By early 1994, the Task Force had appointed a volunteer executive director of the study, decided upon a structure whereby two volunteer committees ("the Committees") -- one for gender and one for race and ethnicity -- would conduct separate but coordinated examinations, and selected co-chairs and an academic reporter for each committee. By July 1994, the members of the Committees, approximately sixty volunteers drawn from among legal professionals throughout the Second Circuit, had been chosen, and a plenary session had been held in New York City. In 1995 and 1996, after planning meetings, the Committees divided themselves into subcommittees, to study specific areas, conduct focus groups, interviews, and special studies of litigants and jurors, research the literature, and meet with bar groups. Public hearings were held in every district in the circuit, and the subcommittees reported findings to the two full Committees.

In conjunction with the work of the Committees, a survey was undertaken by experts from Baruch College of the City University of New York ("the Baruch Report") under the direction of Professor Carroll Seron, the project's social science advisor. Written questionnaires were sent to all judicial officers, law clerks, courtroom deputy clerks, and all other court employees in the circuit. A telephone survey of lawyers, with a written follow-

⁴42 U.S.C. § 14001.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

up to non-respondents, was conducted by Louis Harris and Associates, Inc. This survey data was then presented to focus groups around the circuit.

In late 1996 and early 1997, the Committees undertook to complete a report to the Task Force ("the Committee Report"). The work of the Task Force was completed largely using resources outside the courts. The Committees were composed entirely of volunteers. The only public expenditures were for the lawyer surveys conducted by Louis Harris and Associates and the employment profile conducted by Price Waterhouse, which was carried out at reduced cost, and to reimburse limited travel and public hearing costs and the expenses of preparing and reproducing the reports. These reports are the product of many thousands of hours of work by dedicated volunteers to whom the Task Force owes an immense debt of gratitude and who are acknowledged in the preface to this Report. This Task Force Report utilizes the Committee Report and much of the data underlying it to reach the Task Force's own independent findings, conclusions, and recommendations. The Committee Report does not necessarily represent the views of the Task Force and the Task Force did not choose to report on all subjects contained in the Committee Report, but we think it important to have that report available to the public. Rather than identify every specific point of agreement and disagreement, however, we think it more appropriate to present in this document the views of the Task Force, and let the views of the Committees speak for themselves in the Committee Report. Therefore, the Committee Report is published separately as Appendix A to this report.

The Committee Report also contains an extended discussion of the treatment of

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

women and minorities in the bankruptcy courts with a particular focus on the appointments of trustees and the occurrence of women debtors. Some of the findings are preliminary, and the Task Force chose not to report separately on the bankruptcy courts. We invite those who may be interested to read this section of the Committee Report.

B. Diversity as a Goal

Implicit in a report of this nature is the proposition that diversity of gender, race, and ethnicity among public officials and employees is a worthwhile objective. For at least the past 35 years, this same assumption has guided public policy throughout American society. It has caused Congress to enact a panoply of laws to bar discrimination based on race, religion, sex, age, and disability, and it has led every recent President to promote diversity in the Executive Branch and in making Presidential appointments, including appointments of life-tenured Article III judges. Private and public sector institutions throughout American society likewise have embraced diversity as a worthy goal.

In a pluralistic society, it is important that different groups have an opportunity to participate in the governing process. Diversity of representation in public institutions also offers some assurance to groups within the society that there are at least some persons in authority who share to some degree the perspectives of that group and can serve to balance other viewpoints. In addition, to the extent that people bring different life experiences and perspectives to bear on their tasks, the quality of governance benefits. In such ways, diversity has the potential to enhance both the actual fairness of public proceedings and the public's perception of fairness and confidence in those proceedings.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

In the past women and minorities were barred from attaining senior positions in the legal profession, the unfortunate legacy of generations of discrimination in American society with consequences that still exist today. As these barriers have fallen, opportunities for women and minorities have opened up. While in the past there has been a debate over whether diversity could only be achieved at the expense of excellence, today diversity can and should be achieved without compromising the very highest standards due to the ample and growing numbers of highly qualified women and minorities in the legal profession.

This report uses the terms "women" and "minorities" throughout. "Women" is self-defining. By "minorities" we mean persons who are Hispanic, Black (by which is meant African-Americans, Caribbean-Americans and others of African descent), Indigenous (generally American Indian), Asian/Pacific Islanders, and other minorities.

C. The Objective of the Task Force Study

The objective of the Task Force study, broadly stated, was to examine whether, how, and when gender, race, or ethnicity affect the quality or nature of individual experience in the circuit's federal courts, both as to those who are involved in the litigation process and those who are court employees. Similar studies in other jurisdictions have been termed "bias reports." Bias is relevantly defined by Webster's Third International Dictionary as: "an inclination of temperament or outlook," frequently "such prepossession with some object or point of view that the mind does not respond impartially to anything related to this object or point of view." Bias can be conscious or, in the more likely case, unconscious. The foregoing definition is followed by a pertinent quote from the English educator Sir Walter

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Moberly: "the most pernicious kind of bias consists in falsely supposing yourself to have none." This study attempts to ascertain whether "bias," so defined, exists in the courts of this circuit.

The study sought to determine whether because of bias, unconscious or not, the courts of the Second Circuit operate in a manner that is unfair based on gender, race, or ethnicity. By unfairness we mean treatment of a person based on gender, race, or ethnicity that differs from the way others are treated and that results in some disadvantage. The Task Force did not study how, if at all, substantive case outcomes might be the result of bias or unfairness. Inquiries into the fairness of judicial outcomes, the majority of the Task Force believes, are best left to the appellate process.

The study was not concerned solely with actual instances of bias and unfair treatment. The Task Force also sought to find out whether, among persons or groups who use or work in the courts, any bias or unfairness is, for whatever reasons, subjectively believed or perceived to exist. In addition, the Task Force asked for more general beliefs or opinions as to whether there are aspects of court practices that are unfair based on gender, race, or ethnicity. The Task Force believes that any widely held belief or opinion that the courts are unfair in any respect should be known by those in authority within the courts and remedied.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter TwoA Brief Description of the Circuit and its Caseload

Court operations do not occur in a vacuum. They are part of and affected by the communities they serve.⁵

A. New York, Connecticut, and Vermont

New York, Connecticut, and Vermont comprise the Second Circuit. Within these states, there is a wide diversity of population and human activity. The states range from New York, a high population state with a mixture of high urban, suburban, and rural communities, to Connecticut, a less urban, more suburban state with rural communities, to Vermont, a low population, mostly rural state. Court is held in places as different from one another as Binghamton, New York; Rochester, New York; Bridgeport, Connecticut; Burlington, Vermont; and New York City. The circuit has 6 district courts: 4 in New York, 1 each in Connecticut and in Vermont. The number of judgeships, which are fixed by statute and allocated generally according to caseload volume, varies among courts. There are 13 Article III judges in the Court of Appeals, 8 in the District of Connecticut, 4 in the Northern District of New York, 15 in the Eastern District of New York, 28 in the Southern District of New York, 4 in the Western District of New York, and 2 in the District of

⁵The Committee Report devotes considerable space to reporting a social and demographic profile of the three states within the Second Circuit and the makeup of its 1 circuit and 6 district courts broken down by gender and race. The Task Force refers the reader to the Committee Report for a comprehensive review and here confines itself to a brief discussion of selected data.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Vermont. There are 3 bankruptcy judgeships in the District of Connecticut, 2 in the Northern District of New York, 6 in the Eastern District of New York, 9 in the Southern District of New York, 3 in the Western District of New York, and 1 in the District of Vermont. There are 5 magistrate judges in the District of Connecticut, 5 in the Northern District of New York, 12 in the Eastern District of New York, 12 in the Southern District of New York, 5 in the Western District of New York, and 1 in the District of Vermont.

The circuit's population is 52% female and 48% male, and its racial breakdown is as follows:

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE A: Racial and Ethnic Populations by District

	Total	White	Black	Native American	Asian Pacific Islander	Other	Hispanic (Any Race)
NDNY	3,357,709	3,094,443 (92.2%)	135,554 (4.0%)	12,589 (0.4%)	36,958 (1.1%)	19,745 (0.6%)	58,420 (1.7%)
WDNY	2,840,302	2,472,176 (87%)	229,613 (8.1%)	14,377 (0.5%)	28,082 (1.0%)	31,395 (1.1%)	64,659 (2.3%)
SDNY	4,551,993	1,808,400 (39.7%)	973,775 (21.4%)	15,315 (0.3%)	199,793 (4.4%)	502,771 (11.0%)	1,051,939 (23.1%)
EDNY	7,240,451	3,796,210 (52.4%)	1,520,113 (21.0%)	20,370 (0.3%)	428,927 (5.9%)	435,823 (6.0%)	1,039,008 (14.4%)
CT	3,287,116	2,762,106 (84%)	263,344 (8%)	6,153 (0.2%)	47,872 (1.5%)	4,130 (0.1%)	203,511 (6.2%)
VT	562,758	551,441 (98%)	2,116 (0.4%)	2,170 (0.4%)	3,011 (0.5%)	158 (0.003%)	3,862 (0.7%)
2d Circuit	21,840,329	15,803,177 (72.4%)	2,864,824 (13.1%)	57,875 (0.3%)	722,868 (3.3%)	32,468 (0.2%)	2,359,116 (10.8%)

Source: 1990 Bureau of the Census

B. The Caseload

The civil caseload of the six district courts is rising, as is the percentage of that caseload presenting civil rights and prisoner claims. The criminal caseload is slightly lower than five years ago; however, the raw statistics do not reveal the complexity of many of the cases.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE B: District Court Caseload 1991 & 1996

	CIVIL						CRIMINAL				
	TOTAL	HABEAS & PRISONER CIVIL RIGHTS	CIVIL RIGHTS	CONTRACT	LABOR	PERSONAL INJURY	TOTAL	DRUG	EMBEZZLE- MENT	LARCENY	FRAUD
1991	18,570	12.0%	9.2%	22.3%	10.0%	13.2%	3,402	35.0%	5.4%	6.0%	22.4%
1996	23,801	16.2%	16.4%	18.9%	8.6%	11.9%	3,325	29.1%	3.4%	5.7%	27.1%

The circuit's civil appellate caseload grew by more than one-third over the past five years, reflecting in part an increase in civil rights and prisoner claims. Criminal appeals were also up over the same period.

TABLE C: Court of Appeals Caseload 1991 & 1996

	CIVIL						CRIMINAL				
	TOTAL	HABEAS & PRISONER CIVIL RIGHTS	CIVIL RIGHTS	CONTRACT	LABOR	PERSONAL INJURY	TOTAL	DRUG	EMBEZZLE- MENT	LARCENY	FRAUD
1991	2,355	24.5%	17.8%	11.4%	5.3%	4.5%	764	58.0%	1.6%	2.0%	15.6%
1996	3,176	28.1%	25.8%	11.1%	4.3%	4.0%	872	41.4%	1.0%	3.7%	17.9%

Note: based on cases appealed from district courts.

In 1996, the pro se caseload was a substantial part of the docket of both the district courts and the Court of Appeals. Although we do not have a precise figure for pro se filings in the district courts, estimated to be approximately 30% of all filings, the following table presents figures for the Court of Appeals.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

**TABLE D: Court of Appeals: Pro Se and Counseled Cases
Twelve Month Period Ending September 30, 1996**

Total Cases Commenced	4,562 (100.0%)	Total Cases Terminated	4,207 (100.0%)
Counseled	2,845 (62.4%)	Counseled	2,686 (63.8%)
<u>Pro Se</u>	1,717 (37.6%)	<u>Pro Se</u>	1,521 (36.2%)

Note: based on cases appealed from district court and agencies and original actions.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter ThreeA Profile of Article III Judges, Bankruptcy Judges,
and Magistrate Judges, and of the Public and Private Bar

The role of the federal courts in selecting judicial officers varies depending on the level of court. The courts have no role in the selection of Article III judges who sit on the Court of Appeals and the district courts, the responsibility for which lies entirely with the President, who nominates judges, and the United States Senate, which confirms them. Bankruptcy judges are appointed by the judges of the Court of Appeals from a choice of candidates submitted by merit selection committees. Magistrate judges are appointed by the judges of the district court in which the magistrate judge serves from a choice of candidates submitted by merit selection committees.

The representation of women and minorities as judges in the courts of the Second Circuit varies from court to court and at the different levels of the court.⁶ The Court of Appeals, with 13 active judge positions, 3 of which were vacant on January 1, 1997, has 1 woman and 2 minorities. The district courts, with 56 active judges, has 19 women judges and 9 minority judges. Among the circuit's 24 bankruptcy judges, 5 are women and 3 are minorities, and among the 40 magistrate judges, 12 are women and 3 minorities.

The following tables depict the women and minority judges in the Court of Appeals, the district courts, bankruptcy courts, and among magistrate judges in the Second Circuit as of January 1, 1997 and as a percentage both of the active judges in those positions and of all

⁶All demographic data, unless otherwise indicated, is as of January 1, 1997.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

judges, active and senior,⁷ of the Court of Appeals and the district courts.

TABLE E: Court of Appeals Judges

	ACTIVE JUDGES	ALL JUDGES ACTIVE & SENIOR
JUDGES	10	18
WOMEN JUDGES	1 (10%)	1 (6%)
MINORITY JUDGES	2 (20%)	2 (11%)

TABLE F: District Court Judges

	NDNY ACTIVE	ALL	WDNY ACTIVE	ALL	SDNY ACTIVE	ALL	EDNY ACTIVE	ALL	VT ACTIVE	ALL	CONN ACTIVE	ALL	TOTAL ACTIVE	ALL
JUDGES	4	6	4	6	25	44	15	21	2	3	7	10	57	92
WOMEN JUDGES	1 (25%)	1 (17%)	0	0	9 (36%)	12 (27%)	4 (27%)	4 (19%)	0	0	1 (14%)	2 (20%)	15 (26%)	19 (21%)
MINORITY JUDGES	0	0	0	0	4 (16%)	7 (16%)	1 (7%)	1 (5%)	0	0	1 (14%)	1 (10%)	6 (10%)	9 (10%)

TABLE G: Bankruptcy Judges

	NDNY	WDNY	SDNY	EDNY	VT	CONN	TOTAL
JUDGES	2	3	9	6	1	3	24
WOMEN JUDGES	0	0	2 (22%)	3 (50%)	0	0	5 (21%)
MINORITY JUDGES	0	0	2 (11%)	1 (17%)	0	0	3 (13%)

Note: Figures do not include bankruptcy judges recalled to duty.

⁷Senior judges are those Article III judges who at age 65 or thereafter, upon the completion of 15 years of service (or a combination of years of service plus age equalling 80), have elected senior status, thereby creating a vacancy among the active judges of the court.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE H: Magistrate Judges

	NDNY	WDNY	SDNY	EDNY	VT	CONN	TOTAL
JUDGES	5	5	12	12	1	5	40
WOMEN JUDGES	0	1 (20%)	3 (25%)	5 (42%)	0	3 (60%)	12 (30%)
MINORITY JUDGES	0	1 (20%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	0	0	3 (8%)

Note: Figures do not include part-time magistrate judges.

The significant representation of women and minorities on some of the courts of the Second Circuit is a relatively recent phenomenon. In 1991, there were only 8 active and senior female judges as compared with today's 19 active and senior female judges. The first woman to serve as a district judge was appointed to the District Court for the Southern District of New York in 1966, and she was not joined by another woman on that court until 1978. The first woman was appointed to the district court in Connecticut in 1977, and she was the only woman there for nearly two decades. There was no woman on the district court for the Eastern District of New York until 1978. All six of the active minority district court judges in the circuit have joined the bench since 1991. Since 1961, there has been some minority representation in the circuit's courts although, until recently, not in great numbers. The minority judges now senior, retired or deceased, are former Supreme Court Justice Thurgood Marshall (Court of Appeals 1961-1965); Constance Baker Motley (S.D.N.Y. 1966 to date); Mary Johnson Lowe (S.D.N.Y. 1978 to date); Lawrence W. Pierce (S.D.N.Y. 1972-1982; Court of Appeals 1982-1995); and Henry Bramwell (E.D.N.Y. 1974-1987).

A. Gender of Judges

Of the 173 active and senior Article III judges in office at the end of 1996, 38 (21%) are

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

women. Since women have more recently come into the legal profession, their numbers are greater as a percentage of active judges than as a percentage of active and senior judges combined. Of the 18 judges of the Court of Appeals (10 active and 8 senior judges), the single female judge is 10% of the active judges and 6% of all judges. Of the 91 active and senior judges of the district courts, 19 (21%) are women; of the 56 active district judges, 15 (27%) are women; of the 24 bankruptcy judges, 5 (21%) are women; and of the 40 magistrate judges, 12 (30%) are women. However, the distribution of women at various levels of court is uneven.

The representation of women among the judges of the Second Circuit at the various court levels is depicted in Tables E, F, G, and H. Women are 52% of the circuit's population, women are 27% of all lawyers in the Second Circuit and the Committee Report estimated that women are 21.7% of the lawyers who practice in the federal courts. Judges are drawn from the ranks of lawyers, not the population at large, and normally from the ranks of those lawyers who have been members of the bar for 15 years and have had some degree of courtroom experience. There are no precise statistics kept for the percentage of such lawyers who are women.⁸

⁸Based on law school enrollment data, women are 16% of the lawyers in the age pool from which judges are normally selected -- those between the ages of 39 (who graduate no earlier than age 24 and therefore have the normally expected 15 years' experience) and age 60 (beyond which judicial appointments are rarely made). The American Bar Association data from which the 16% figure is derived is nation-wide and may not be representative of this circuit. This data reveals that nationally 629,978 law students entered A.B.A.-approved law schools between 1958 and 1979, of whom 101,476 were women. Students entering law school in 1958 would have graduated in 1961 at age 24, and by 1997 would be at least 60 years of age; those entering law school in 1979 would have graduated in 1982 at age 24, and by 1997 would have at least 15 years' experience. 101,476 is 16% of 629,978. First year enrollment figures have been used because of the absence of ABA data on graduates for all of the relevant years; however, there is no reason to suspect a significant variance between the percentages as between men and women who enter law school and those who graduate.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

We note that the overall percentages of women district judges among active district judges (27%) and among active and senior district judges (21%), on the bankruptcy court (21%) and among magistrate judges (30%) does not compare unfavorably to the 21.7% of federal court practitioners who are women. However, overall numbers do not present a complete picture due to the unevenness of representation of women as between courts. Women are found in greater percentages on the district courts particularly in New York's Northern, Eastern, and Southern Districts, among bankruptcy judges in the Southern and Eastern Districts, and among magistrate judges in the Southern, Eastern, and Western Districts of New York and in the District of Connecticut. However, there are few, if any, women elsewhere. In the Court of Appeals, only 1 woman has ever served, and since 1980 every appointment has gone to a man. No women have ever served in the district courts for the Western District of New York and District of Vermont, the bankruptcy courts for the Northern and Western Districts of New York and District of Vermont, and as a magistrate judge for the Northern District of New York and District of Vermont.

It is important to note that women were 43.5%⁹ of those who graduated from law school in 1996. Thus, the percentage of women who will be eligible for consideration as judges will rise significantly as these women law graduates attain experience. Appointing authorities will have to keep in mind the growing percentage of women among the pool of lawyers eligible for judicial office.

Using similar known data, the percentages of women lawyers in the above age pool will be 24% in five years and 31% in ten years.

⁹The ABA Legal Education Section reports that in 1996, of 39,920 J.D. degrees awarded, 17,366 (43.5%) went to women.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

B. Race and Ethnicity of Judges

Of the 173 Article III and non-Article III judges, 14 (8%) are minorities. As the tables show, while the distribution among the level of courts is fairly uniform, the distribution as between courts at the same level is uneven. Of the 18 judges of the Court of Appeals (10 active and 8 senior judges), 2 (11%) are minorities; the 2 minorities are 20% of the court's active judges. Of the 56 active district judges, 6 (11%) are minorities; of the 24 bankruptcy judges, 3 (12%) are minorities; and of the 40 magistrate judges, 3 (8%) are minorities.

The representation of minorities among the judges at the various court levels is depicted in Tables E, F, G, and H. The 1990 Census reported that minorities are 27.6% of the general population within the Second Circuit and 7.5% of the circuit's lawyers and the Committees estimated that about 5% of the lawyers practicing in the circuit's federal courts are minorities.

We note that the overall percentages of minority district judges among active district judges of 11% and among active and senior district judges of 10%, on the bankruptcy court of 13% and among magistrate judges of 8% exceeds the 5% of minority federal court practitioners. However, there are no minority judges in any of the courts of the Northern and Western Districts of New York and District of Vermont and only 1 in the federal courts of Connecticut. As is the case with women, the percentage of law school graduates who are minorities has risen in the past fifteen years to 17.9% in 1996,¹⁰ and appointing authorities should be mindful of this rising percentage as appointments are made.

¹⁰The ABA Legal Education Section reports that in 1996 of 39,920 J.D. degrees awarded, 6,802 (17.9%) went to minorities as follows: African-American, 2,755 (14.5%); Hispanic, 2,000 (5%); Asian, 2,129 (5.3%); and American Indian, 268 (.7%).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

The Task Force does not suggest that appointing authorities be restricted to a consideration of the percentages of those lawyers eligible for judicial office who are women or minorities. As discussed earlier, since diversity benefits the judiciary both by enhancing perspectives that bear on governance and by giving specific groups the confidence that persons with similar life experiences are in positions of authority in sufficient numbers, it is understandably desirable that appointing authorities would seek to achieve higher percentages of women and minority judges than the available pool percentages would indicate and, in some courts, higher percentages do exist. As recommended in Chapter Ten, diversity in judicial appointments should remain a continuing, conscious goal.

C. The Gender, Race, and Ethnicity of the Public Bar

Although to a considerable extent the appointing authorities for the public bar lie outside the courts, the gender and race of that bar is part of the environment of the federal courts. For example, United States Attorneys are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, and Assistant United States Attorneys are appointed by the Attorney General, usually on the recommendation of the United States Attorney. The only role the federal courts have in these appointments is in the very rare situation in which a district court makes an interim appointment to fill a vacancy in the position of the United States Attorney itself. The Public Defenders for the District of Connecticut and the Western District of New York are appointed by the Court of Appeals upon the advice of district court committees composed of the chief district judge and members of the bar. These Public Defenders appoint their own assistant public defenders. In the Southern and Eastern Districts of New York, public defender services are contracted out to the Legal Aid Society,

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

the employees of which are not court employees. In addition to full-time public defenders, lawyers are appointed by each court from panels of private lawyers, pursuant to the Criminal Justice Act, to represent indigent defendants who for some reason cannot be represented by full-time defenders. These individually appointed lawyers are selected from a roster of Criminal Justice Act lawyers maintained by each court. In the Northern District of New York and the District of Vermont these panel lawyers carry the entire indigent criminal caseload.

Of the 6 United States Attorneys within the Second Circuit, 1 is a woman and 1 is a minority. In 1995, women were 38% of the Assistant United States Attorneys, and minorities were 10%. Of the lawyers in the Legal Aid defender offices for the Eastern and Southern Districts of New York, about 50% are women and 13% are minorities. The full-time public defender for the District of Connecticut is a white male and, as of the end of 1996, that office of 6 lawyers had 1 woman and no minorities. The Western District of New York public defender is a white male and, as of 1997, that office of 8 lawyers is comprised of 4 women and no minorities.

D. Gender, Race, and Ethnicity of the Private Bar

The following table breaks down the gender, race, and ethnicity of all lawyers in the districts of the Second Circuit. However, we do not have data to demonstrate how many of each category practice in the federal courts.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE I: Number and Percent of Lawyers by Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in the Second Circuit, 1990

		TOTAL	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	INDIGENOUS	ASIAN/ PACIFIC ISLANDER	OTHER RACE
WDNY	Female	1,279 (18.3%)	1,225 (18.0%)	10 (38.5%)	36 (25.0%)	8 (57.1%)	0 (0.0%)	0
	Male	5,719 (81.7%)	5,579 (82.0%)	16 (61.5%)	108 (75.0%)	6 (42.9%)	10 (100.0%)	0
SDNY	Female	12,721 (29.9%)	11,268 (28.4%)	458 (45.3%)	648 (56.9%)	0 (0.0%)	347 (47.5%)	0 (0.0%)
	Male	29,844 (70.1%)	28,405 (71.6%)	552 (54.7%)	490 (43.1%)	7 (100.0%)	383 (52.5%)	7 (100.0%)
EDNY	Female	8,824 (27.3%)	7,142 (24.7%)	422 (46.7%)	984 (52.3%)	13 (76.5%)	256 (42.6%)	7 (100.0%)
	Male	23,543 (72.7%)	21,813 (75.3%)	482 (53.3%)	899 (47.7%)	4 (23.5%)	345 (57.4%)	0 (0.0%)
NDNY	Female	1,729 (22.0%)	1,662 (21.7%)	22 (23.4%)	37 (45.1%)	3 (25.0%)	5 (35.7%)	0
	Male	6,132 (78.0%)	5,997 (78.3%)	72 (76.6%)	45 (54.9%)	9 (75.0%)	9 (64.3%)	0
VERMONT	Female	390 (25.4%)	390 (25.6%)	0	0	0	0	0
	Male	1,135 (74.6%)	1,125 (74.4%)	2 (100.0%)	4 (100.0%)	0	4 (100.0%)	0
CONN.	Female	3,632 (26.8%)	3,391 (26.1%)	99 (44.0%)	117 (41.9%)	5 (100.0%)	20 (37.0%)	0
	Male	9,910 (73.2%)	9,588 (73.9%)	126 (56.0%)	162 (58.1%)	0 (0%)	34 (63.0%)	0
SECOND CIRCUIT	Female	28,575 (27.3%)	25,078 (25.7%)	1,011 (44.7%)	1,822 (51.6%)	29 (52.7%)	628 (44.4%)	7 (50.0%)
	Male	76,283 (72.7%)	72,507 (74.3%)	1,250 (55.3%)	1,708 (48.3%)	26 (47.2%)	785 (55.6%)	7 (50.0%)

Source: 1990 Equal Opportunity File compiled by the Census.

Note: The percentages shown for each district indicate the proportion of lawyers in each racial or ethnic category that are male and female.

1. Gender of Private Lawyers

The 1990 Census reported that 27% of the lawyers practicing in the geographic area comprising the Second Circuit were women. The Committee Report, using statistical analysis based upon a sampling technique, estimated the percentage of women practicing in

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

the federal courts of this circuit to be 21.7%. The Committee Report also pointed to indicators that, as between male and female lawyers, female lawyers tended to play less significant roles in litigation. This conclusion was based primarily on survey data showing that a smaller percentage of male lawyers (24% of white males; 38.5% of minority males) are law firm associates than female lawyers (48% of white females; 100% of minority females); and more women practitioners are under 35 years old (41% of white females; 80% of minority females) than men (17% of white males; 46% of minority males).

2. Race and Ethnicity of Private Lawyers

The following table depicts the race and ethnicity of the private bar of the circuit:

TABLE J: Lawyers by Race and Ethnicity for the Nation and the Circuit in 1990

	TOTAL	WHITE	HISPANIC	BLACK	INDIGENOUS	ASIAN/ PACIFIC ISLANDER	OTHER
SECOND CIRCUIT	104,858	97,858 (93.3%)	2,261 (2.2%)	3,530 (3.4%)	55 (0.0%)	1,413 (1.3%)	14 (0.0%)
UNITED STATES	747,077	691,313 (92.5%)	18,612 (2.5%)	25,067 (3.4%)	1,417 (0.2%)	10,513 (1.4%)	155 (0.0%)

Source: 1990 Equal Opportunity File compiled by the Census.

The 1990 Census reported that 6.8% of the lawyers in the Second Circuit were minority lawyers. This figure probably underrepresents the minority lawyer percentage as of the end of 1996, since, of all J.D. degrees awarded nation-wide, minorities received 17.9% in 1996 and 18.7% in 1995, and from 1981 to 1991, the number of minorities in firms of 25 or more lawyers more than doubled (3% to 6.8%). Among minority lawyers, women comprise a greater percentage, nearly half (48%), than they do among white lawyers, of which 26% are women. Based upon survey data, the Committee Report estimates that

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

minority lawyers account for 4.7% of the lawyers practicing in the federal courts of the
Second Circuit.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter Four

The Baruch Report: Survey Results of Observations and Opinions of Judges, Lawyers, Law Clerks, and Courtroom Deputies

To understand the extent to which biased behavior occurs within the courts of the Second Circuit and might be thought to be occurring, the Task Force commissioned an elaborate survey by the School of Public Affairs at Baruch College ("the Baruch Report").¹¹ The primary investigative technique of the Baruch Report was the distribution of detailed questionnaires to judges, lawyers, and those court employees in a position to observe courtroom conduct -- courtroom deputy clerks and law clerks. The interviews with most of the lawyers were conducted by telephone. Both the written and the telephonic responses were supplemented by focus group sessions.

In drawing its own conclusions from the survey data, the Task Force distinguishes between data as to the observation of biased behavior, that is, what respondents reported had happened to them and what they had observed happening to others, and data as to the

¹¹Dr. Carroll Seron, the project coordinator of the Baruch Report, is the Director of Academic Programs at the Baruch College School of Public Affairs, where she has been on the faculty since 1986. Previously, she was a Judicial Fellow at the United States Supreme Court and, for five years, worked as a research associate at the Federal Judicial Center. Dr. Seron has conducted numerous studies, and published three books, five reports, and over fifteen articles concerning the law and the federal judiciary. See, e.g., Carroll Seron and Wolf Heydebrand, Rationalizing Justice: The Political Economy of the Federal District Courts (1990); Carroll Seron, A Report of the Experiences of Judges in the Use of State Certification Procedures, Federal Judicial Center, Washington, D.C. (1982); Carroll Seron, The Role of Magistrates in Federal District Courts, Federal Judicial Center, Washington, D.C. (1983). The authors of the Baruch Report have also been commissioned by the New York City Civilian Complaint and Review Board to conduct a pilot study using methodology similar to that employed in the Baruch Report which will document community perceptions as between officers of the New York City Police Department and the community.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

opinions or beliefs of biased behavior, that is, the opinions respondents held as to the extent of biased behavior that they believe is occurring, regardless of whether they had either experienced or observed such behavior.

We also note that even where the data reports observations, either happening to the respondent or observed by the respondent, it inevitably includes both observations of incidents that might objectively be determined to be biased conduct, such as hearing an explicitly racially derogatory remark, and incidents that are subjectively considered by the recipient or the observer to be biased conduct, such as hearing the competence of a minority lawyer questioned by another lawyer. Uttering a racially derogatory remark is always racially biased conduct. On the other hand, questioning the competency of a minority lawyer without a racial reference may not always be racially biased conduct. Therefore as to some forms of conduct, some uncertainty will inevitably exist as to whether those experiencing or observing the conduct are misperceiving innocent conduct or whether others who fail to observe biased conduct are insensitive to it. The data concerning occurrences of biased conduct include all conduct that was subjectively considered by the respondent to reflect gender or racial or ethnic bias.¹²

At the outset, we must note several cautions applicable to both the observation data and the belief or opinion data contained in the Baruch Report. First, some margin of error

¹²As the reader will note, much of the survey data reflects differences in the amount of biased conduct said to have been observed occurring toward others or actually experienced depending on whether the survey respondent is a white male, white female, or a minority male or female. The interested reader may wish to note the Committee Report's discussion of this phenomenon.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

inevitably arises (a) because rates of return by those groups in which all members were surveyed, while high, were incomplete and (b) because of sampling error as to those groups in which members were sampled. The results of this study are not broken down on a district by district basis. Since there are sometimes significantly different conditions present from district to district, the reader is cautioned that the aggregate data "blends" the data and may obscure real differences. Questionnaires were sent to all circuit, district, bankruptcy, and magistrate judges of the 7 courts within the Second Circuit, all courtroom deputy clerks and law clerks, all Assistant United States Attorneys ("AUSAs"), and all full-time lawyers in offices responsible for representing defendants charged with federal crimes.¹³ The response rates for these groups were as follows:

Judges	73 %
Courtroom deputy and law clerks	73 %
AUSAs and defenders	70 %

Because the members of each of these groups who chose to respond might not be perfectly representative of the entire group, the data for each group might not accurately reflect the experiences or the perception of the entire group. Nevertheless, we believe that the response rates for all of the groups surveyed are sufficiently high to minimize the risk of any significant distortion arising from incomplete response rates.

Lawyers in private practice were sampled. A base of names was assembled

¹³The Baruch Report refers to these lawyers as "Public Defenders." Included are the full-time lawyers of the Federal Public Defender's offices in the Western District of New York and Connecticut, and the lawyers of the Federal Defender Unit of the Legal Aid Society who represent federal defendants in the Eastern and Southern Districts of New York.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

consisting of all lawyers who had filed appearances in Second Circuit courts in 1995. From this base, a random sample of names was drawn. Because the lawyers filing appearances were primarily white males, this technique was expected to produce, and did produce, low numbers of female and, especially, minority lawyers. More female and minority lawyers had participated in Second Circuit cases even though their names were not listed on appearance forms, which usually identify only the attorney of record. Accordingly, to augment the number of female and minority lawyers questioned by the Baruch Report, lawyers whose names were generated in the random sample were asked for the names of all lawyers who had participated with them in the case in which they had filed the initial appearance form. This procedure produced a total of 238 white male lawyers, 226 white female lawyers, 95 minority male lawyers, and 53 minority female lawyers.¹⁴ Again, there is some risk that the data from these groups of lawyers might not be perfectly representative of all members of each group, both because of the normal margin of sampling error and the added margin of error arising from the fact that the means of identifying women and minority lawyers was random only to the extent that the initially drawn names were randomly selected. Finally, some risk of error arises, as with all surveying, from possible misinterpretations of the questions, respondents' attributions of different meanings to words used in some questions,

¹⁴The sample of each group of private lawyers was adjusted to provide a fair representation of lawyers who had participated in a mix of cases typical of the cases in courts of the Second Circuit, and also adjusted to avoid overrepresenting the lawyers who had appeared frequently in federal courts, thereby increasing their chances of being drawn for the sample. The details of the survey's sampling technique are set forth in the Baruch Report, which is Appendix B to this report.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

and respondents' inaccurate recollections.

Notwithstanding some risk of survey error, we are satisfied that the Baruch Report provides a reliable basis for drawing the conclusions we have reached. Because our effort is to report the general extent to which various forms of conduct have occurred (rarely, occasionally, or often) and, where relevant, to note significant differences in the responses of various reporting groups (for example, between male and female judges, or between white and minority lawyers), the relatively minor risk of some survey error does not detract from the validity of our conclusions. We are reporting general patterns, and do not purport to be making a more refined analysis. For example, when we note, in reliance on the ^{29.5%}~~65.1%~~ of the sample reported in Table 16 of the Baruch Report, that many minority male lawyers report that they have been subjected to derogatory or racial comments, it does not matter whether the actual percentage of all minority male lawyers within the Second Circuit is really ^{27%}~~62%~~ or ^{32%}~~68%~~, or even ^{25%}~~60%~~ or ^{35%}~~70%~~. It is sufficient for our purposes to have learned that such an occurrence happens to a very significant proportion of minority male lawyers.

The data as to occurrences (conduct that has been experienced or observed) concern three sets of people: (1) those to whom the biased treatment is said to have occurred, (2) those said to be responsible for the biased treatment, and (3) those who say they observed the biased treatment. We have thought it helpful in our discussion to make an initial division among those to whom the biased treatment was directed: first, parties and witnesses, and second, lawyers. Within each of these categories, we then make a further division among those who say they observed the biased treatment: judges, court employees, and lawyers.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Finally, within the subgroups of observers, we identify the groups of people said to be responsible for the biased treatment.

We have selected for discussion in this report the data that seem particularly significant. In reporting this data, the footnote language in bold is that used in the pertinent survey question. A more comprehensive understanding of the results of the Baruch Report will be obtained from examination of the full Report and its accompanying tables, which reflect all the significant data gathered for the Baruch Report. This Report, prepared by and reflecting the views of the professionals involved in the survey, is published separately as Appendix B of this Task Force Report.

A. Occurrences of Biased Behavior

1. Biased Conduct Directed at Parties and Witnesses

The biased treatment of parties and witnesses comprised instances where a party or witness was (1) ignored, interrupted, or not listened to; (2) helped or coached in a patronizing way; (3) subjected to a sexually oriented remark; or (4) subjected to a derogatory remark related to gender, race, or ethnicity (including parodying an accent). Limited resources precluded surveying parties and witnesses themselves; instead, the Baruch Report relied on biased behavior directed at parties or witnesses as observed by judges, court employees (law clerks and courtroom deputy clerks), and lawyers. Respondents were asked to report their observations of biased behavior that they attributed to the gender or the race or ethnicity of parties and witnesses.

Overall, few judges and court employees observed biased conduct by lawyers based

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

on gender or race or ethnicity directed at parties or witnesses, but such instances were nonetheless reported, especially by female judges.¹⁵ Court employees, who were asked about biased conduct by **either judges or lawyers** directed at parties or witnesses, also seldom reported such occurrences, but some occurrences were observed.¹⁶ Again, the

¹⁵5.4% of male judges and 26.9% of female judges observed **parties or witnesses ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by lawyers**, which the judges attributed to **gender bias**.

6.3% of the male judges and 26.9% of the female judges observed **parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by lawyers**, which the judges attributed to **gender bias**. Baruch Report, Table 22.

2.5% of the male judges and 25.9% of the female judges observed **parties or witnesses ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by lawyers**, which the judges attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**.

7.6% of the male judges and 18.5% of the female judges observed **parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by lawyers**, which the judges attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**. Baruch Report, Table 26.

¹⁶3.1% of white male employees, 8.5% of white female employees, and 15.6% of minority employees observed **parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by judges or lawyers**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

2.3% of white male employees, 2.2% of white female employees, and 7.7% of minority employees observed **parties or witnesses subjected to derogatory comments about sexual orientation by judges or lawyers**. Baruch Report, Table 23.

2.4% of white male employees, 4.8% of female employees, and 12.5% of minority employees observed **parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by judges or lawyers**, which they attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**.

3.8% of white male employees, 6.7% of female employees, and 2.8% of minority employees observed **parties or witnesses subjected to derogatory racial or ethnic comments by judges or lawyers**.

3.8% of white male employees, 5.3% of female employees, and 10.3% of minority

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

majority of lawyers -- regardless of race, ethnicity, or gender -- reported that they had not observed biased conduct. Here, too, however, a significant group did report observing biased conduct. Lawyers also reported some biased conduct toward parties and witnesses by judges.¹⁷ On the other hand, lawyers, especially female and minority lawyers, reported biased conduct toward parties and witnesses by other lawyers to a greater degree,¹⁸ perhaps

employees observed parties or witnesses subjected to an imitation or parody of manner or speech by judges or lawyers, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias. Baruch Report, Table 27.

¹⁷4% of white male lawyers, 12.8% of white female lawyers, 26.3% of minority male lawyers, and 17% of minority female lawyers observed parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by judges, which they attributed to gender bias.

2.6% of white male lawyers, 2.1% of white female lawyers, 3.2% of minority lawyers, and 0% of minority female lawyers observed derogatory comments by judges about the gender of parties or witnesses. Baruch Report, Table 20.

2.6% of white male lawyers, 5.3% of white female lawyers, 20.7% of minority male lawyers, and 4.1% of minority female lawyers observed parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by judges, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias.

1.7% of white male lawyers, 2.1% of white female lawyers, 9.5% of minority male lawyers, and 0% of minority female lawyers observed racial or ethnic comments about parties or witnesses by judges.

1.4% of white male lawyers, 1.1% of white female lawyers, 8.5% of minority lawyers, and 0% of minority female lawyers observed parties or witnesses subjected to an imitation or parody of manner or speech by judges, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias. Baruch Report, Table 24.

¹⁸11% of white male lawyers, 25.3% of white female lawyers, 32.6% of minority male lawyers, and 49.1% of minority female lawyers observed parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by lawyers, which they attributed to gender bias.

16.5% of male lawyers, 18.9% of female lawyers, 25.5% of minority male lawyers,

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

due in part to the fact that lawyers reported in greater numbers that the biased conduct they observed occurred outside the courtroom.¹⁹

Apart from the reported occurrences of biased conduct, the most significant aspect of the data on treatment of parties and witnesses is the differences between the extent to which such conduct is reported by white males as compared to females and minority males, and by whites as compared to minorities. The percentages of judges and court employees who reported observing biased treatment of parties or witnesses based on gender was very low among males and much higher among females. Among male lawyers, the percentage of those who reported biased treatment based on gender was much lower for white male lawyers than was the percentage of minority male lawyers, who, on average, observed gender biased

and 11.3% of minority female lawyers observed **derogatory comments by lawyers about the gender of parties or witnesses**. Baruch Report, Table 21.

8.1% of white male lawyers, 13.8% of white female lawyers, 33% of minority male lawyers, and 35.8% of minority female lawyers observed **parties or witnesses helped or coached in a patronizing way by lawyers**, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias.

17.6% of white male lawyers, 12.6% of white female lawyers, 29.8% of minority male lawyers, and 17% of minority female lawyers observed **racial or ethnic comments about parties or witnesses by lawyers**.

17.3% of white male lawyers, 13.7% of white female lawyers, 34.7% of minority male lawyers, and 13.2% of minority female lawyers observed **parties or witnesses subjected to an imitation or parody of manner or speech by lawyers**, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias. Baruch Report, Table 25.

¹⁹Baruch Report, Table 14.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

treatment to the same extent as female lawyers.²⁰ Among court employees and lawyers who reported observing biased treatment of parties and witnesses based on race or ethnicity, the percentages were much higher for minorities than for whites.

2. Biased Conduct Directed at Lawyers

With respect to treatment of lawyers that reflects gender, racial, or ethnic bias, the Baruch Report presented data as to what lawyers reported they themselves have experienced and what judges, court employees (law clerks and courtroom deputy clerks), and other lawyers reported they have observed.

Here, too, a majority of lawyers -- regardless of gender, race, or ethnicity -- reported that they had not experienced biased conduct personally. However, in spite of this, a significant percentage of lawyers reported that they had experienced biased conduct based on gender, race, or ethnicity: Roughly half of the female lawyers reported experiencing biased conduct based on gender,²¹ and about one-third of the minority lawyers reported

²⁰The Baruch Report did not present data specifying the race or ethnicity of judges and court employees who reported observing gender-biased treatment.

²¹48.4% of white female lawyers and 45.3% of minority female lawyers reported that they had been ignored, interrupted, or not listened to, which they attributed to gender bias.

35.1% of white female lawyers and 34.6% of minority female lawyers reported that they had been helped or coached in a patronizing way, which they attributed to gender bias.

63.2% of white female lawyers and 62.3% of minority female lawyers reported that they had been mistaken for a non-lawyer.

39.4% of white female lawyers and 50.9% of minority female lawyers reported that

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

experiencing biased conduct based on race or ethnicity.²²

Although the percentages of judges²³ and court employees²⁴ observing biased

their competence had been challenged, which they attributed to gender bias. Baruch Report, Table 15.

^{29.8%}
²²~~29.2%~~ of minority male lawyers and 29.4% of minority female lawyers reported that they had experienced derogatory racial or ethnic remarks.

12.9% of minority male lawyers, and 1.9% of minority female lawyers reported that they had experienced an imitation or parody of manner or speech, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias.

16.8.% of minority male lawyers, and 15.7% of minority female lawyers reported that they were helped or coached in a patronizing way, which they attributed to racial or ethnic bias. Baruch Report, Table 16.

²³1.8% of male judges and 16.7% of female judges reported observing lawyers ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by other lawyers, which they attributed to gender bias.

0.9% of male judges and 8% of female judges reported observing lawyers helped or coached in a patronizing way by other lawyers, which they attributed to gender bias.

1.8% of male judges and 8.3% of female judges reported observing a female lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer by other lawyers. Baruch Report, Table 7.

0% of male judges and 4% of female judges reported observing derogatory racial or ethnic comments by lawyers about other lawyers.

2.7% of male judges and 4% of female judges reported observing a minority lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer by other lawyers. Baruch Report, Table 10.

²⁴5.5% of white male employees, 11.7% of white female employees, and 20.5% of minority employees reported observing lawyers ignored, interrupted, or not listened to by other lawyers, which they attributed to gender bias.

3.7% of white male employees, 4.2% of white female employees, and 7.1% of

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

conduct directed at lawyers were generally low, a substantial percentage of lawyers observed such biased conduct based on gender²⁵ and race.²⁶ Again, some of this difference is due

minority employees reported observing **sexually oriented remarks directed at lawyers by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.
Baruch Report, Table 8.

5% of white male employees, 5.6% of white female employees, and 9.3% of minority employees reported observing **derogatory racial or ethnic comments by lawyers about other lawyers**.

3% of white male employees, 5.6% of white female employees, and 16.7% of minority employees reported observing **an imitation or parody of the speech of lawyers by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**.

3.7% of white male employees, 5.1% of white female employees, and 19% of minority employees reported observing **a minority lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer by other lawyers**.

1.5% of white male employees, 2.2% of white female employees, and 23.8% of minority employees reported observing **the competence of a lawyer challenged by other lawyers**, which they attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**.
Baruch Report, Table 11.

²⁵54% of white male lawyers, 76.8% of white female lawyers, 78.9% of minority male lawyers, and 80% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of lawyers based on gender**. Most of the lawyers reported observing 2 or 3 incidents of such conduct. Baruch Report, Table 12.

7.5% of white male lawyers, 38.3% of white female lawyers, 36.3% of minority male lawyers, and 53.1% of minority female lawyers reported observing **lawyers ignored, interrupted, or not listened to**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

6.9% of white male lawyers, 33.7% of white female lawyers, 31.1% of minority male lawyers, and 31.1% of minority female lawyers reported observing **lawyers helped or coached in a patronizing way**, which they attributed to **gender bias**.

8.7% of white male lawyers, 47.4% of white female lawyers, 44.9% of minority male lawyers, and 28.6% of minority female lawyers reported observing **a female lawyer mistaken for a non-lawyer**.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

perhaps to the fact that biased conduct directed at lawyers was more frequently reported as occurring outside the courtroom.²⁷ Yet, according to the observations of lawyers, some biased conduct directed at other lawyers is also occurring in the courtrooms. A significant percentage of lawyers reported observing biased conduct based on gender, race, or ethnicity directed at other lawyers by judges²⁸ and court employees,²⁹ as well as by lawyers,³⁰

6.9% of white male lawyers, 27.4% of white female lawyers, 26.6% of minority male lawyers, and 56.1% of minority female lawyers reported observing that the **competence of a lawyer** had been **challenged**, which they attributed to **gender bias**. Baruch Report, Table 6.

²⁶40.8% of white male lawyers, 58.9% of white female lawyers, 77.9% of minority male lawyers, and 84.9% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of other lawyers based on race or ethnicity**. Most of the lawyers reported observing 2 or 3 incidents of such conduct. Baruch Report, Table 13.

11.8% of white male lawyers, 21.3% of white female lawyers, 39.1% of minority male lawyers, and 38.5% of minority female lawyers reported observing that **lawyers had been subjected to derogatory racial or ethnic remarks**.

13.2% of white male lawyers, 22.3% of white female lawyers, 44.9% of minority male lawyers, and 17.6% of minority female lawyers reported that they had observed an **imitation or parody of manner or speech of a lawyer**, which they attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**.

1.4% of white male lawyers, 4.3% of white female lawyers, 43.4% of minority male lawyers, and 27.7% of minority female lawyers reported that they had observed **lawyers helped or coached in a patronizing way**, which they attributed to **racial or ethnic bias**. Baruch Report, Table 9.

²⁷Baruch Report, Table 14.

²⁸10.4% of white male lawyers, 35.8% of white female lawyers, 30.5% of minority male lawyers and 47.2% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of other lawyers based on gender by judges**. Baruch Report, Table 12.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

although those reporting such observations generally stated that they had observed only 2 or 3 such incidents during the past five years. Again, the proportions of those reporting that they observed biased conduct directed at lawyers, whether by judges, court employees, or other lawyers, was much higher among women and minority men than among white men, and much higher among minorities than among whites.³¹

3. Judges' View of a Duty to Intervene Concerning Biased Conduct

Before concluding our discussion of occurrences of biased conduct, whether directed at parties, witnesses, or lawyers, we note that almost all judges expressed the view that a

7.2% of white male lawyers, 12.6% of white female lawyers, 40% of minority male lawyers, and 41.5% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of other lawyers based on race or ethnicity by judges**. Baruch Report, Table 13.

²⁹9% of white male lawyers, 22.1% of white female lawyers, 21.1% of minority male lawyers, and 22.6% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of other lawyers based on gender by court employees**. Baruch Report, Table 12.

10.4% of white male lawyers, 25.3% of white female lawyers, 28.4% of minority male lawyers, and 18.9% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of other lawyers based on race or ethnicity by court employees**. Baruch Report, Table 13.

³⁰46.8% of white male lawyers, 66.3% of white female lawyers, 61.1% of minority male lawyers, and 77.4% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of lawyers based on gender by other lawyers**. Baruch Report, Table 12.

27.5% of white male lawyers, 48.4% of white female lawyers, 53.7% of minority male lawyers, and 60.4% of minority female lawyers reported observing **biased treatment of lawyers based on race or ethnicity by other lawyers**. Baruch Report, Table 13.

³¹See footnotes 21-28, supra.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

judge should intervene when biased conduct occurred in the courtroom, with some indicating they would do so only when the conduct might affect the outcome, and a few limiting intervention to the most egregious circumstances.³²

B. Opinions or Beliefs About Biased Treatment of Lawyers

In addition to eliciting responses concerning both experienced and observed occurrences of biased treatment of lawyers, the Baruch Report elicited opinion responses concerning opinions or beliefs of the extent to which gender or race affects the treatment of lawyers. These opinion responses were elicited from both judges and lawyers.

1. Opinions and Beliefs About Judges Concerning Treatment of Lawyers

Most judges expressed the view that all lawyers are treated very fairly, though the percentage expressing this view dropped somewhat when the judges were asked to say whether female and minority lawyers were treated very fairly.³³ Moreover, within the

³²73% of judges expressed the view that **judges should always intervene when biased conduct occurred toward parties or witnesses**, 18% said yes, whenever the conduct affects the outcome of the case, 8% said yes, but only in the most egregious circumstances, and 1 judge said no. Baruch Report, Table 28.

76% of judges expressed the view that **judges should always intervene when biased conduct occurred toward lawyers**, 13% said yes, whenever the conduct affects the outcome of the case, 8% said yes, but only in the most egregious circumstances, and 1 judge said no. Baruch Report, Table 17.

³³96.6% of male judges and 96% of female judges expressed the view that **white male lawyers were treated very fairly**.

88.9% of male judges and 72% of female judges expressed the view that **white female lawyers were treated very fairly**.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

slightly reduced percentages of all judges reporting that female and minority lawyers were treated very fairly, the percentages were lower among female judges than among male judges.³⁴

Few judges believe that lawyers are ever disadvantaged based on their race or sex in court proceedings specifically, but the percentages expressing this view increased somewhat when the judges were asked about female and minority lawyers.³⁵ A higher percentage of female judges than male judges expressed the view that white female lawyers and minority female lawyers are disadvantaged in court proceedings.³⁶

88.8% of male judges and 80% of female judges expressed the view that **minority male lawyers were treated very fairly.**

87.9% of male judges and 75% of female judges expressed the view that **minority female lawyers were treated very fairly.** Baruch Report, Table 2.

³⁴See footnote 31, supra.

³⁵2.6% of male judges and 0% of female judges expressed the view that **white male lawyers were disadvantaged** in court proceedings.

5.3% of male judges and 18.5% of female judges expressed the view that **white female lawyers were disadvantaged** in court proceedings.

7% of male judges and 3.7% of female judges expressed the view that **minority male lawyers were disadvantaged** in court proceedings.

6.1% of male judges and 15.4% of female judges expressed the view that **minority female lawyers were disadvantaged** in court proceedings. Baruch Report, Table 3.

³⁶See footnote 35, supra.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

2. Opinions and Beliefs of Lawyers Concerning Treatment of Lawyers

Opinion responses of lawyers' perceptions as to whether they thought that other lawyers were advantaged or disadvantaged based on gender or race varied significantly depending on both the lawyers' type of practice (public or private) and their own gender, race, or ethnicity. Most lawyers responding -- regardless of their gender, race, or ethnicity -- reported that they felt that lawyers were neither advantaged nor disadvantaged because of gender, race, or ethnicity. Nevertheless, a significant group reported that they believed that such advantages and disadvantages existed. Most government lawyers expressed the view that white male lawyers were very advantaged, but fewer lawyers in private practice expressed this view.³⁷ Similarly, many government lawyers, but fewer lawyers in private practice, expressed the view that white female lawyers were very advantaged.³⁸ And though many government lawyers expressed the view that minority male and minority female lawyers were very advantaged, no lawyers in private practice thought so.³⁹

³⁷Among government lawyers, 46% of white male lawyers, 51% of white female lawyers, and 60% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **white male lawyers** were very advantaged; among private lawyers, 4% of white male lawyers, 30% of white female lawyers, and 57% of minority lawyers expressed this view. Baruch Report, Table 1.

³⁸Among government lawyers, 40% of white male lawyers, 31% of white female lawyers, and 24% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **white female lawyers** were very advantaged; among private lawyers, 1% of white male lawyers, 0% of white female lawyers, and 22% of minority lawyers expressed this view. Baruch Report, Table 1.

³⁹Among government lawyers, 43% of white male lawyers, 40% of white female lawyers, and 19% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority male lawyers** were very advantaged; among private lawyers, none expressed this view.

Among government lawyers, 38% of white male lawyers, 33% of white female

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Some lawyers expressed the view that white female lawyers, minority male lawyers, and minority female lawyers were somewhat disadvantaged, with the percentages somewhat higher for lawyers in private practice than for government lawyers.⁴⁰ However, nearly half of white female lawyers in private practice thought that white female lawyers were somewhat disadvantaged, and more than half of minority lawyers in private practice thought that minority male and minority female lawyers were somewhat or very disadvantaged.⁴¹

Significant numbers of lawyers reported that selected subgroups of fellow attorneys are "ever disadvantaged" in court proceedings because of their race or gender. This was

lawyers, and 15% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority female lawyers** were **very advantaged**; among private lawyers, none expressed this view. Baruch Report, Table 1.

⁴⁰Among government lawyers, 7% of white male lawyers, 19% of white female lawyers, and 28% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **white female lawyers** were **somewhat disadvantaged**; among lawyers in private practice, 10% of white male lawyers, 49% of white female lawyers, and 15% of minority lawyers expressed this view.

Among government lawyers, 6% of white male lawyers, 18% of white female lawyers, and 40% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority male lawyers** were **somewhat disadvantaged**; among private lawyers, 21% of white male lawyers and 26% of minority female lawyers expressed this view, and 71% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority male lawyers** were either **somewhat or very disadvantaged**.

Among government lawyers, 9% of white male lawyers, 25% of white female lawyers, and 35% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority female lawyers** were **somewhat disadvantaged**; among private lawyers, 24% of white male lawyers and 43% of white female lawyers expressed this view, and 72% of minority lawyers expressed the view that **minority female lawyers** were either **somewhat or very disadvantaged**. Baruch Report, Table 1.

⁴¹See footnote 42 supra.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

particularly the case among white female lawyers and minority male and female lawyers reporting. More than half of the white female and minority female lawyers thought white female attorneys are "ever disadvantaged," and between one-third and half of the minority male lawyers thought that there is a disadvantage in court proceedings associated with being a woman or minority attorney.⁴²

Those expressing the view that various groups of lawyers were disadvantaged in court proceedings were asked to identify whether they thought the source of the disadvantage was the judge's attitude, the jury's attitude, or the type of case. Most white lawyers expressed the view that the source of disadvantage for white male lawyers and white female lawyers, where it existed, was the jury's attitude -- a view not widely shared by minority lawyers.⁴³

⁴²Among white male private lawyers, 12.3% believed there was **ever a disadvantage in proceedings** if the lawyer was a white male, 16.8% if the lawyer was a white female, 21.7% if the lawyer was a minority.

Among white female private lawyers, 11.0% believed there was **ever a disadvantage in proceedings** if the lawyer was a white male, 52.3% if the lawyer was a white female, 33.9% if the lawyer was a minority male and 44.8% if the lawyer was a minority female.

Among minority male lawyers, 15.8% believed that it was **ever a disadvantage in proceedings** to be a white male lawyer, 33.3% if the lawyer was a white female, 45.9% if the lawyer was a minority male and 47.5% if the lawyer was a minority female.

Among minority female lawyers, 12.5% believed it was **ever a disadvantage in proceedings** to be a white male lawyer, 61.0% if the lawyer was a white female, 53.3% if the lawyer is a minority male and 51.3% if the lawyer was a minority female. Baruch Report, Table 4.

⁴³62.5% of government lawyers, 62.9% of private lawyers, and 26.6% of minority lawyers expressed the view that the **source of disadvantage for white male lawyers** was the jury's attitude.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

However, most lawyers, regardless of race, expressed the view that the source of disadvantage for minority male and female lawyers was the judge's attitude.⁴⁴

Lawyers were also asked whether the race or gender of a client had ever caused a lawyer to select a state court over a federal court. Nearly all lawyers (97%) said they never selected a state court over a federal court out of a concern that the gender of a client would compromise the fairness of a proceeding, and 98% said they have not selected a state court over a federal court because of their client's race.⁴⁵

Conclusions:

From the data discussed in Chapter Four, we reach the following conclusions:

- a. Some biased conduct toward parties and witnesses based on gender or race or ethnicity has occurred on the part of both judges and lawyers.
- b. Biased conduct toward lawyers, based on gender or race or ethnicity, has occurred to a greater degree.
- c. Most judges believe they have a duty to intervene when biased conduct occurs in

49.7% of government lawyers, 49.5% of private lawyers, and 38.3% of minority lawyers expressed the view that the **source of disadvantage for white female lawyers** was the **jury's attitude**. Baruch Report, Table 5.

⁴⁴59.2% of government lawyers, 56.4% of private lawyers, and 80.9% of minority lawyers expressed the view that the **source of disadvantage for minority male lawyers** was the **judge's attitude**.

68.7% of government lawyers, 65.1% of private lawyers, and 76.5% of minority lawyers expressed the view that the **source of disadvantage for minority female lawyers** was the **judge's attitude**. Baruch Report, Table 5.

⁴⁵See Baruch Report, p. 41.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

the courtroom, whether directed at a lawyer, party, or witness.

d. Biased conduct toward parties, witnesses, or lawyers based on gender or race or ethnicity is unacceptable, and all participants in Second Circuit courts -- judges, court employees, and lawyers -- must guard against such conduct.

e. Where biased conduct is reported to have been experienced or observed, whether to a major or a minor degree, some uncertainty will inevitably exist as to whether those experiencing or observing the conduct are misperceiving innocent conduct or whether others who fail to observe biased conduct are insensitive to it. Despite these uncertainties, it is significant that far more women than men, particularly white men, report observing biased conduct based on gender, and that far more minorities than whites report observing biased conduct based on race or ethnicity.

f. The perceptions of advantage and disadvantage as between male and female lawyers and as between white and minority lawyers vary widely depending on the race, and to a lesser extent, the gender of those expressing a view.

g. Most lawyers, regardless of gender or race or ethnicity, share the opinion that to whatever extent female and minority lawyers are disadvantaged, the source of that disadvantage is the judge's attitude. The prevalence of the view that the judge's attitude is a source of disadvantage should be a matter of concern to all judges.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter Five

The Court As Appointer

In addition to adjudicating cases, judges are also engaged in court administration. Among their administrative duties, judges have responsibility for appointing bankruptcy judges, magistrate judges, quasi-judicial officers such as mediators and trustees, Criminal Justice Act lawyers, members of certain bench-bar committees, and their own judicial law clerks. Judges also decide whom to invite to the Second Circuit Judicial Conference. A selection process that considers the broadest spectrum of candidates for these positions both has the appearance of being fair and is most likely to generate a diverse body of appointees. The opportunity for such appointments should be equitably distributed among qualified candidates, and judges should bear in mind that a judge-made appointment is a particular mark of professional prestige for the appointee.

A. The Appointment of Bankruptcy Judges

Bankruptcy judges are selected pursuant to the procedures set forth in 28 U.S.C. § 152, as well as in United States Judicial Conference and Administrative Office Guidelines. The selection procedure requires that notice of a bankruptcy court vacancy be published in a general local newspaper and, if possible, in a local bar publication for at least one day. A screening panel then reviews the qualifications of applicants and recommends several qualified applicants to the Court of Appeals for consideration. Finally, the judges of the Court of Appeals appoint a bankruptcy judge from the recommended candidates.

The Bankruptcy Amendments to the Federal Judgeship Act of 1984 state that, to be

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

considered for a bankruptcy judge appointment, a candidate must be qualified by character, experience, ability, and impartiality to be a member of the federal judiciary. The United States Judicial Conference regulations specify the way in which those criteria may be satisfied. Candidates must be members of the bar in good standing, have practiced law for five years, or, in lieu thereof, have some other combination of five years of experience, including a clerkship for up to two years, a state judgeship, service as a federal judicial officer, service as a government lawyer, or other "suitable" experience. An Administrative Office directive mandates that the Court of Appeals make affirmative efforts "to identify qualified women, as well as minority individuals."⁴⁶

From the pool of applicants meeting the qualifying criteria, merit selection panels select several candidates (typically between 5 and 7) to refer to the judges of the Court of Appeals for consideration. These merit panelists typically are drawn from the bar, from the academic world, and from among the federal judiciary itself. They are appointed by the Chief Circuit Judge upon the recommendation of the Chief District Judge for the pertinent district.

In the following chart, the Committees attempted to see what, if any, statistical relationship existed during the years 1991-96 between the composition of the bankruptcy merit selection panels and the number of women and minorities ultimately recommended for consideration and chosen for appointment.

⁴⁶Administrative Office of the Courts, The Selection and Appointment of United States Bankruptcy Judges 12 (March 1994).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE K: Bankruptcy Judges Merit Selection Panels, 1991-1996

Judge Selected	Panel Composition	No. of Applicants	No. Referred to Court
White male - 1991	4 white males 1 white fem.	74 (6 white male 4 white females interviewed)	4 white males 1 white female
White male - 1991	4 white male 1 white female	38 (none interv'd)	4 white males 1 white female
White male - 1992	4 white males 1 white female (chair)	38 (6 interv'd, race & gender unknown)	5 white males 0 females
White female - 1993	1 minority (chair), 3 white males 2 white females	42 (19 interv'd, race & gender unknown)	1 minority, 3 white males 2 white females
White male - 1993	5 white males 2 white females	> 50 (1 minority, 9 white males 6 white females interv'd)	1 minority, 4 white males 2 white females
White male - 1993	4 white males 1 white female	No. of applicants unknown; 3 white males 2 white females interv'd)	3 white males 2 white females
White male - 1993 White male - 1993*	3 white males 2 white females	43 (2 minority, 8 white males 1 white female interv'd)	6 white males 0 females
White male - 1995	1 minority, 6 white males 1 minority, 3 white females	64 (12 interv'd, race & gender unknown)	2 white males 3 white females
White male - 1995	5 white males 1 minority, 2 white females	70 (3 minority, 44 white males 14 white females interv'd)	4 white males 1 white female
Minority male - 1995	1 minority, 3 white males 1 white female	57 (1 minority, 6 white males 3 white females interv'd)	1 minority, 4 white males 0 females
White male - 1996 Minority female -1996**	3 white males 1 minority, 1 white female	81 (23 interv'd, race & gender unknown)	5 white males 1 minority, 1 white female

* Two judgeships were handled by a single committee.

** The same merit selection panel was responsible for two vacancies.

According to these figures, the merit selection panels made 61 recommendations: 47 men and 14 women; 57 whites and 4 minorities.⁴⁷ The Court of Appeals ultimately selected 14.3% of the women referred, 22.7% of the white men referred, and 50% of the minority candidates referred. As the chart below indicates, 21% of the bankruptcy judges in the

⁴⁷Because 2 vacancies occurred at about the same time, the last 2 bankruptcy judges were selected by the court of appeals from the same list of 7 candidates.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

circuit are now women and 13% are minorities. There are 4 districts that have no women or minority bankruptcy judges.

TABLE L: Bankruptcy Judges

	NDNY	WDNY	SDNY	EDNY	VT	CONN	TOTAL
JUDGES	2	3	9	6	1	3	24
WOMEN JUDGES	0	0	2	3	0	0	5
% OF WOMEN JUDGES	0	0	22	50	0	0	21%
MINORITY JUDGES	0	0	2	1	0	0	3
% OF MINORITY JUDGES	0	0	11	17	0	0	13%

Note: figures do not include bankruptcy judges recalled to duty.

The percentage of minority bankruptcy judges exceeds the percentage of minority lawyers in the circuit (7.5%), whereas the percentage of women bankruptcy judges is less than the percentage of women lawyers in the circuit (27%). However, only 15-16% of all bankruptcy practitioners are estimated to be women.⁴⁸

B. The Appointment of Magistrate Judges

Although not subject to Article III's life tenure provision,⁴⁹ magistrate judges play a central role in federal litigation. They are authorized to determine non-dispositive pre-trial matters such as discovery disputes and certain motions, and, with the parties' consent, they step into the role of district judges, deciding dispositive motions and trying cases. Where the

⁴⁸Karen Gross, Some Preliminary Findings on Women in Bankruptcy Law Practice, in The Impact of Race and Gender in Bankruptcy Law Practice: A Time for Reflection, National Conference of Bankruptcy Judges at 8-5, 8-10 (1993).

⁴⁹See 28 U.S.C. §§ 631-639.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

parties do not consent to magistrate judge disposition, magistrate judges issue recommended rulings which, after consideration of the parties' objections, may be adopted by the district judge.

To be eligible for the position of magistrate judge, a candidate must be competent and have at least five years' experience practicing law. The United States Judicial Conference has further specified the competence requirement and promulgated procedural guidelines for selection. These guidelines provide, among other things, for magistrate judges to be appointed by a majority of the district court judges in the magistrate judge's district.

When any opening for a new magistrate judge position arises, Judicial Conference regulations require that a public notice be published in the general press and, where possible, in local legal publications. Despite these regulations, 2 of the 6 districts in the Second Circuit advertise only in a single legal publication and rarely, if ever, in the general press. Two other districts advertise only in the general press and not in legal publications. Only 1 district makes any formal effort to notify separately women and minority bar associations of magistrate judge vacancies, and in another, an informal notification is made to minority bar associations.⁵⁰

Throughout the circuit, applicants for new positions complete a questionnaire which is then submitted to the district's merit selection panel, whose members are appointed either by all the judges of the district or by a committee of judges. The panels may, but are not

⁵⁰In this district, there is no formal policy of notification specifically to minority bar groups; it occurs at the initiative of the court employee in charge of placing the notices.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

required to, interview applicants before forwarding the names of 5 finalists to the district court. The panels operate under a guideline from both the Judicial Conference and the Administrative Office to encourage and consider applications of qualified women and minorities.⁵¹

When the district court receives the panel's recommendations, the candidates are interviewed by a committee of judges, or, in smaller districts, by all of the judges. When a committee does the interviewing, it has some control over the selection because it recommends a single candidate to the full Board of Judges, and will forward other names only if the Board is dissatisfied with the first choice.

As noted earlier, 30% (or 12 of 40) of Second Circuit magistrate judges selected through this process are women, and 8% are minorities. As the chart below indicates, however, the representation of women on the magistrate judge bench is not even throughout the circuit.

TABLE M: Magistrate Judges

	NDNY	WDNY	SDNY	EDNY	VT	CONN	TOTAL
JUDGES	5	5	12	12	1	5	40
WOMEN JUDGES	0	1 (20%)	3 (25%)	5 (42%)	0	3 (60%)	12 (30%)
MINORITY JUDGES	0	1 (20%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	0	0	3 (8%)

Note: figures do not include part-time magistrate judges.

⁵¹Judicial Conference Regs., §3.03(d); The Selection and Appointment of United States Magistrate Judges, *supra* at 13-14.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

The Task Force believes that diversity benefits would be enhanced by a greater number of minorities serving as magistrate judges.

The Committee Report has raised several issues which we believe merit particular attention.

First, the Task Force agrees that notice of new openings should be widely publicized to ensure that the broadest spectrum of qualified persons will become aware of magistrate judge openings.⁵² Second, the Task Force also agrees with the conclusion that appointments to magistrate judge merit selection panels (appointments which, as noted, are made by district court judges) should be made, to the greatest extent practicable, with a view toward reflecting the diversity of the legal community.⁵³ The presence of women and minorities on such panels may result in more women and minorities applying for magistrate judge positions and will give added perspective to panel decision-making. Moreover, membership on appointment panels is a mark of professional prestige which should be equitably distributed.

⁵²The Committee Report states: "The two districts that limit their notice to the legal press have actually been among the most successful, at least in terms of appointing women. On the other hand, a district that has no women and no minority magistrates is one that does not advertise in the legal press and in other regards gives rather narrow publicity to vacancies. On the whole, it seems preferable to err on the side of the widest possible notice, to advertise vacancies in the press for more than one day, and to institutionalize the practice of sending press releases on vacancies to both special and general bar associations."

⁵³Because the racial, ethnic, and gender makeup of merit selection panels is generally not recorded by the district courts, the Task Force was unable to assess the degree to which women and minorities are represented. However, in the District of Connecticut, which is the only district to maintain information on the composition of merit selection panels, the percentage of women serving as merit selection panelists ranged from 11 to 33%, and of minorities, from zero to 42%.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

And finally, diversity on merit selection panels lends the appearance of fairness to the selection process.

C. The Appointment of Quasi-Judicial Officers

Circuit, district, bankruptcy, and magistrate judges are empowered to appoint lawyers to function in a quasi-judicial capacity to facilitate the management of litigation. These include special masters, receivers, monitors, and mediators. Although these appointments are prestigious and can involve substantial remuneration, there is no established procedure by which candidates are notified and selected, and no records are kept of their selection. Appointment decisions appear to be made by individual judges largely on an ad hoc basis.

To study these appointments, the Committees surveyed the circuit's judges as to such quasi-judicial appointments made during the last five years, including the race, ethnicity, and gender of each appointee. Based upon the responses, the following chart was prepared.⁵⁴

⁵⁴In its Chapter on Bankruptcy, the Committee Report considers in greater detail the diversity of appointments made to particular quasi-judicial positions relevant to the bankruptcy process, including Chapter 11 trustees, Chapter 7 trustees, and bankruptcy mediators. We note that some of these positions, such as that of Chapter 7 trustee, are filled by appointment made by the Office of the United States Trustee, rather than by a federal court.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE N: Quasi-Judicial Appointments

Type of Appointment	Total	Minority Men	Minority Women	White Men	White Women
Special Master	45	1 (2%)	2 (4%)	34 (75%)	8 (18%)
Monitor	3	1 (33%)	0	2 (66%)	0
Mediator	57	0	0	45 (79%)	12 (21%)
Trustee	3	0	0	3 (100%)	0
Examiner in Bankruptcy	5	0	0	5 (100%)	0
Receiver	18	1 (6%)	0	15 (83%)	2 (11%)
Other	12	0	0	11 (92%)	1 (8%)
TOTAL	143	3 (2%)	2 (1%)	115 (80%)	23 (16%)

The Committees reported that these appointments are made in a variety of ways.

Several judges indicated that they select quasi-judicial officers from a roster of names submitted by the parties. By this method, the parties' preferences would determine whether women and minorities are considered. Other judges indicated that, in generating candidates for appointment to such positions, they relied on their own contacts, including, for example, former colleagues at private law firms and former judicial clerks. Using this approach, both the diversity of law firms and among former law clerks would affect the diversity of the pool of candidates. And finally, several judges indicated that, in selecting quasi-judicial officers, they relied on a formal application process.

Data is not available from which to determine whether the foregoing methods for selecting quasi-judicial officers result in appointments that approach the number of women and minorities qualified to hold such positions. However, the percentages of women and minorities appointed to such positions are generally lower than those of women and minorities appointed as judges.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

The foregoing percentages of quasi-judicial appointments invite comparison with those of civil pro bono counsel. The latter positions are generally unremunerated and thus tend to be unpopular among the private bar.⁵⁵ They are also usually filled pursuant to a more formal application procedure, such as that used to select magistrate judges. As to pro bono appointments, the judges' responses to the Baruch questionnaire reported that 16.7% of these appointments went to minority lawyers and 25% to women. This comparison tends to suggest that when a formal application procedure is established and adhered to, qualified women and minority candidates are more likely to come to the attention of the appointing judge.

D. The Criminal Justice Act Panels

Judges also appoint lawyers to represent indigent criminal defendants under the Criminal Justice Act ("CJA") in cases where the local federal defenders or legal services offices cannot do so and in cases brought in districts without other public criminal defense services.⁵⁶ These lawyers are appointed from the ranks of a CJA panel maintained by each district.

Although records are not kept of the race, ethnicity, or gender of CJA lawyers, the Committees were able to determine the gender composition of the various CJA panels with

⁵⁵In several districts, the Committees were told that the judges had considerable difficulty finding private attorneys to take on pro bono representation of pro se litigants with non-frivolous cases.

⁵⁶The Court of Appeals is also responsible for appointing the public defender in Connecticut and the Western District of New York; the public defender is then responsible for hiring his or her staff of attorneys.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

substantial accuracy by relying on lawyers' names. From this data, the following chart was prepared, which shows the total numbers of CJA panelists in each district, the number and percentage who are women, and the percentage of criminal cases actually assigned to women panelists.

TABLE O: Lawyers on CJA Panels

Judicial District	Total CJA Panel Size	Number & Percent of Women On Panel	Percent of Cases Assigned to Women
Northern District of New York	664	119 (17.92%)	9.4%
Eastern District of New York ⁵⁷	170	18 (10.58%)	9.2%
Southern District of New York ⁵⁸	181	20 (11.04%)	less than 8.0%
Western District of New York	131	13 (9.92%)	13.5%
District of Vermont	2,580	533 (20.66%)	Unknown
District of Connecticut	126	8 (6.34%)	less than 6.0%

Note: Data for 1995 on CJA Panels

As the chart demonstrates, there is a greater percentage of women CJA panelists in Vermont and in the Northern District of New York than elsewhere. The Committee Report suggests that the relatively open application processes used in these districts may explain the greater figure. For example, in the Northern District, any lawyer who wishes to be a member of the CJA panel need only complete an application setting forth the lawyer's relevant qualifications. Similarly, in Vermont, all new admittees to the federal bar are invited to apply to serve, and all applicants are added to the panel upon demonstrating an

⁵⁷These figures combine the panels for New York City and Long Island.

⁵⁸These figures combine two panels maintained by the White Plains and the Foley Square courthouses.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

adequate familiarity with the federal rules of evidence and criminal procedure. Other districts, according to the Committee Report, rely exclusively on merit selection panels to screen applicants or add new names after review by individual judges.

The above chart also demonstrates that there is no identifiable correlation between the percentage of women on a particular panel, and the percentage of women actually appointed from the panel to handle criminal cases. The Committee Report concludes that the percentage of CJA cases assigned to women is low when compared to the 27% of women lawyers in the circuit. The Committee Report also suggests that the figures are low considering the percentages of women involved in criminal law in other capacities, noting that 38% of Assistant United States Attorneys are female and about half of the federal defenders in the Southern and Eastern Districts of New York are women.⁵⁹ Although the Committee Report did not explore in detail the process by which CJA panelists are assigned to particular cases, some evidence presented to the Committees indicates that selection from the list of panelists is sometimes made on an ad hoc basis.

Some have suggested that a lack of familiarity with federal, as opposed to state, criminal law may explain the low numbers of women and minorities on CJA panels. To the extent this supposition is accurate, membership on CJA panels presents a chicken-and-egg problem: federal experience necessary to qualify for CJA membership may only be obtained by practicing in federal courts, which in turn results from appointment to a CJA panel. The

⁵⁹The Committee Report did not determine the overall percentage of women attorneys in the circuit with criminal law experience.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Task Force recommends that, to alleviate this situation, CJA panelists be encouraged to allow qualified women and minority attorneys to assist them in criminal proceedings.

The Committee Report suggests, and the Task Force agrees, that diversity among CJA panels could be better achieved if CJA opportunities were more widely publicized throughout each district. Such publicity could attract a more diverse group of lawyers willing to serve on CJA panels. Moreover, the Task Force also agrees that the method by which CJA panelists are assigned cases merits further examination to assess whether women and minority panelists are assigned cases to the same degree as are white men. Finally, consideration should be given to formalizing methods of assigning CJA lawyers to ensure that opportunities for assignment are equitably distributed.

E. The Appointment of Judicial Law Clerks

Federal judicial clerkships are among the most desirable and coveted positions in the legal profession. For the recent law school graduate, a clerkship for a judge of the Second Circuit is at once a valuable learning experience, a badge of merit and prestige, and a ticket to the start of a successful career in the law. Law clerk positions are highly competitive: a judge typically receives over 300 applications for one, two, or three positions. Many applicants have excellent credentials. They attend the best law schools in the nation and, increasingly, may have already practiced law for a few years before seeking a clerkship. The Task Force wanted to determine whether the clerkship opportunities in the circuit were equitably distributed among women and minorities, whether law clerks believed there were any differences in the interviewing process when the applicant was a woman or minority, and

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

what criteria judges used in hiring clerks. Questions probing these matters were included in the Baruch questionnaire.

Over the past five years, 47.1% of law clerks were women and 11.7% were minorities.⁶⁰ The percentage of female law clerks for each court in the circuit over this period ranged from 56% in the District of Vermont to 41% in both the District of Connecticut and the Western District of New York.⁶¹ In the Court of Appeals, 23% of the judges hired between zero and 24% female clerks, 9% of the judges hired between 50 and 74% female clerks, and the remaining 68% of the judges hired between 25 and 49% female clerks.

The data on the percentage of minority law clerks hired was too incomplete to allow definitive conclusions. However, some observations about the distribution of minority law clerks may be made consistent with the survey data presented in Table P. In at least one of the five years surveyed, minority law clerks were employed in the Court of Appeals and in each of the districts in the Second Circuit, although minority clerks were employed in all of the surveyed years only in the Court of Appeals, the Eastern District of New York, and the Southern District of New York. In the Court of Appeals, African-American clerks were twice as likely to be a pro se clerk as a clerk for a particular judge, while Asian-Americans and Hispanics were more likely to be in chambers than in the pro se office. In the Eastern District, the majority of minority clerks worked for Article III judges. The Southern District

⁶⁰Data based on responses from 150 of the 173 judges surveyed.

⁶¹Data gathered from Second Circuit Directories from 1992-1996.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

has employed minorities as clerks to Article III judges, bankruptcy court judges, magistrate judges, and in the pro se office.

TABLE P: Breakdown of Judicial Clerkships with Percentages of Total Clerkships

RACE/ETHNICITY	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
Black	7	25	32
Hispanic/Latino	6	10	16
Asian/Pacific Islander	19	28	47
American Indian	1	0	1
All Minorities	33	63	96 (11.7%)
White	400	322	722
All Clerkships	433	385 (47.1%)	818

The Committee Report indicates that the foregoing percentages may be compared with the increasingly large percentage of 1996 law school graduates who are women (43.5%) and minorities (17.9%). These statistics, however, do not address the composition of the potentially qualified pool based on the criteria generally used by judges, like graduation from the highest rated law schools at or near the top of their law school class with legal writing experience, preferably on a law review. The Task Force, therefore, is unable to reach final conclusions as to the fairness and representativeness of women and minorities in clerkships.

There are no data that allow meaningful comparison of the gender, race, and ethnic

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

groups of successful applicants for clerkship positions with those of all applicants. Although the courts' Equal Opportunity Coordinators are required to report data regarding the gender, race, and ethnicity of persons interviewed for law clerk position to the Administrative Office pursuant to the Judiciary Equal Employment Program, records on applicants who were not interviewed are not maintained.

The law clerk survey asked about the interviewing process used by the judge for whom the respondent was clerking. Of the 250 law clerks who responded, very few indicated that they "knew" of gender or racial bias in the clerk selection process. For example, only 9 respondents (3.6%) reported that there were differences "in the processes that your judge uses" for female and male applicants, and 8 respondents (3.2%) reported differences for minority and white applicants. When asked if they thought that their judges had "expressed directly or indirectly a preference for law clerk applicants of one gender," 10 (4.0%) thought that their judge preferred male applicants, 7 (2.8%) thought that their judges had indicated a preference for female applicants, and 219 (87.6%) perceived no preference. Similarly, 228 respondents (91.2%) thought that their judges had not directly or indirectly expressed any preference for law clerk applicants of one race, 7 respondents (2.8%) perceived a preference for white applicants, 3 (1.2%) said their judges preferred black applicants, and 8 (3.2%) replied "other."

Asked about their own experiences interviewing for clerkship positions, most law clerks responded that they had not experienced gender or racial bias by the circuit's judges. Questioning suggesting gender bias by a judge was encountered more than once by 4

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

respondents (1.6%), and once by 6 (2.4%); the rest who responded to the question said that it never occurred (57.6%) or; the question did not apply to them (28.4%). Some clerks had declined to interview for a position because the judge had an anti-female reputation (13 respondents or 5.2%), an anti-minority reputation (5 respondents or 2.0%), or a reputation for sexual harassment (9 respondents or 3.6%). The data do not disclose how many judges were thought to have a reputation for one or more of these negative characteristics. Only one clerk reported having requested a transfer or reassignment to a different judge because of an inappropriate attitude toward females, and another requested a transfer due to a judge's attitude about racial or ethnic groups.

The judges were asked to rate their criteria for selecting law clerks. Most judges stressed that their law clerks must excel at legal research, analysis, and writing (including fluency in the techniques of citechecking), be adept at working in a fast-paced office with little training, and be compatible with the judge, secretary, courtroom deputy, and other chambers staff.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

TABLE Q: Law Clerk Selection Criteria

Criterion	Mean Rank
Grades	1.8
Law Review	3.0
Law School Attended	3.0
Recommendations	3.3
Gender Diversity	4.6
Racial/Ethnic Diversity	4.8
Other Journals	4.9

The Task Force urges the courts to pursue methods that will help identify clerkship candidates who will satisfy a judge's stringent requirements and also achieve a diverse population of clerks. Judges should make certain that their selection criteria do not unfairly restrict the pool from which they select clerks. Judges should also make law school deans and professors aware of their interest in students who would add diversity to the applicant pool, ask their current clerks to assist them in recruiting a diverse pool of qualified applicants from their schools, and remind any person who screens applicants for them that diversity is an important value.

The applicant pool from which judges select their clerks may also be limited by the applicant's perception that his or her gender or race is a negative factor for certain judges. The courts can address this problem by creating programs to bring women and minority

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

students into the courthouse early in their law school careers as unpaid interns. In some states, law schools and bar associations have cooperated to develop minority internship programs to further that goal. The Task Force recommends that the courts encourage such programs.

In addition, with the cooperation of law schools, judges can provide information specifically directed to minority and female students. In 1996, one judge in the circuit helped organize a forum on judicial clerkships for minority law students in the New York area at which the 150 students in attendance were able to speak informally with twelve federal court judges and more than twenty current and former law clerks. The forum advised students on the clerkship application process, the importance of academic performance and writing skills, and the value of a clerkship. The Task Force recommends continuing and expanding the number of such events.

F. Appointments to Bench-Bar Committees

Judges also decide whom to appoint to bench-bar committees. Such committees include the Rules Committee, the Committee on Admissions and Grievances, and the History Committee. Although the Committees did not investigate the specifics of the selection process for these bench-bar committees, they reported that, at least among the bench-bar committees surveyed, the number of women panelists -- drawn largely from the bar and academia -- has increased slightly in recent years. The Committees also reported that minority participants on these bench-bar committees are drawn almost exclusively from the

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

federal judiciary.⁶²

G. Invitations to the Circuit Judicial Conferences

Every year or, more recently, sometimes every other year, the judges of the Second Circuit and their nonjudicial guests convene at the Judicial Conference, where members of the bench, bar, and academia are invited to speak on panels and to conduct a variety of workshops. Attendance at these conferences provides a rare opportunity for members of the profession to socialize with judges and with one another in a variety of informal settings. The Committee Report points out that "attendance [at the Judicial Conference] is an important point of entry into the networks of power and prestige that surround litigation in the federal courts."

Invitations to the conference are distributed in a number of ways. All Article III judges are entitled to invite one person and suggest others, and the Judicial Conference's Planning and Program Committee may distribute a certain number of invitations. The United States Attorney from each district, as well as the presidents of certain bar associations, are automatic invitees.

The Planning and Program Committee, which, in addition to distributing invitations, determines the conference's program and selects its speakers, has a number of standing

⁶²The Committees surveyed attorneys about their own participation on bench-bar committees. Of minority private attorneys surveyed, none reported being asked to serve on bench-bar committees of any sort during the previous five years, whereas 11.5% of the 52 minority government attorneys surveyed indicated that they had been asked to serve. White women in private practice were only half as likely as white men to be asked to serve (2.1% as compared with 4% for men), whereas 7.3% of white women government attorneys were asked to serve, compared with 6% of white male government attorneys.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

members. These include the presidents of several major bar associations,⁶³ plus 15 others chosen by the Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals.

Although the Committee Report made no concrete finding with respect to minority participation as panelists at the Judicial Conference, it concluded that women have served more frequently as panelists or moderators in recent years. The following chart of the composition of program participants for the past three judicial conferences reveals that women have ranged from a little under 16% of panelists to a high of 31%, with a similar range also found with regard to women as workshop leaders. As moderators, women have ranged from 0 to 22%.

TABLE R: Judicial Conference Program Participants

	1992-male	1992-female	1994-male	1994-female	1996-male	1996-female
Moderator	100%	0%	80%	20%	77.8%	22.2%
Panelist	84.2%	15.8%	69%	31%	75%	25%
Workshop Leader	75%	25%	83.4%	16.6%	N.A.	N.A.

The Task Force recommends that invitations to the Judicial Conference should be distributed, and offers to participate as panelists, moderators, and workshop leaders extended, with a view toward reflecting the diversity of the legal community.

⁶³These include the Federal Bar Council, the New York, Connecticut, and Vermont state bar associations, the New York County Lawyers' Association, and the Association of the Bar of the City of New York. The prior chair of the Planning and Program Committee is also a standing member.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Conclusions:

From the data discussed in Chapter Five, we reach the following conclusions:

a. A judge-made appointment is a mark of professional prestige and should result from a process that considers the broadest spectrum of candidates. Opportunities for such appointments should be equitably distributed among qualified candidates.

b. Within the Second Circuit, women and minorities are represented as bankruptcy judges and magistrate judges at least to the same degree as their relative percentages as lawyers within the circuit. However, the distribution of women and minorities serving as bankruptcy and magistrate judges varies considerably among districts and in some districts there are none.

c. The percentage of women and minorities appointed to serve in quasi-judicial capacities (special masters, receivers, mediators, and the like) falls below the percentage of women and minorities practicing law in the circuit. Similarly, the percentage of women appointed to serve as panel lawyers under the Criminal Justice Act falls below the 27% figure.⁶⁴ The Committee Report did not indicate the percentage of women and minorities possessing the requisite expertise relevant to appointment for these positions. However, for many quasi-judicial appointments, general litigation expertise is sufficient.

d. Of the law clerks selected by judges over the past five years, 47.1% were women and 11.7% were minorities, but the representation of women and minority law clerks varied among courts.

e. The Committee Report concluded that women's participation both on bench-bar committees and as invitees and participants at the annual Judicial Conference generally has increased over the last several years, although no concrete data was presented. No specific data was presented regarding minority participation on bench-bar committees, and data presented regarding minority attendance at the Judicial Conference suggests that minorities have consisted of less than 5% of attendees for the past several years.

⁶⁴Minority CJA appointments were not studied by the Committees since relevant data was not available.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter SixThe Court as EmployerA. Introduction

The courts of the Second Circuit employ a total of 2,084 employees in various categories of job titles and functions.⁶⁵ Of the total workforce, 62% are women and 30% are minorities. In size it rivals many large companies that do business in this circuit. The Task Force concluded that it was important to analyze the courts from the perspective of their role as employers and to evaluate how the courts' various administrations fulfill that role. The Task Force reviewed the courts in the way it would review a business or not-for-profit organization and analyzed employment patterns and policies in the same manner as might be done by such organizations.

To study the courts' employment practices, the Committees interviewed court unit executives and managers who supplied policies, procedures, and other personnel materials, and collected statistical data on the relevant labor pools of the workforce within the circuit and on recent promotion, hiring, and termination decisions within that workforce. The Committees also reviewed comments on employment matters received at public hearings, as well as the employee survey conducted as part of the Baruch Report. This section of the Task Force Report draws heavily upon and essentially summarizes data that is set forth more fully in the Committee Report.

⁶⁵Unless otherwise indicated, employment figures are as of September 30, 1996.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

B. The Employing Units

Employment responsibility within the circuit is highly decentralized, residing within semi-independent employing units.

The Court of Appeals employs about 235 employees, most of whom work at the court's offices in the Foley Square Courthouse in New York City. The Court of Appeals has four operating units: the Circuit Executive, the Clerk, Senior Staff Attorney, and Library. The Circuit Executive, appointed by the Judicial Council, is the Second Circuit's principal administrative officer, and the Clerk of Court is the Court of Appeals' principal administrative officer. Although the Circuit Executive provides certain administrative support to the courts within the circuit, each court has autonomy with respect to employment policies and practices, and within the districts, individual court units have considerable autonomy.

Both the Southern District of New York and the District of Connecticut have four operating units: the Bankruptcy Court, the District Court Clerk, Probation, and Pre-trial Services. The District of Vermont and the Eastern, Western, and Northern Districts of New York each have three units: the Bankruptcy Court, the Court Clerk, and Probation and Pre-trial Services combined. This multiplicity of employing units has resulted in different and often inconsistent employment policies and practices within the circuit.

C. Applicable Law

Federal court employees are excluded from coverage under Title VII, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, the Americans with Disabilities Act, and the

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Rehabilitation Act -- the principal federal anti-discrimination laws. In the absence of coverage under federal anti-discrimination statutes, in the mid-1980's the United States Judicial Conference, which sets policy for the judicial branch, promulgated the "Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan" (the "Plan") setting forth its own policy of nondiscrimination for the federal court system Equal Employment Opportunity Program. The Plan applies to non-judicial court personnel, including judges' staffs. While the Plan imposes numerous duties and obligations on the courts, it lacks an enforcement mechanism. The federal courts are expected to follow the "spirit of the law" as described in the Plan. The Task Force questions whether this is being done fully and urges courts to examine their compliance.

Under the Plan, each court is required to adopt an equal employment opportunity plan ("EEO Plan") intended to provide "equal employment opportunity to all persons regardless of their race, sex, color, national origin, religion, age ... , or handicap." Each court must designate an "Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinator" ("EEO Coordinator") to collect, analyze, and consolidate statistical data and statements prepared by each court unit. The EEO Coordinator is required to synthesize his or her findings in an annual report to the Chief Judge and the Administrative Office. In addition, the EEO Coordinator is directed to resolve discrimination complaints informally, if possible.

The Plan incorporates "Discrimination Complaint Procedures" so that "all applicants for court positions and all court personnel can seek timely redress of discrimination complaints." Victims of discrimination, or of retaliation for having made a complaint, are

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

directed to file a complaint with the EEO Coordinator who, if unable to resolve the matter informally, can resort to formal resolution. In that event, the Chief Judge may order a hearing during which the parties participate in a mini-trial -- presenting evidence, cross-examining adverse witnesses, etc. -- after which the Chief Judge decides the merits of the discrimination claim.

The Plan incorporates many of the procedural mechanisms found elsewhere in statutory law. For example, complaints are subject to "deadlines" similar to a statute of limitations, grievants must file a complaint "within 15 calendar days of a particular act or occurrence or within 15 calendar days of becoming aware of the act or occurrence," and no late filing will be accepted unless good cause is presented to the EEO Coordinator.

In March 1997, the Judicial Conference approved a more comprehensive model Dispute Resolution Plan, which addresses, in addition to discrimination complaints, such other areas of complaints as family and medical leave rights, worker adjustment and retraining notification rights, and occupational safety and health protection. The Task Force urges the courts of the Second Circuit to examine the model as soon as practicable, and adopt local plans that will provide prompt, effective, and consistent responses to discrimination complaints.

In addition to relying on the Plan's Discrimination Complaint Procedures, court employees may bring Bivens⁶⁶ actions, alleging violations of their constitutional rights by a

⁶⁶See Bivens v. Six Unknown Named Agents of Fed. Bureau of Narcotics, 403 U.S. 388, 397 (1971). Although only one case discusses the availability of Bivens actions to court employees, see Garcia v. Williams, 704 F. Supp. 984, 992 (N.D. Cal. 1988), other cases so

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

federal official acting under color of legal authority. Hence, while most court employees do not have the same broad statutorily based legal rights as private sector or other federal employees, the possibility of liability arising from employment discrimination exists.

In any event, and more to the point, the judiciary, as society's avenue of redress for discrimination injury, should make special efforts to ensure its own voluntary compliance with anti-discrimination principles, embodied in the Plan. As will be discussed, several relatively simple steps can be taken to prevent employment problems from arising and to provide an equal opportunity workplace.

D. Statistical Analysis of Workforce Data and Employment Decisions

At the request of the Committees, a statistical analysis of employment decisions and of the gender, racial, and ethnic composition of the workforce of the seven courts within the circuit was prepared by Price Waterhouse, under the direction of Dr. Judith Stoikov (the "Stoikov Report").⁶⁷ The study examined the representation of women and minorities in

assume without discussion, cf. Bryant v. O'Connor, 848 F.2d 1064, 1067-68 (10th Cir. 1988); Williams v. McClellan, 569 F.2d 1031, 1033 (8th Cir. 1978).

⁶⁷Dr. Judith Stoikov is the president of Employment Economics, a division of Price Waterhouse. A nationally recognized expert in the area of discrimination, Dr. Stoikov has testified in over 50 discrimination cases, including several class actions, and served as a consultant to corporations from the American Red Cross to Western Electric on employment matters. Dr. Stoikov received a Ph.D. in Economics from The London School of Economics and Political Science at London University in 1970. From 1974 to 1976, she was an associate professor in the Economics Department of the State University of New York. Dr. Stoikov is currently a member of the Advisory Council of the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University. She has written several publications in the area of employment discrimination, including "Affected Class Analysis in 1980," American Banker Vol. CXLV, No. 201, at 30 (October 30, 1980), and "Factors Influencing Hours of Work" in Manpower Policy and Employment Trends 111-137 (1966).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

the workforce and in hires, promotions, and terminations. Its objective was to determine whether women and minorities are disproportionately disadvantaged with respect to those decisions. The study examined data as of September 30, 1994 and (for all but the Northern District of New York) September 30, 1995.

The Stoikov Report analyzed the circuit's workforce by comparing the number of female and minority circuit employees to the availability in the external labor market of females and minorities within the relevant occupational categories. The occupational categories used nationwide within the courts are: Professional-General, Professional-Administrative, Professional-Legal, Technical, Legal Secretarial, and Office/Clerical. The proportion of female and minority hires was also compared to the number of interviewees within each occupational category. Promotions were assessed within each occupational category, and then across all occupational categories, and compared to promotion in the general workforce for the same occupational category. Finally, female and minority terminations were compared with those in the general workforce. The Stoikov Report, published separately as Appendix C of this Task Force Report, sets forth in detail the methodology of its analysis and a summary of its findings, together with the accompanying tables.

A conclusion that women or minorities are significantly underrepresented, or in some cases overrepresented, in some categories among court employees within a court or a court unit could be an indication either of bias or some unfairness stemming from flawed employment methods and practices, or both. Statistical discrepancies may also result from

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

vagaries within the pool of qualified candidates for a particular position, or because, for some unknown reason, the positions or employment decisions being compared with those in the general workforce are not entirely comparable. With all of this in mind, the Task Force recommends that every court and unit manager carefully review the Stoikov Report as well as the corresponding chapter of the Committee Report. This Task Force Report summarizes those findings.

The results of the employment studies vary from district to district, and the Committee Report and the Stoikov Report point out specific findings in certain courts and units that merit attention by managers. Nonetheless, the Committee Report reached the following general conclusions:

- Women and minorities are not significantly underrepresented in the total Second Circuit workforce.
- Women and minorities are not underrepresented among hires.
- There are fewer promotions of women than statistically expected (238 promotions with 261.1 expected).
- Terminations of minority employees circuit-wide are higher than statistically expected (61 terminations with 38.1 expected).⁶⁸
- Minorities and women generally do not hold the most senior positions in the various employment units, while greater diversity exists in the jobs immediately below the highest level.

With respect to individual courts, demographics as to gender, race, and ethnicity among employees in the Court of Appeals and the District of Connecticut were comparable

⁶⁸ The Stoikov Report contains more detailed information containing the termination rates of specific minority groups. See Appendix C.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

to those of the general workforce in all respects. The review of both these courts did not reveal any significant underrepresentation of females or minorities in the workforce. Women and minorities were not underrepresented in hiring or promotions, nor overrepresented in terminations. However, in the following courts, the Stoikov Report found significant variances from what would be expected on the basis of comparable data in the private sector:

Eastern District of New York (approximately 490 employees): Women are underrepresented in the Technical category (8 with 20.7 expected), overrepresented in the Professional category (31 with 22.4 expected). Asians are significantly underrepresented in the workforce (12 with 36.2 expected). In promotions overall, there is no statistical variance among women; however, there is some underrepresentation in the Office/Clerical Category (32 with 38.2 expected). Among African-Americans,⁶⁹ there is some underrepresentation in promotions overall (20 with 30.8 expected). Finally, there are statistically significant increases in terminations of Asian employees as compared to the general workforce (4 with 0.8 expected).

Northern District of New York (approximately 80 employees): Significant underrepresentation of minorities was discovered (1 with 15.6 expected; no Hispanics with 3.9 expected).

Southern District of New York (approximately 600 employees): Women are underrepresented in Office/Clerical (87 with 103 expected) and in Technical (22 with 28.5 expected); and, are overrepresented in Professional (General/Admin.) (131 with 113 expected). In the overall workforce, minorities are overrepresented (249 with 211.8 expected), in Office/Clerical (87 with 58.6 expected), and in Professional (General/Admin.) (123 with 95.7 expected). African-Americans are overrepresented in the overall workforce (152 with 118.3 expected), in Office/Clerical (45 with 31.7 expected), and in Professional (General/Admin.) (81 with 50.4 expected); however, they are underrepresented in Technical (6 with 12.3 expected). Asians are underrepresented overall (29 with 42.4 expected) and in Professional (General/Admin.) (11 with 23.6 expected). Minorities are statistically underrepresented among overall hires (25 with 34.6 expected) and in

⁶⁹Because the Stoikov Report uses the term "African-American," rather than "Black," so, too, does the portion of this report discussing the Stoikov Report.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Office/Clerical (11 with 17.7 expected). More minorities were terminated than expected (36 with 22.1 expected), and more African-Americans were terminated than expected (22 with 13.5 expected).

Western District of New York (approximately 175 employees):

Minorities are underrepresented in the general workforce (14 with 35.7 expected) and in the Professional category (Office/General) (5 with 16.6 expected). The same is true of African-Americans overall (8 with 19.5 expected); Asians overall (1 with 7.1 expected), and Asians in Professional (General/Admin.) (none with 4.1 expected).

District of Vermont (approximately 150 employees): Women are underrepresented in the overall workforce (28 with 37.6 expected) and, specifically, in Professional (General/Admin.) (14 with 24.9 expected).

The Committees also inquired about the process for appointing certain positions not reflected in the Stoikov Report: Clerks, Bankruptcy Clerks, and Chief Probation Officers. The pool of applicants is narrowed to those who are most qualified and these candidates are then interviewed by both the search committee and eventually, the court's Chief Judge. Sometimes a panel of judges will make the final decision.

In addition to the court units surveyed and reported in the Stoikov Report, each district court has an office headed by the Chief Probation Officer. These employees assist the court in, among other things, preparing pre-sentence reports and supervising criminal defendants while on probation or supervised release following conviction. They are hired by the district's Chief Probation Officer. The Stoikov Report omitted an analysis of this workforce and its hires, promotions and terminations and the Committees do not report on the subject. However, a demographic snap shot of this workforce at year-end 1996 reveals that, while there are variations as between courts, overall the representation of women and

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

minorities in the districts' probation offices exceeds their percentage in the population as a whole.

TABLE S: Probation Department Employees

COURT	TOTAL	WOMEN	MINORITIES
D. Conn.	49	28 (57%)	11 (22%)
E.D.N.Y.	221	118 (53%)	93 (42%)
N.D.N.Y.	39	19 (49%)	5 (13%)
S.D.N.Y.	150	86 (57%)	84 (56%)
W.D.N.Y.	54	29 (54%)	6 (11%)
D. Vt.	15	8 (53%)	0 (10%)
TOTALS	528	288 (55%)	199 (38%)

Because the courts are not responsible for the composition of the workforce of Court Security Officers ("CSOs"), it was not studied by the Committees. These officers are employed pursuant to contracts between the United States Marshals Service and private security companies. While the Marshals Service oversees the contracts, including conducting some background screening of candidates for the position of CSO, CSO employment decisions appear to be the responsibility of private companies. Because these officers are among the first employees encountered by persons entering the courthouse, their composition by gender, race, and ethnicity might affect the public's initial perception of the diversity of the courts within. The Task Force believes that the CSO employment practices, and the extent to which diversity objectives inform those practices, should be the subject of further study.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

E. Employee Survey

At the request of the Committees, the Baruch Report included a survey of employees. The principal data from the responses to the employee survey are set forth in tables included as an appendix to the Baruch Report. The Committee Report discusses the survey's responses in considerable detail. Among the findings from the employee responses, as summarized in the Committee Report, are the following:

- Of the 1,887 non-judicial employees in the Second Circuit at the time of the survey, 1,362 (72.2%) responded.⁷⁰
- A substantial percent of minority employees -- about 33 % of minority women and 23 % of minority men -- believe that slurs, jokes, and negative comments about race, ethnicity, and gender are a "serious" or "moderate" problem. These perceptions warrant substantially increased efforts to educate employees about the inappropriateness of such conduct.
- About 30% of employees were not aware of their employer's EEO policies and about 40% did not know about their employer's anti-sexual harassment procedures. These figures demonstrate either that courts do not have such policies or that their policies have not been communicated effectively to their employees. In either event, employing units should correct the problem.
- Employees' fear of retaliation may cause underreporting of discriminatory or harassing conduct. The managers in the employing units uniformly reported that they had received very few, if any, complaints of discrimination or harassment. The survey revealed that 85 of the 1,887 employees responding remained silent about job related bias because they were concerned about "negative effect on future career advancement."
- A very high proportion of the employees believe that diversity

⁷⁰The survey was completed in the summer of 1996.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

training programs are needed: 83.5% of minority females, 64% of minority males, and more than 50% of white females and males. These responses, together with the findings and conclusions mentioned above, suggest that the employing units should provide such diversity programs.

F. Personnel Policies

The Committees gathered and analyzed written personnel policies from the various employing units within the circuit.

Written personnel policies vary greatly within the circuit. Some units have no policy (or at least provided none to the Committees). Virtually all have a complaint/grievance procedure, although they vary in form and substance. One bankruptcy court and one district court clerk's office had neither a written equal employment opportunity ("EEO") policy statement nor a policy statement on sexual harassment. More than half of the responding units lacked any anti-harassment policy statement.

The Task Force believes that every employing unit in the circuit should have comprehensive written personnel policies covering each of the following categories: EEO policy statement, sexual harassment or anti-harassment policy statement; complaint/grievance procedure; written policy regarding disciplinary action; corrective action policy and procedure; performance evaluation policy and procedure; hiring and recruitment policy and procedure; and promotional opportunities policy and procedure. Such EEO and anti-harassment policies are the foundation for a non-discriminatory workplace. When applied consistently and firmly, such policies demonstrate the goals of top management, help establish a non-discriminatory workplace culture, and deter improper conduct. Additionally,

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

without such policy statements, employees will not know how to advise management of instances of bias or discrimination, thereby depriving employing units of opportunities to take corrective action in a timely manner.

Policy statements also alert employees to benefits to which they are entitled. In particular, clear and comprehensive policies on leaves of absence are important and of particular significance for employees who have family responsibilities. The Task Force further recommends that employing units coordinate and, where appropriate, standardize many of their personnel policies. Standardization of policies on discipline, corrective action, performance evaluations, and hiring and recruitment may facilitate transfers and promotions between units to the mutual benefit of all employees and the courts. Standardization and clarity gives employees a better understanding of what is required of them, thereby increasing the likelihood of improved performance. Improved and updated policies should be presented to employees as part of a training session, designed to educate employees about issues of bias, discrimination, and harassment in the workplace.

In the interest of facilitating the implementation of such standardized policies by every employing unit, the Committee Report contains a sample policy statement on equal employment opportunity, sexual harassment and other prohibited harassment, and grievance/complaint procedures. The sample policy, which is annexed as Exhibit E to the Committee Report, not only describes proscribed conduct, but also includes procedures for complaints, investigations, discipline, and appeals.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Conclusions:

From the data discussed in Chapter Six, we reach the following conclusions:

a. Courts and court units have substantial autonomy in employment practices. Court employees, while not generally covered under the federal anti-discrimination statutes, are covered by the "Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan" ("EEO Plan"), which provides for an EEO Coordinator to monitor equal opportunity issues, make reports, and informally resolve disputes. The EEO Plan provides for resolutions of disputes by the Chief Judge of the court. This Plan, which was supposed to have been implemented by each court in the country, has either not been implemented or has been implemented to a limited degree in the Second Circuit.

b. The Stoikov Report, a statistical study of court employee demographics and employment decisions in 1994 and 1995, reflects that, while situations vary as between courts, women and minorities are not underrepresented in the Second Circuit workforce overall, although women were underrepresented in promotions and terminations of minorities were greater than expected. Additionally, although there was substantial diversity overall, women and minorities generally do not hold the most senior management positions.

c. The overall representation of both women and minorities exceeds their percentages in the circuit's population as a whole.

d. A survey of employees, with a high rate of return, indicated that substantial numbers of minorities -- about 33% of minority women and 23% of minority men -- believe that slurs, jokes, and negative comments about race, ethnicity, and gender are at least a moderate problem; about 30% of the employees are unaware of any EEO policies, and 40% are unaware of procedures to deal with harassment; that fear of retaliation inhibits harassment reporting; and that most employees, including a majority of white employees, believe that diversity training is needed.

e. Written personnel policies covering equal employment opportunity practices, anti-harassment policy, disciplinary action, hiring, recruitment, performance evaluation, and complaint procedures are an essential foundation for a non-discriminatory workplace.

f. There are no standard policies covering personnel matters, equal employment issues, or complaint procedures. While such policies exist to some degree in some courts, they are not present circuit-wide, and such policies as do exist are not being effectively communicated.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter SevenThe Litigants

In many ways the most important measure of fairness in the Second Circuit is not the interplay between judges, lawyers, and court staff, but rather the manner in which the courts treat the general public -- the litigants who come to the courts as criminal defendants and parties in civil disputes. Generally speaking, a study of the "treatment of litigants" consists of two inquiries: (1) whether a court's policies or practices treat litigants unfairly based on gender, race, or ethnicity; and (2) whether substantive case outcomes are affected by the gender, race, or ethnicity of the litigant, or by the fact that issues of gender, race, or ethnicity are raised by the litigant. This Task Force Report does not consider case outcomes. That topic has been given some preliminary consideration in the Committee Report, and the inquiry begun by the Committees remains an appropriate topic for further study by another body.

In its investigation of the treatment of litigants, the Committees did not obtain data directly from litigants due to resource limitations. Rather, to assess the extent to which race, ethnicity, and gender might have a negative impact on the treatment of litigants, the Committees relied on the observations of judges, lawyers, law clerks, and courtroom deputy clerks as reported in telephone interviews, follow-up questionnaires, focus groups, and public hearings. These observations are reported in Chapter Three.⁷¹

⁷¹Questions regarding the treatment of litigants were included in the Baruch Report. In addition, the Committees collected data at focus groups, interviews, and public hearings.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

The study's respondents were uniformly confident that, in the Second Circuit, litigants were rarely, if ever, the objects of overtly biased behavior based on gender, race, or ethnicity. Nevertheless, a significant number of observers reported seeing behavior which they viewed as motivated by gender or racial stereotyping. While they reported that lawyers account for most of this behavior and that frequently it occurs outside the courthouse, in the view of some, the judiciary was sometimes the source of biased treatment.

Direct insensitive treatment of litigants is obviously of concern. But it does not exhaust the ways in which fairness to litigants should be evaluated. Gender, race, and ethnicity may also have a less direct, but still significant, effect on the experience of litigants. For example, as the Committees reported, women and minorities are disproportionately present in certain categories of cases⁷² and often appear pro se. Thus, otherwise neutral practices or problems endemic to a particular category of cases can result in a disparate effect on women and minorities. Careful attention should be paid to the costs of any such disparate effects (for example, costs associated with absence of counsel in pro se cases) and whether they can be avoided or diminished consistent with other legitimate goals.

Given their limited resources, the Committees chose to focus their analysis of the fair

⁷²The Committee Report indicates that women and minorities are most likely found as parties in diversity-based state tort actions, employment discrimination cases, social security appeals, immigration cases, and bankruptcy cases. See the Committee Report's discussion of women in bankruptcy and in forma pauperis status.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

treatment of litigants to two areas⁷³: (i) the effectiveness of the circuit's interpreters for non-English speaking litigants and (ii) the assistance provided to pro se litigants. In addition, the Committees briefly examined whether substantive outcomes in employment discrimination cases and in sentencing of criminal defendants are affected by the gender, race, or ethnicity of the litigant. Finally, the Committees briefly examined the treatment of litigants in Social Security cases, the treatment of criminal defendants, particularly with respect to bail decisions and sentencing decisions, and the treatment of cases affecting American Indians. Since this portion of the Committee Report relied heavily upon judicial decisions and case outcomes, the Task Force did not study it and does not report on it. We discuss this aspect of the Committees' findings only to the extent that the Committee Report offers some indication of biased treatment of litigants as the case proceeds to conclusion.

A. Non-English Speaking Litigants

The Committees examined the adequacy of interpretation services provided in the Second Circuit since such services directly impact non-English speaking minorities. Adequate interpretation services are a critical component of any justice system.

The Court Interpreters Act mandates the appointment of an interpreter in any judicial proceeding, criminal and civil, instituted by the United States when the presiding officer determines it is necessary. The act does not, however, cover civil actions initiated by private parties.

⁷³The Committees also studied American-Indians in an attempt to assess any problems in the treatment of American-Indians. For a discussion of their limited findings, see Committee Report 203-210.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Without interpretation, non-English speakers are unable to assist in the development of their cases, to help counsel understand the events that gave rise to the matter, and to provide their counsel with information that contradicts or weakens the opposing case.

Indeed, without an interpreter, a non-English speaking litigant cannot understand what is being said by the judge and others in court proceedings which are daunting even to English speaking litigants. As the Second Circuit stated in United States ex rel. Negron v. New

York:

Not only for the sake of effective cross-examination, however, but as a matter of simple humaneness, [a criminal defendant] deserve[s] more than to sit in total incomprehension as the trial proceed[s]. Particularly inappropriate in this nation where many languages are spoken is a callousness to the crippling language handicap of a newcomer to its shores, whose life and freedom the state by its criminal processes chooses to put in jeopardy.⁷⁴

The need for interpretation services in the circuit's courts is ever present. In 1995, 23% of the population in New York, 15% of the population in Connecticut, and 8% of the population in Vermont spoke a language other than English at home.⁷⁵ More languages are spoken in courts of the Second Circuit than in any other circuit. In 1995, the Second Circuit provided services in more languages than in any other circuit. Although the greatest need was for Spanish interpretation,⁷⁶ which accounted for 73% of the interpretation events⁷⁷ in

⁷⁴United States ex rel. Negron v. New York, 434 F.2d 386, 390 (2d Cir. 1970).

⁷⁵U.S. Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book: 1994, Items 13-31, at 3 (1994).

⁷⁶In 1995, Spanish interpretation events were as follows: E.D.N.Y., 8,483; S.D.N.Y., 3,940; N.D.N.Y., 203; D.Conn, 142; W.D.N.Y., 321; D.Vt, 25.

⁷⁷An "interpretation event" is an instance in which interpretation services were provided.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

that year, every district was required to provide a wide array of language services.⁷⁸

The number of languages which must be interpreted has been increasing steadily as the demographic profile of the circuit changes. The circuit must continuously search for individuals to interpret new and sometimes infrequently used languages. Moreover, as the demographic profile of the circuit changes, languages which were once minor parts of the interpretation repertoire now generate a considerable demand for interpreters.⁷⁹

The interpretation needs of the circuit in criminal cases have been increasing by approximately 20% every year since 1991. The cost of providing interpretation services was nearly \$927,000 in 1995. The Administrative Office reported 18,002 interpretation events in the Second Circuit for 1995, more than double the number of interpretation events in 1991 (7,405). In 1995, 17% of the nation's interpretation events occurred in the Second Circuit, surpassed only by the Ninth and Fifth Circuits. The district with the most interpretation events is the Eastern District of New York with 62% of the circuit's events. It was followed by the Southern District of New York, (31%); the Northern District of New York, (3%); the Western District of New York (3%), the District of Connecticut, (1%); and the District of

⁷⁸In 1995 other language demands were as follows: Eastern District of New York — 37 languages; Southern District of New York — 26 languages; Northern District of New York — 15 languages; District of Connecticut — 2 languages; Western District of New York — 14 languages; District of Vermont — 9 languages.

⁷⁹The five major languages interpreted in 1995 were Spanish (73%); Chinese dialects (11% [Cantonese (6%), Foochow (3 %), Mandarin (2 %)]); Arabic (4%); Korean (2%); and Russian (2%).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Vermont, (less than 1 %).⁸⁰

In spite of the enormity of the task presented, in the courts of the Second Circuit the quality of the interpretation services, at least in criminal cases where the Court Interpreters Act mandates the availability of interpretation services, is among the best in the nation. While many state studies have reported major deficiencies in the interpretation services available in some court systems and some ignorance of the complexity of the interpretative task, such criticism does not apply in the Second Circuit. The Committees report that throughout the 6 district courts of the circuit there is a sensitivity to the needs of non-English speakers and an impressive level of professionalism on the part of those who provide interpretive services in criminal cases. While generally interpretative needs are being met, the quality of interpretation services still varies from district to district, and the Task Force received isolated reports of criminal proceedings occurring in rural areas in the absence of needed interpretation services.

The Committee Report notes another problem: the absence of a circuit-wide procedure for certifying interpreters in each language. Without proper certification, the quality of interpretation will (and does) vary considerably from district to district, and indeed from case to case. The Committees report the finding that the use of certified interpreters can substantially reduce the number of inaccuracies in court interpretation. However, of the

⁸⁰In 1995, the breakdown was Eastern District of New York, (62%, 11,325 events); Southern District of New York, (31%, 5,548 events); Northern District of New York, (3%, 479 events); Western District of New York, (3%, 455 events); Connecticut, (1%, 149 events); Vermont, (less than 1%, 46 events).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

18,002 times interpretation occurred in 1995, 39% (7,056) were not performed by certified interpreters; and of the 45 languages interpreted in 1995, only 3 (Spanish, French, and Italian) have certification procedures.

Due to practical considerations, it is unlikely that it would be cost effective for the circuit to provide certification procedures for every language spoken throughout the circuit. Nonetheless, we recommend that, to the extent feasible, the courts should encourage the development of certification procedures for more languages. Finally, the Committees did not systematically study the adequacy of interpretation services in civil cases initiated by private parties, but they recommend further study.

B. Pro Se Litigants

Because a significant number of pro se litigants are minorities and women, the Committee examined the circuit's pro se practices to determine whether they result in any unfairness. Pro se cases present a substantial management problem for the circuit. The number of pro se filings is high and they use a significant amount of court resources. In 1996, pro se litigants commenced approximately 30% of all filings in the district courts and 37.6% of all appeals in the Court of Appeals.

The Committees report that, in general, the courts and their employees are sensitive to the special needs of and problems encountered by pro se litigants. The Committees report no evidence of deliberate biased behavior towards pro se litigants based on race, ethnicity, or gender.

Each of the courts of the circuit provides some procedural assistance to pro se

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

litigants. The pro se clerks in the clerks' office in the Southern, Eastern, and Western Districts of New York and the District of Connecticut are available during regular business hours for consultation with pro se litigants. They are accessible in person and by telephone. In the Northern District of New York and the District of Vermont, staff employees handle pro se matters, in addition to their other duties. In the Court of Appeals, pro se litigants are assisted by 18 pro se law clerks and related personnel in the staff attorneys office, and 9 deputy clerks in the clerk's office.

Although all the circuit's pro se personnel display genuine concern for pro se litigants and work hard to assist them, efforts vary considerably from district to district. In the Eastern, Southern, and Northern Districts of New York, pro se litigants are provided with comprehensive pamphlets and forms on a number of issues including filing, discovery, service of process, and legal aid services. In these courts, detailed sample complaint forms are available for a variety of causes of action, including habeas corpus petitions, Title VII claims, 42 U.S.C § 1983 claims, and social security actions. The District of Vermont makes available written information on complaint filing, service of process, and in forma pauperis procedures. The District of Connecticut provides pro se litigants sample forms, but no accompanying written instructions or overview of the process. The Western District of New York makes available a pro se prisoner's manual and is developing a manual for pro se civil litigants.

Some variation between districts in the handling of pro se cases is inevitable. For example, the district court clerk's office in Rutland, Vermont, which has only 3 full-time

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

staff members, cannot as readily devote a full-time staff member exclusively to pro se matters as can the district court clerk's office in Manhattan, which has more than 150 full-time staff members. Nevertheless, to achieve greater uniformity in the assistance provided to pro se litigants throughout the circuit, the Task Force recommends that the pro se staff from each district communicate with staff from other districts and share materials including forms, brochures, and manuals. In addition, the Task Force encourages judges, where appropriate and permissible by law, to appoint pro bono counsel to assist pro se litigants with claims of likely merit. To facilitate the acceptance of pro bono cases by the private bar, the Task Force recommends that all districts be asked to investigate the feasibility of adopting programs similar to those of the Eastern and Northern Districts of New York, which reimburse pro bono counsel for some litigation costs, such as expert witnesses and depositions fees, by assessing a \$10 fee for attorney admission to practice in the district.

C. Employment Discrimination Litigants

As we have stated, a study of case outcomes is not included in this report. However, we note here that some aspects of the Committee Report concerning treatment of litigants in employment discrimination cases are not dependent on case outcomes.

During the course of the Committees' study, some preliminary indicators of less than fair treatment of litigants in employment discrimination cases surfaced. First, the Committees received many comments from lawyers indicating their view that employment discrimination cases are disfavored by judges. Disfavor of sexual harassment litigation, in

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

particular, accounted for many of the specific complaints and comments that were received.⁸¹ At hearings and in focus groups various disturbing stories were related. In rare instances, openly discriminatory statements by the trial judge were reported. One judge was alleged to have said in open court that a plaintiff's sexual harassment claim was not serious because her employer only stared at her breasts, rather than touching them, and "most women like that." In another, a judge was alleged to have inappropriately conveyed through his facial expressions and words utter skepticism about the validity of the plaintiff's claim. Staff, too, can convey an attitude of ridicule or disbelief. One focus group participant complained of an instance where a court reporter visibly and repeatedly rolled his eyes while witnesses testified about the emotional distress suffered by a victim of sexual harassment.

Second, some judges surveyed expressed their belief that the proliferation of small cases involving individual claimants, including employment discrimination cases, clog the federal courts and divert the attention of judges away from larger, more significant civil cases.⁸² Others expressed concern that rapidly growing caseloads, due in part to increasing employment litigation, will require an increased number of judges, destroying the collegiality

⁸¹Not every sexual harassment claim is made in the employment context, however. Some, for example, have also come from prisoners accusing guards of harassing them or from students in academic institutions.

⁸²It is true that these cases draw heavily on the time of the judiciary. From 1970 to 1989, the number of employment discrimination cases filed in federal courts increased by 2166%, as compared with a 125% increase in the overall civil caseload. Today, employment discrimination matters account for about 10% of the total caseload in the Southern District of New York.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

and cohesiveness of the federal bench.⁸³

Finally, in the Committees' view, several appellate opinions hint that some trial judges have exhibited impatience with employment discrimination claims, as well as stereotyped thinking about the seriousness or the reality of sexual harassment claims. In one instance, a district court judge expressed considerable skepticism that a sexually harassed woman who got promotions and pay raises during the period in which her supervisor demanded sexual favors could nevertheless have suffered legally cognizable emotional injuries. In another instance, a district court's handling of a case suggested a belief on the judge's part that the plaintiff's consumption of alcohol at a business dinner, rather than the misconduct of her fellow employees, was the proximate cause of her rape. And in another case, the judge made known his impatience with a sexual harassment claim by unexpectedly awarding summary judgment to the defendants on the merits -- a ruling requested by neither side -- despite the fact that neither plaintiff nor defendant had yet addressed in detail any issue in the litigation except for jurisdictional questions.

These preliminary indications in the Committees' study raise a concern that, when an employment discrimination case is properly before a federal court, a judge's belief that the matter is too trivial for his or her attention may too easily translate into actual unfairness to a litigant as the case proceeds through the system in a form that disproportionately

⁸³The recently issued Long Range Plan for the Federal Courts, for example, recommended that much of the litigation by individuals be diverted to state courts or be handled to a greater extent by administrative agencies, including litigation involving "economic or personnel relations or personal liability arising in the workforce."

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

disadvantages both women and members of minority groups. Whether this concern will prove to be well founded must await further study elsewhere. However, whatever the reasons underlying the reported dislike by judges of employment discrimination cases, it is important for judges to assure that these cases are not treated with less than the uniform seriousness and respect that litigants deserve. As Judge Edward Weinfeld used to so aptly remark: no case is less important to the litigants involved than another. Furthermore, all judges should be careful to avoid any remarks or visible reactions that, even if innocently intended, might understandably be perceived by litigants as reflecting biased treatment.

Conclusions:

From the data discussed in Chapter Seven, we reach the following conclusions:

- a. While the circuit's interpretation services are generally excellent given the array of languages for which interpretation is sought and the frequency with which interpretation is required, some language requirements, particularly in lesser populated areas, are not being met.
- b. The availability and adequacy of interpretation services in civil cases initiated by private parties need study.
- c. Assistance to pro se litigants, while adequately serving the needs of these litigants in general, varies in kind and degree among the courts within the circuit, and a better exchange of information between courts is needed.
- d. The Committees have reported receiving information, largely from lawyers, to the effect that some judges disfavor employment discrimination cases and therefore might be treating litigants in those cases less than evenhandedly. We view the existence of such a concern as worrisome.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter Eight

The Jurors

Jurors are critical to the functioning of the courts. The vast majority of cases that go to trial are tried to a jury as the exclusive fact-finder. Jury duty is both a public obligation and an important public service. Through such service, the average citizen sees the courts and forms an impression of their fairness and legitimacy. The Committees studied how race and gender might influence both the work and the experience of jurors in the Second Circuit.

A. The Composition of Juries

The racial, ethnic, and gender composition of those who are called for jury service and who serve on juries is not only the subject of scholarly discussion, but has constitutional ramifications as well. Since the nineteenth century, the Supreme Court has held that exclusion of racial minorities from juries violates the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution.⁸⁴ More than two decades ago, the Court held that women may not systematically be excluded from the pool of potential jurors.⁸⁵ As Justice White wrote for a majority of the Court: "Restricting jury service to only special groups or excluding identifiable segments playing major roles in the community cannot be squared with the

⁸⁴Strauder v. West Virginia, 100 U.S. (10 Otto) 303 (1880).

⁸⁵Taylor v. Louisiana, 419 U.S. 522 (1975). The Court has also found that race and gender discrimination in jury selection violates the Equal Protection rights of the jurors themselves. See, e.g., J.E.B. v. Alabama, 511 U.S. 127 (1994); Georgia v. McCollum, 505 U.S. 42 (1992); Strauder v. West Virginia, 100 U.S. (10 Otto) 303 (1880).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

constitutional concept of jury trial."⁸⁶

Fairness in the methods used to form the jury pool, and fairness in the selection of actual jurors, have been matters of particular concern in the Second Circuit. In the early 1990s, the Eastern District of New York's system for constructing jury pools was criticized for generating racially skewed results. Considerable litigation ensued.⁸⁷ At the time, the Eastern District filled its jury wheel for the Brooklyn courthouse with names drawn from all five counties in the District; by contrast, the wheel for the Uniondale and Hauppauge courthouses was drawn only from Nassau and Suffolk Counties, where the population of minorities was much smaller. Under this so-called "five-two plan," litigants in the Long Island courthouses had juries more reflective of the population of those counties, while in Brooklyn, juries would contain a higher percentage of whites than the combined population of the three counties of New York City -- Kings, Queens, and Richmond -- primarily served by that court. In 1995, the Eastern District changed its jury plan to merge the two pools so that all five counties would supply jurors for both Brooklyn and Long Island -- a so-called "five-five plan."

Problems in composing a racially representative pool of prospective jurors have also

⁸⁶Id. at 530. While most cases, including Taylor, involved criminal juries, subsequent decisions have similarly recognized the inappropriateness of techniques excluding jurors because of race or gender in the civil context as well. Edmonson v. Leesville Concrete Co., 500 U.S. 614 (1991); J.E.B. v. Alabama, 511 U.S. 127 (1994).

⁸⁷The history of the dispute is recited in a memorandum entitled "EDNY Jury Selection Plan" by Robert C. Heinemann, Clerk of Court, to Chief Judge Charles P. Sifton, Eastern District of New York, May 9, 1996 [hereinafter cited as EDNY Report]. In it, six legal challenges are listed during the period 1991 to 1995.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

arisen in the District of Connecticut. The difficulties that plagued the selection of prospective jurors in the federal court in Hartford are described in United States v. Jackman.⁸⁸ Through a series of errors, the master wheel first excluded everyone from Hartford and New Britain (where most of the minority population of the area resided); then, even after the wheel was corrected, the jury clerk mistakenly continued to rely primarily on the earlier, racially-skewed list of names. As a result, the Second Circuit reversed a conviction in a criminal case tried before a jury selected from this unrepresentative pool.⁸⁹

1. The Data

To examine the circuit's jurors, the Committees looked at several sources of data. One was the result of a juror survey, discussed at greater length later in this chapter. This survey was completed by 488 of the 940 persons who had actually served as jurors in each district over a six-week period in the spring of 1996. Overall, women were more common than men in our sample (52.3% as compared with 46.5%).⁹⁰ Whites made up 70.3% of the respondents, while those reporting themselves as minorities constituted 26.4%. Sixty-nine percent of the jurors were between ages 30 to 60, 12% were older than 60, and 16% were younger than 30.

For those whose names make their way into the pool of potential jurors, reliable

⁸⁸46 F.3d 1240, 1242-44 (1995).

⁸⁹Id. at 1242.

⁹⁰The figures do not add up to 100% because not everyone responded to the questionnaire.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

statistical information -- comparing the census data for a given district with the racial, ethnic, and gender makeup of the master juror wheel -- is recorded periodically on the so-called JS-12 form, which is used to report results from the districts' jury selection plans.

Unfortunately, however, although each district in the circuit supplied the Committees with some information about its jury plans and the composition of its jury wheels, not all furnished JS-12 forms, and of those that did, not all sent reports covering the same year. Thus, information on the racial, ethnic, and gender composition of juries is incomplete.

2. Northern District of New York, District of Connecticut, and Eastern District of New York

No information on either the gender or the racial and ethnic composition of those in its jury wheels was supplied by the Northern District of New York. The data supplied by Connecticut indicates the racial (but not the gender) composition of the wheels for each of the three divisions within the district, and compares the jury panels called for individual cases with the wheels. How this data compare, however, with the racial and ethnic makeup of the divisions as a whole is not known.

Data from the Eastern District of New York reveal no information about gender, but show some effect of the 1995 jury selection plan, which uses a single wheel for the entire districts on the racial composition of jury panels. For example, in both the Uniondale and Hauppauge courthouses, minority representation on jury panels has increased. In the case of Blacks, the representation has doubled, going from 6% to 12%; similarly, Asian-Americans

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

make up 3.5% of jury panels in those courthouses, instead of the predicted 1.5 to 2.6%.⁹¹

The extent of the change in panel composition in the Brooklyn courthouse is not indicated.

The Committee Report also takes note of a possible distortion on the distribution of white jurors in the Eastern District. Although overall the Eastern District is 63% white, three of the five counties in the district have white populations ranging from 82% (Richmond) to nearly 87% (Suffolk). Nevertheless, the percentage of whites on jury panels is consistently greater than expected in Brooklyn and below what might be expected in Uniondale and Hauppauge.

3. Comparisons of the Jury Pools with District Demographics in the Southern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont

JS-12 forms were available from the Southern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont. Table T, showing the composition by gender of the jury wheels in these districts, indicates instances both of over- and under-representation compared to the general population. The widest spread occurs in the Rochester division of the Western District, where the incidence of women in the jury wheel is 9.1% below the expected number.

Interviews with court personnel in Rochester suggested several reasons for the disproportionately small number of women who serve as jurors in that division. One is a lack of daycare at the courthouse: women without child care alternatives must either be excused or leave their children in the halls of the courthouse for the day -- something that

⁹¹EDNY Report at 5-6.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

has on occasion happened. One court employee volunteered that court-provided daycare alone would "change the composition of the jurors" in the Rochester courthouse. A second problem is distance -- a juror may have to travel as much as 150 miles to court and stay overnight, which would be difficult for mothers of infants. A third factor mentioned as having disproportionate impact on women was the lack of public transportation from outlying areas.

Table T: Jury Composition by Gender

District	% of Women in Jury Wheel	% of Women in General Pop.
SDNY--Foley Square	58	54
SDNY--White Plains	53	52
WDNY--Buffalo	49	53
WDNY--Rochester	43.5	52.6
Vermont -- Northern	54.4	51.9
Vermont -- Southern	52.3	51.9

The representation of racial and ethnic minorities in the jury wheels of the three districts, as compared with their presence in the population as a whole, is also a mixed picture. Vermont has a small minority population -- less than 1% in southern Vermont and less than a 1.5% in the district's northern division. In both the Rochester and Buffalo divisions of the Western District, minorities make up less than 10% of the population, with Blacks overwhelmingly the largest minority groups. Blacks were more likely than expected to appear in the jury wheel for the Buffalo division (10.5% as compared with an expected 7.2%), whereas in Rochester, the opposite was true (5.7% as compared with an expected 6.9%).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

In the Southern District of New York, a district with a large and racially diverse population, minorities quite consistently appear in smaller numbers than expected based on their prevalence in the population. This is shown in Table U.

Table U: Minority Jurors in the S.D.N.Y.

Race	Manhattan		White Plains	
	% in wheel	% in pop.	% in wheel	% in pop.
White	67.3	62	87.6	85
Black	14.5	22	3.0	10
Am. Indian	0.0	.32	0.1	0.2
Asian/Pacific	2.1	5.0	1.1	3.0
Hispanic ⁹²	10.6	23	3.1	7.0

The precise reasons for this disparity are not known.

It may be relevant, however, that the Southern District draws the names of prospective jurors only from voting roles, given the possibility that minorities are underrepresented among registered voters in the district. The only other district to rely solely on voting lists is Vermont; however, Vermont, in light of its largely white population, does not have a significant concern over minority underrepresentation in its jury pool. The

⁹²The figure used for Hispanics on the JS-12 form double-counts individuals who identify themselves as both as Hispanics and as members of racial groups. This problem is present in all attempts to classify individuals by race and ethnicity. The census figures used in Chapter Two of this report on the demographics of the Second Circuit are ones that attempt to eliminate this double-counting, but equivalent figures are not available in other studies and reports. Hence, the census figures used in this chapter, and those used in Chapter Two, may at points appear to be inconsistent.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

other four districts in the circuit use a combination of voter registration rolls and lists of those with a driver's license. With the exception of the Eastern District, each of the others maintain separate jury wheels for each jury division within the district.

B. The Juror Survey

Because jurors are important to the functioning of the court, and because they are also a ready-made collection of "court watchers," the Committees believed that a study of juror attitudes, experiences, and observations relating to gender, race, and ethnicity would be illuminating. Thus, the decision was made to formulate and administer a questionnaire for jurors to be filled out by them at the completion of their service on a trial.⁹³

In addition to asking for demographic information, three general queries were made. Jurors were asked: (a) whether they believed they were selected for service in whole or in part because of their gender, race, or ethnicity; (b) whether they experienced any inappropriate treatment based on gender, race, or ethnicity; and (c) whether they personally observed any inappropriate behavior in the courtroom relating to any of these factors.⁹⁴

⁹³Studies of jurors had been done in the District of Columbia as part of the federal race and gender bias study there; also, both Rhode Island (The Final Report of the Rhode Island Committee on Women in the Courts: A Report on Gender Bias (1987)) and Massachusetts (Gender Bias Study (1989)) studied jurors. The jurors covered by the Second Circuit study are those who actually were selected for service on a case.

⁹⁴These questions were designed to parallel ones asked of lawyers, judges, and law clerks so that responses could be compared. Details about the methodology and administration of the survey are contained in the Report on the Jury Study of the Consumers Subcommittee on Gender Issues, Committee on Gender, Second Circuit Task Force on Gender, Racial, and Ethnic Fairness in the Courts. The questionnaire was administered by court personnel in each of the six districts. It covered a six-week period, beginning on various dates in May, 1996. Over the relevant time periods, 940 persons served as jurors; of these, 531 returned

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

1. Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in Jury Selection.

Several reasons exist for the Committee's special interest in the role of gender, race, and ethnicity in jury selection. On the one hand, lawyers expect that jurors' behavior and attitudes will be influenced by their gender, race, or ethnicity. As a result, lawyers prefer jurors whose gender and race is more likely to yield views consistent with their client's interests in the litigation.⁹⁵ On the other, the federal courts have, in recent years, grown considerably more concerned with -- and less tolerant of -- jury selection that is influenced by racial or gender stereotypes.

Beginning in 1986 with Batson v. Kentucky,⁹⁶ the United States Supreme Court has prohibited the use of peremptory challenges to strike potential jurors from both criminal⁹⁷ and civil⁹⁸ panels based on race or gender.⁹⁹ The Court has written:

Discrimination in jury selection, whether based on race or gender, causes harm to the litigants, the community, and the individual jurors who are wrongfully excluded from participation in the judicial process. The litigants are harmed by the risk that the prejudice which motivated the discriminatory

to the jury room after service to receive the questionnaires. A total of 488 completed them.

⁹⁵See, e.g., Cameron McG. Currie & Aleta M. Pillick, Sex Discrimination in the Selection and Participation of Female Jurors: A Post-J.E.B. Analysis, 35 The Judges J. 2 (Winter 1996) (describing gender assumptions about juror behavior).

⁹⁶476 U.S. 79 (1986).

⁹⁷Id.

⁹⁸Edmundson v. Leesville Concrete Co., 500 U.S. 614 (1991).

⁹⁹Id. (race); J.E.B. v. Alabama, 511 U.S. 127, 114 S.Ct. 1419 (1994) (gender).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

selection of the jury will infect the entire proceedings.¹⁰⁰

Despite this, legal scholars continue to debate whether, gender or race is a reliable predictor of a potential juror's likely reaction to particular litigants or situations.¹⁰¹ Some prominent jury experts argue that neither race nor gender per se are predictors of how jurors will respond and that, instead, one needs to know about an individual's life experiences, social class, and other individualized data to have any success in picking jurors who are likely to give a particular party or case a sympathetic -- or at least an unbiased -- hearing.¹⁰²

The Committees' survey showed that a significant number of jurors believed --

¹⁰⁰J.E.B., 511 U.S. at 140.

¹⁰¹A recent article following the acquittal of O.J. Simpson in his murder trial discusses the prevalence of the belief that the race of jurors matters. Bryan Morgan, Perception and Decision Making: The Jury View, 67 U. Colo. L. Rev. 983 (1996); see also, Douglas O. Linder, Juror Empathy and Race, 63 Tenn. L. Rev. 887 (1996). At least one recent empirical study has lent support to this argument. Chris F. Denove & Edward J. Imwinkelried, Jury Selection: An Empirical Investigation of Demographic Bias, 19 Am. Trial. Advoc. 285 (1995). But see Robert MacCoun, The Verdict on the Verdict: Interpreting the Public's Reaction to the Simpson Trial, paper prepared for Presidential Showcase Symposium: "Simpson Aftershock: Seismic Changes for Justice?" Annual Meeting of the American Bar Association, Aug. 4, 1996 (reciting studies that failed to find a relationship between jurors' race and verdict). Similarly, women are often assumed to have specific characteristics and likely reactions as jurors. For studies purporting to show such differences, see, e.g., Denove & Imwinkelried, supra; Fred L. Strodbeck & Richard D. Mann, Sex Role Differentiation in Jury Deliberations, 19 Sociometry 3 (1956). Other studies have questioned the existence of significant gender differences. See, e.g., Charlan Nemeth, Jeffrey Endicott & Joel Wachtler, From the '50s to the '70s: Women in Jury Deliberations, 39 Sociometry 293 (1976); cf. Nijole Benokraitis & Joyce A. Griffin-Keene, Prejudice and Jury Selection, [1982] J. Black Studies 427, 428-30 (discussing lack of evidence that race or gender influences juror behavior).

¹⁰²Interview with Art Raedeke, Versus Litigation Consulting, San Francisco; see also MacCoun, supra, (arguing that the quality of the lawyers and by extension, the wealth of the litigant may be the major factor in how juries decide cases).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

whether rightly or wrongly -- that their gender, and to a lesser extent, their race, influenced whether or not they were picked for a case. As Table V shows, between 7.3% and 25% of the respondents believed that they were selected in whole or in part because of their gender, and up to 9% of respondents attributed their selection to race.

Table V: Percent Reporting Race, Ethnicity, or Gender Influenced Selection

District	Gender			Race/Ethnicity		
	Yes	No	?	Yes	No	?
Conn.	25	62.5	12.5	0	87.5	12.5
E.D.N.Y.	7.3	85.4	7.3	7.3	80.6	12.1
N.D.N.Y.	12.1	84.9	3	6.1	81.8	12.1
S.D.N.Y.	14.6	72.3	13.1	9.2	70.8	20
W.D.N.Y.	16.4	78.1	5.5	8.2	79.5	12.3
Vt.	25	75	0	0	83.3	16.7

Overall, 11.9% of all jurors surveyed believed that gender was a factor in their selection, and 7.6% thought that race played a role. Women and minorities were more likely than white men to attribute their selection to race or gender: 70% of women thought gender played a role and 59.5% of minorities thought race or ethnicity was a factor in their selection. Although juror perception alone is not conclusive proof that stereotyping occurs in jury selection, this perception is certainly relevant to a determination of whether such stereotyping exists. Because the courts have only a limited ability to police whether lawyers

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

are using stereotypes in exercising their peremptory challenges,¹⁰³ the Task Force believes that this issue merits further study.

The importance of voir dire in combatting stereotyping has been commented upon by Justice Blackmun in J.E.B. v. Alabama ex rel. T.B.:

If conducted properly, voir dire can inform litigants about potential jurors, making reliance upon stereotypical and pejorative notions about a particular gender or race both unnecessary and unwise. Voir dire provides a means of discovering actual or implied bias and a firmer basis upon which the parties may exercise their peremptory challenges intelligently.¹⁰⁴

Expanding the scope of the voir dire has recently become a subject of considerable debate among federal judges. The Advisory Committee on Civil Rules of the United States Judicial Conference considered, but did not propose, a recommendation that lawyers be permitted to conduct voir dire in federal court. However, the Advisory Committee recommended that the Federal Judicial Center include programs on lawyer-conducted voir dire in its educational programs for judges. The Committees believed that stereotyping in jury selection occurs and that one answer is to expand the scope of voir dire to include more lawyer participation. The Task Force believes that, while further study of whether stereotyping occurs in jury selection is appropriate, any decision to alter voir dire practices should be left to the individual district courts and their judges.

¹⁰³In Purkett v. Elem, 115 S. Ct. 1769 (1995), the Court agreed, per curiam, that a peremptory challenge supported by a facially nondiscriminatory reason will not be found to violate the Fourteenth Amendment equal protection clause.

¹⁰⁴114 S.Ct. 1419, 1429 (1994).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

2. Jurors' Perspective on the Role of Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in Court Proceedings.

The responses of jurors to the second and third substantive inquiries -- how they were treated, and how they observed others being treated -- were largely positive. Jurors were virtually unanimous (97.8%) in reporting that no one treated them inappropriately because of their race, ethnicity, or gender. Many were complimentary about the caliber of the courts and the quality of the proceedings. Where a few complaints were reported, more related to gender (1.2%) than to race or ethnicity (0.2%).

Similarly, 96.3% of the jurors surveyed said they had not observed inappropriate conduct by anyone in the courtroom attributable to gender, and only 0.6% responded affirmatively to this question. An even higher percentage -- 97.9% -- reported no untoward incidents involving race or ethnicity. The rest simply did not answer the question.

Table W: Percent Reporting Sexist or Racist Treatment or Occurrences

District	Treatment						Occurrences					
	Gender			Race			Gender			Race		
	Yes	No	?	Yes	No	?	Yes	No	?	Yes	No	?
D. Conn.	0	87.5	12.5	0	87.5	12.5	0	100	0	0	100	0
E.D.N.Y.	0.4	99.2	0.4	0	100	0	3	97	0	0	97	3
N.D.N.Y.	0	100	0	0	100	0	3	97	0	0	97	3
S.D.N.Y.	2.3	95.4	2.3	0	96.9	3.1	0	94.6	5.4	0	96.9	3.1
W.D.N.Y.	2.7	97.3	0	1.4	95.9	2.7	1.4	95.9	2.7	0	95.9	4.1
D. Vt.	0	100	0	0	100	0	0	100	0	0	100	0

From these results, it seems clear that jurors found both their own treatment and that of others to be fair with regard to the issues of concern in this report.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Conclusions:

Based on the data from Chapter Eight, we reach the following conclusions:

- a. The representativeness of jury pools on the basis of gender, race, and ethnicity is a matter that warrants constant vigilance and monitoring.
- b. In some courts, the representation of women and minorities in jury pools is somewhat below what would be expected.
- c. A significant number of jurors who served believe that their gender and, to a lesser extent, their race affected their selection to be jurors.
- d. The nature and scope of jury voir dire can alter the perception that jury selection is in part based on gender, racial, or ethnic stereotyping.
- e. Jurors are not being inappropriately treated based on gender, race, or ethnicity.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter NineComplaints

The aim of any court's grievance procedures should be to provide necessary avenues of redress for persons who suffer untoward treatment of any kind, including biased treatment on the basis of gender, race, or ethnicity, by judges, lawyers, and court employees. Reporting instances of bias is an essential step to identifying and then eradicating biased conduct in the courts of this circuit. The Committees' research, however, suggests that many respondents who have experienced or observed biased treatment by judges, lawyers, and court employees in the Second Circuit have not registered a formal complaint with the courts.¹⁰⁵ Concerned that underreporting of grievances might forestall necessary corrective procedures, the Task Force examined the current complaint procedures available to persons aggrieved by the misconduct of judges, lawyers, and court employees.

A. Complaints about Judges

In 1980, Congress passed the Judicial Councils Reform and Judicial Conduct and Disability Act¹⁰⁶ pursuant to which all federal circuit courts have established a formal complaint mechanism (the "Section 372 complaint mechanism") which can be used to report misconduct by Article III, bankruptcy, and magistrate judges. In the Second Circuit, the

¹⁰⁵Between 1991 and 1995, 371 misconduct complaints were filed against judicial officers, and only 22 raised allegations of race or gender bias. All the bias complaints, like all complaints generally, were dismissed as relating to the merits of the case, frivolous, or unsupported. In fact, 98.6% of all complaints filed are dismissed.

¹⁰⁶28 U.S.C. § 372(c).

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Section 372 complaint mechanism is administered by the Judicial Council and is triggered by one of two methods. First, a complainant can file a verified complaint with the clerk of the Court of Appeals. The complaint is then forwarded to the judge complained of and Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, who screens the complaints and dismisses those that (i) are frivolous, (ii) are outside the scope of Section 372, (iii) relate to the merits of the case, or (iv) have been subject to corrective action by the judge against whom the complaint is registered. Alternatively, a complainant can register a complaint with the Chief Judge who can then inquire of others who may have been present at the time of the alleged misconduct and determine whether their testimony is sufficient independent evidence to proceed with the Section 372 process without the testimony of the complainant. If the independent evidence is insufficient, the complainant is given the option of either dropping the complaint or submitting a verified complaint.

Those complaints that survive this initial screening process are forwarded to a special investigative committee composed of the Chief Judge along with Court of Appeals and district judges appointed in equal numbers by the Chief Judge. The investigative committee, after conducting its investigation, files a report of its findings and recommendations with the Judicial Council. The Judicial Council can sanction the accused judge in a number of ways short of removal from office. Petitions to appeal from the Judicial Council's decision can be made to the United States Judicial Conference.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Despite the confidentiality of this complaint procedure,¹⁰⁷ many focus group and public hearing participants and survey respondents do not file complaints when they observe or experience bias based on gender, race, or ethnicity. Respondents gave a variety of reasons for not reporting misconduct, including the respondent's own belief that a particular incident of biased conduct was simply too trivial to report, and the respondent's concern that filing a complaint would have adverse repercussions for the complainant or would be futile. Other respondents were simply not aware that a complaint procedure existed.

To encourage reporting of incidents of race, ethnicity, and gender bias on the part of judges, the Task Force makes the following recommendations.¹⁰⁸ First, the courts should consider whether the initial screening process, currently administered solely by the Chief Judge, might be expanded to include review by a committee of lawyers. This might enhance public confidence in the complaint process.

Second, whoever performs the initial screening process should be careful not to overlook genuine complaints of gender or race biased conduct which (because of inartful drafting by a complainant not trained in the law) may appear to argue only the merits of the complainant's case. Though no instances of genuine bias complaints being overlooked have

¹⁰⁷The information made public about a complaint is a summary statement that someone has made a complaint about a judge, including the nature of the allegations, and, if dismissed, a statement as to why the complaint was dismissed. Neither the complainant nor the judge is identified.

¹⁰⁸Of course, any attempt to revise the circuit's complaint mechanism must come within the Section 372 framework and the limits imposed by Article II of the U.S. Constitution, which provides that Article III judges can be removed from office only for treason, bribery, or other high crime and misdemeanors.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

been identified, the possibility that this might occur should be kept in mind. Third, to encourage those who may be deterred from registering complaints of misconduct because they fear reprisal, the courts should set out clearly the circuit's rules on the alternative mechanism for triggering the Section 372 process which, as noted, allows a complainant to register a complaint with the chief judge who conducts a preliminary investigation to determine whether there is sufficient independent evidence of misconduct to trigger the Section 372 proceedings.

Finally, the Committee Report notes that the Southern District of New York has a mechanism by which three judges meet periodically with representatives of bar associations to discuss a variety of issues including court administration and the conduct of individual judges. Because this would help identify perceived problems, the Task Force encourages other courts in the circuit to explore the possibility of adopting a similar program.

B. Complaints about Lawyers

Most courts in the circuit have some procedure to register complaints regarding the misconduct of lawyers. Several courts have set up grievance committees comprised of lawyers and judges to address attorney misconduct claims: District of Connecticut -- 11 lawyers (including 5 women and no minorities); Southern District of New York -- 6 judges (including 3 women and 2 minorities); Eastern District of New York -- 4 judges (including no women or minorities); Court of Appeals -- 7 members (including 2 women and no minorities). Additionally, referral to state committees on lawyer grievances is an option in every district. In the District of Vermont, and the Northern and Western Districts of New

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

York, however, such referrals are the only option since those districts have no independent procedures for registering complaints about lawyer misconduct.

However, even where they exist, the district court grievance committees rarely receive reports of misconduct by lawyers. This may be attributable to the fact that many reports of lawyer misconduct are made directly to the judge handling the case, that, in some instances, these grievance committees have no written procedures to handle complaints, and, that in some courts, the committees do not have the authority to review complaints regarding biased conduct by lawyers. The Committees' research revealed wide-spread ignorance of the functioning, procedures, and scope of authority of these district court grievance committees. Not surprisingly, the result is that anyone with a legitimate complaint about lawyer misconduct is currently left in a procedural quagmire.

The Task Force recommends that each court formalize and publicize its policy for registering and investigating complaints of lawyer misconduct.

C. Complaints about Court Employees

No court in this circuit has a formal procedure to receive complaints about discriminatory conduct by court employees. Complaints by court employees against co-workers may be registered through the EEO procedures discussed in Chapter Five. However, others who have been aggrieved by court employees have no formal method of registering their complaint. Instead, they must resort to the informal method of writing to the clerk of the court in the district or bankruptcy court or to the supervisor of the employee or the agency head for whom the employee works.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Any unwillingness of aggrieved persons to report biased conduct creates problems for a court. First, the court cannot take corrective action unless it is made aware that there are problems. Second, the failure to take corrective action can create the perception that the court's inaction is the result of insensitivity to the detrimental affects of biased conduct.

Because any biased conduct on the basis of gender, race, or ethnicity is unacceptable, the Task Force recommends that the courts establish a uniform, formal mechanism to consider complaints about court employees. The Task Force further recommends that the existence of the formal mechanism be publicized and posted where appropriate to ensure public awareness.

Finally, the Task Force recommends that each court in the circuit adopt a rule noting the circuit's disapproval of biased conduct and its intent to take corrective action where appropriate.¹⁰⁹ The Task Force believes that such a rule would (i) decrease the frequency of biased conduct throughout the circuit, and (ii) send a message to those who have been the victims of biased conduct that the circuit does not approve of biased conduct.

¹⁰⁹The Committee Report recommends the following rule:

It shall constitute misconduct for a lawyer to

1. commit, during the representation of a client in the Second Circuit, any verbal or physical discriminatory act, on account of race, ethnicity, or gender if intended to improperly intimidate litigants, jurors, witnesses, court personnel, opposing counsel or other lawyers or to gain a tactical advantage; or
2. to engage, in the course of representing a client in a matter in the Second Circuit, in any continuing course of verbal or physical discriminatory conduct, on account of race, ethnicity, or gender, in dealings with litigants, jurors, witnesses, court personnel, opposing counsel or other lawyers, if such conduct constitutes harassment.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Conclusions:

Based on the data from Chapter Nine, we reach the following conclusions:

- a. Many persons do not file complaints against judges notwithstanding the existence of a possible basis for such a complaint either because they believe the incident too trivial, fear adverse repercussions from filing a complaint, or are unaware of the complaint procedure.
- b. Complaints regarding lawyer misconduct may be made to grievance committees of the circuit's courts, except in the Northern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont. In some districts, state grievance mechanisms are also available.
- c. The authority and procedures of grievance committees, in the districts that have them, are varied and there is little general knowledge by the public and the bar as to the existence of these grievance committees and how they function.
- d. Complaints about the conduct of court employees from co-workers based on gender, race, or ethnicity may be made in each court through existing EEO procedures which will likely be revised in light of the approval of a Model Employment Dispute Resolution Plan in March 1997 by the Judicial Conference of the United States.
- e. No procedures exist to enable members of the public to complain formally of biased conduct committed by court employees.
- f. The adoption by each court of a local rule prohibiting biased related conduct and specifying remedial action would decrease the frequency of biased conduct and send a message of disapproval to those who would engage in it.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Chapter TenConclusions and Recommendations

Based on the foregoing, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions and makes the following recommendations.

I. General Recommendations

1. The Task Force's findings on race and gender fairness in the Second Circuit, together with the Committee Report (Appendix A), the Baruch Report (Appendix B), and the Stoikov Report (Appendix C) should be made available to all judges, non-judicial court personnel, and lawyers.
2. The Judicial Council should adopt guidelines addressing the need to continue to assure gender, racial, and ethnic fairness in the courts.
3. The Judicial Council should appoint a committee to consider and carry out the Task Force's recommendations herein. This committee should also give due consideration to the conclusions and recommendations of the Committee Report to the extent they do not appear in the Task Force Report.
4. The Chief Judge of the Second Circuit or the Judicial Council should take appropriate steps to carry out the Task Force's recommendations with regard to the treatment of court employees and the policies and practices relating to such treatment.

II. Specific Conclusions and RecommendationsA. The Baruch Report

Based on the data from the Baruch study, discussed in Chapter Four, the Task Force reaches following conclusions:

- a. Some biased conduct toward parties and witnesses based on gender or race or ethnicity has occurred on the part of both judges and lawyers.
- b. Biased conduct toward lawyers based on gender or race or ethnicity has occurred to a greater degree.
- c. Most judges believe they have a duty to intervene when biased conduct occurs in the courtroom, whether directed at a lawyer, party, or witness.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

d. Biased conduct toward parties, witnesses, or lawyers based on gender or race or ethnicity is unacceptable, and all participants in Second Circuit courts -- judges, court employees, and lawyers -- must guard against such conduct.

e. Where biased conduct is reported to have been experienced or observed, whether to a major or a minor degree, some uncertainty will inevitably exist as to whether those experiencing or observing the conduct are misperceiving innocent conduct or whether others who fail to observe biased conduct are insensitive to it. Despite the uncertainties just noted, it is significant that far more women than men, particularly white men, report observing biased conduct based on gender, and that far more minorities than whites report observing biased conduct based on race or ethnicity.

f. The perceptions of advantage and disadvantage as between male and female lawyers and as between white and minority lawyers vary widely depending on the race, and to a lesser extent, the gender of those expressing a view.

g. Most lawyers, regardless of gender or race or ethnicity, share the opinion that to whatever extent female and minority lawyers are disadvantaged, the source of that disadvantage is the judge's attitude. The prevalence of this view should be a matter of concern to all judges, and efforts should be made to avoid actions or remarks that might easily be misinterpreted as biased treatment of female or minority lawyers.

Recommendations:

1. Each judge should carefully review and consider the results of the Baruch Report.
2. Judges should consider the following, which may fairly be drawn from the Baruch Report: the number of women and minorities reporting direct observation of observed biased conduct by judges and lawyers occurring in the courts is such that one must conclude that such conduct does occur.
3. Judges should each consider their current practice with respect to intervening when they observe biased conduct occur in their courtrooms. Judges should consider both which types of conduct are biased and when intervention is appropriate.
4. Biased treatment of lawyers, parties, and witnesses is unacceptable, and all participants in Second Circuit courts -- judges, court employees, and lawyers -- must guard against such conduct.
5. All judges should deepen their understanding of what constitutes biased conduct and why some believe certain conduct to be biased and others do not. To this end, the courts

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

should take steps to make judges aware of the differing observations of occurrences of biased conduct and beliefs as to the existence of bias, and of ways to remedy the same through meetings of the judges of the circuit, utilizing such educational materials on this subject as are available at the Federal Judicial Center.

B. The Court as Appointer

From the data discussed in Chapter Five, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

a. A judge-made appointment is a mark of professional prestige and should result from a process that considers the broadest spectrum of candidates. Opportunities for such appointments should be equitably distributed among qualified candidates.

b. Within the Second Circuit, women and minorities are represented as magistrate judges and bankruptcy judges at least to the same degree as their relative percentages as lawyers within the circuit. However, the distribution of women and minorities serving as bankruptcy and magistrate judges varies considerably among districts and in some districts there are none.

c. The percentage of women and minorities appointed to serve in quasi-judicial capacities (special masters, receivers, mediators, and the like) falls below the percentage of women and minority lawyers in the circuit. Similarly, the percentage of women appointed to serve as panel lawyers under the Criminal Justice Act falls below the population of women lawyers in the circuit.¹¹⁰ Although the Committee Report does not find the percentage of women and minorities possessing the requisite expertise relevant to appointment for these positions, for many quasi-judicial appointments, general litigation expertise is sufficient.

d. Of the law clerks selected by judges over the past five years, 47.1% were women and 11.7% were minorities although the representation of women and minority law clerks varied among courts.

e. The Committee Report concluded that women's participation both on bench-bar committees and as invitees and participants at the annual Judicial Conference generally has increased over the last several years, although no concrete data were presented. No specific data were presented regarding minority participation on bench-bar committees, and data presented regarding minority attendance at the Judicial Conference suggest that minorities have consisted of less than 5% of attendees for the past several years.

¹¹⁰Minority CJA appointments were not studied by the Committees since relevant data was not available.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

Recommendations:

1. Notice of openings for the positions of bankruptcy judge and magistrate judge should be widely disseminated. Such notices should, at a minimum, be posted in general newspapers and, unless impracticable, in legal newspapers, including newspapers or periodicals of minority bar associations. The courts should consider endorsing the practice of sending notices to minority and women's bar associations.
2. In selecting members of bankruptcy judge and magistrate judge merit selection panels, appointing authorities should keep in mind the benefits to the judiciary of panels that reflect the diversity of the legal community. Records should be maintained of the gender, race, and ethnicity of merit panelists. Such documentation would assist in determining the effect, if any, that the diversity of such panels has upon the diversity of the resulting appointments.
3. Each court should consider establishing a formal process of: (a) publicizing available quasi-judicial positions; (b) establishing, within each district, a list of qualified persons to serve in such capacities, and adopting a formal policy encouraging judges to appoint lawyers from such a list wherever practicable; and (c) documenting the gender, race, and ethnicity of those appointed in such capacities.
4. Each court should: (a) publish widely the opportunity to serve on Criminal Justice Act ("CJA") panels; (b) document the race, ethnicity, and gender of those currently serving on CJA merit selection panels; and (c) examine the process by which panelists are assigned to individual cases to determine whether women panelists are assigned cases to the same degree as are men. Courts should consider formalizing the method of assigning CJA lawyers to ensure that opportunities for assignment are equitably distributed.
5. As they administer their CJA panels, the district courts should encourage CJA attorneys to provide opportunities for qualified women and minority lawyers seeking experience in federal court to assist them in criminal proceedings.
6. With regard to law clerk selection, the courts should encourage judges to make known to law school deans and professors their interest in a diverse applicant pool, to make certain that their selection criteria do not unfairly restrict the pool, and to seek the assistance of existing law clerks in developing the pool. The courts should also encourage minority internship programs and hold events to encourage minority law clerk applications.
7. Bench-bar committees appointments should reflect the diversity of the legal community. The race, ethnicity, and gender of those currently serving on bench-bar committees should be documented.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

8. Courts should encourage federal judges and the Judicial Conference Planning and Program Committee to distribute invitations to the annual Judicial Conference in an equitable manner, keeping in mind the diversity of the legal community. Courts should consider encouraging bar associations to subsidize lawyer-invitees demonstrating financial need.

C. Court as Employer

From the data discussed in Chapter Six, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

a. Courts and court units have substantial autonomy in employment practices. Court employees, while not generally covered under the federal anti-discrimination statutes, are covered by the Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan ("EEO Plan"), which provides for an EEO Coordinator to monitor equal opportunity issues, make reports, and informally resolve disputes. The EEO Plan provides for resolution of disputes by the chief judge of the court. This Plan, which was supposed to have been implemented by each court in the country, has not been implemented or has been implemented only to a limited degree in the Second Circuit.

b. The Stoikov Report, a statistical study of court employee demographics and employment decisions in 1994 and 1995, reflects that, while situations vary as between courts, women and minorities are not underrepresented in the Second Circuit workforce overall, although women were somewhat underrepresented in promotions and terminations of minorities were greater than expected). Additionally, although there was substantial diversity overall, women and minorities generally do not hold the senior management positions.

c. The overall representation of both women and minorities exceeds their percentages in the circuit's population as a whole.

d. A survey of employees revealed that: (a) substantial numbers of minorities -- about 33% of minority women and 23% of minority men -- believe that slurs, jokes, and negative comments about race, ethnicity, and gender are at least a moderate problem in this circuit; (b) about 30% of the employees are unaware of any EEO policies, and 40% are unaware of procedures to deal with harassment; (c) fear of retaliation inhibits harassment reporting; and (d) most employees, including a majority of white employees, believe that diversity training is needed.

e. Written personnel policies covering equal employment opportunity practices, anti-harassment policy, disciplinary action, hiring, recruitment, performance evaluation, and complaint procedures are an essential foundation for a non-discriminatory workplace.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

f. There are no standard policies covering personnel matters, equal employment issues, or complaint procedures. While such policies exist to some degree in some courts, they are not present circuit-wide, and such policies as do exist are not being effectively communicated.

Recommendations:

1. The courts of the Second Circuit should implement the Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan.
2. Courts should direct employing units to use outreach sources, such as publications and organizations, in hiring so as to facilitate the recruitment of women and minorities.
3. The various employment policies, practices, procedures and manuals should be as uniform as possible throughout the circuit.
4. Courts should adopt or update anti-harassment policies and procedures. The policies and procedures should cover sexual harassment, as well as harassment based on race, religion, national origin, gender, and sexual orientation,¹¹¹ and should be coordinated with the units' equal employment opportunity plans and with grievance policies and procedures.
5. Courts should publicize anti-harassment complaint procedures so that they are accessible and easily used. Because EEO coordinators are the managers responsible for implementing non-discrimination policies within each employing unit, they should be thoroughly trained as to anti-discrimination policy. EEO coordinators be directed to document all bias-related complaints received.
6. For those employment units that are not doing so, the courts should take steps to ensure that programs are established for employees to be made aware of the perceptions and observations of biased conduct and ways to remedy such problems utilizing such educational materials on this subject as are available at the Federal Judicial Center.

¹¹¹Biased treatment on the basis of sexual orientation is not within the mandate of the Task Force Study. However, the Task Force has received a report composed by the Lesbian and Gay Law Association ("LeGal") on the extent to which lawyers observe, experience, or perceive biased treatment on the basis of sexual orientation. LeGal sent surveys to 500 of its members and received 25 responses; some respondents indicated that they had experienced or observed biased treatment on the basis of sexual orientation. The Task Force is of the view that biased treatment based upon any prejudicial stereotyping, including sexual orientation, is impermissible.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

7. Courts should distribute complete personnel manuals, including court policy on diversity and harassment, to all new hires. Any modifications to the manual should be distributed promptly to all employees.
8. Courts should create, review, coordinate, and, where appropriate, standardize their leave policies, including the following: (a) annual leave policy; (b) sick leave policy; (c) disability policy (including maternity); (d) child care leave of absence (maternity/paternity leaves not based on disability); (e) Federal Employee Family Friendly Leave Act; (f) Family and Medical Leave Act; (g) unpaid leave; (h) religious holiday policy; (i) other leaves; (j) part-time/flex-time availability; and (k) child care support programs (e.g., emergency care).
9. Courts should develop, review, and, where appropriate, standardize corrective action policies and procedures. The EEO coordinator should receive a copy of every adverse or corrective employment action.
10. Courts should review the analysis of workforce demographics contained in the Stoikov Report. Such review will permit each employing unit to determine whether there are statistical indicators of possible bias or disparate treatment and, if so, to determine whether corrective action is warranted.
11. A study should be conducted of the diversity and hiring practices of the workforce of the circuit's Court Security Officers.
12. A committee comprised of a representative from each court should be formed to implement the foregoing recommendations and promulgate common policies and practices where possible.

D. Litigants

From the data discussed in Chapter Seven, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

- a. While the circuit's interpretation services are generally excellent given the array of languages for which interpretation is sought and the frequency with which interpretation is required, some language requirements, particularly in lesser populated areas, are not being met.
- b. The interpretation services provided in civil cases initiated by private parties need study.
- c. Assistance to pro se litigants while adequately serving the needs of these litigants

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

in general varies in kind and degree among the courts within the circuit, and a better exchange of information between courts is needed.

d. The Committees have advanced the concern, based largely from lawyers, that some judges disfavor employment discrimination cases and therefore might be treating litigants in those cases less than evenhandedly. We view the existence of such a concern as worrisome.

Recommendations:

1. Courts should promote the use of certified interpreters to the extent possible.
2. A circuit-wide employee should be given the responsibility of responding to requests for interpreters for unusual languages in the rural districts.
3. To minimize the differences in the level and quality of service provided to pro se litigants between the several pro se offices in the circuit, courts should direct that pro se offices share their educational information, including any pro se instructional materials, pamphlets, and sample forms.
4. Courts should appoint pro bono counsel to qualifying pro se litigants, where appropriate and permissible under law, to assist pro se litigants with claims of likely merit.
5. The Judicial Council, in an effort to eliminate gender, race, and ethnic bias in the courts of this circuit, should continue to study biased treatment, including an investigation of the treatment of litigants in employment discrimination cases.
6. Courts should note the concern on the part of some that employment discrimination cases are disfavored by judges and take care that litigants in those cases are treated fairly. Judges should avoid remarks or visible reactions that might create the impression of bias.

E. The Jurors

Based on the data from Chapter Eight, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

- a. The representativeness of jury pools on the basis of gender, race, and ethnicity is a matter that warrants constant vigilance and monitoring.
- b. In some courts, the representation of women and minorities in jury pools is

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

somewhat below what would be expected.

c. A significant number of jurors who served believe whether rightly or wrongly that their gender and, to a lesser extent, their race affected their selection to be jurors.

d. The nature and scope of jury voir dire can alter the perception that jury selection is in part based on gender, racial, or ethnic stereotyping.

e. Jurors are not treated inappropriately based on gender, race, or ethnicity.

Recommendations:

1. Each court should be vigilant and closely monitor the representativeness of its jury pool (with a view to the prevention and early elimination of problems).

2. Courts in which representation of groups based on gender, race, or ethnicity is deficient should determine the cause or causes and take appropriate remedial action.

3. Courts should consider whether to alter voir dire practices to reduce the degree of stereotyping in jury selection based on gender, race, or ethnicity, but the decision as to how to conduct voir dire should remain with the courts and with individual judges.

F. Complaints

Based on the data from Chapter Nine, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

a. Many persons do not file complaints against judges notwithstanding the existence of a possible basis for such a complaint because they believe the incident too trivial, fear adverse repercussions from filing a complaint, consider it futile, or are unaware of the complaint procedure.

b. Complaints regarding lawyer misconduct may be made to grievance committees of the circuit's courts, except in the Northern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont, in addition to state grievance mechanisms.

c. The authority and procedures of grievance committees, in the districts that have them, are varied. There is little general knowledge by the public and the bar as to the existence of these grievance committees and how they function.

DRAFT JUNE 10, 1997

d. Complaints about the conduct of court employees from co-workers based on gender, race, or ethnicity may be made in each court through existing EEO procedures which will likely be revised in light of the approval of a Model Employment Dispute Resolution Plan in March 1997 by the Judicial Conference of the United States.

e. No procedures exist for members of the public to report biased conduct by court employees.

f. The adoption by each court of a local rule prohibiting biased related conduct and specifying remedial action would decrease the frequency of biased conduct and send a message of disapproval to those who would engage in it.

Recommendations:

1. Courts should consider whether to use a lawyer committee to screen complaints against judges by eliminating those that are frivolous and ensuring that meritorious complaints are not withheld out of fear of repercussions.
2. Courts should review existing mechanisms for complaints of attorney misconduct to determine whether they are adequate.
3. Courts should make the public and bar aware of procedures for processing complaints of misconduct by both judges and attorneys.
4. In carrying out the request of the Judicial Conference that they adopt and implement an Employment Dispute Resolution Plan pursuant to the Model Plan, courts should bear in mind the need to accommodate complaints of biased conduct based on gender, race, and ethnicity.
5. Each court should adopt procedures for processing complaints by the public of biased treatment by court employees based on gender, race, or ethnicity and publicize them.
6. Each court should adopt a local rule setting forth unacceptable biased conduct and its intent to take corrective action where appropriate.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

OF THE

**PRELIMINARY DRAFT REPORT OF THE SECOND CIRCUIT TASK FORCE ON
GENDER, RACIAL, AND ETHNIC FAIRNESS
IN THE COURTS**

June 10, 1997

**Hon. Sharon E. Grubin
Co-Chair**

**Hon. John M. Walker, Jr.
Co-Chair**

**Hon. John T. Curtin
Hon. Sterling Johnson, Jr.
Hon. Constance Baker Motley
Hon. Sonia Sotomayor
Ellen Mercer Fallon, Esq.
Fern Schair, Esq.
Sue Ann Shay, S.D.N., Esq.**

Members

June, 1997

**EXECUTIVE SUMMARY
OF THE
PRELIMINARY DRAFT REPORT OF THE SECOND CIRCUIT TASK FORCE
ON GENDER, RACIAL, AND ETHNIC FAIRNESS IN THE COURTS**

Formed in response to a 1992 resolution of the United States Judicial Conference and a 1994 request of Congress, the Second Circuit Task Force on Gender, Racial, and Ethnic Fairness in the Courts (the "Task Force") examined whether, how, and when gender, race, or ethnicity affects the quality or nature of individual experience in the circuit's federal courts. The Task Force looked at both the treatment of those involved in the litigation process as cases were processed through the system and the treatment of court employees -- specifically, whether persons were treated differently based on considerations of race, ethnicity, or gender in ways that differed from the manner in which others were treated and in ways that resulted in some disadvantage.

To avoid the difficulties inherent in asking judges to evaluate themselves, the Task Force asked members of the bar and legal academics to conduct an independent investigation and present their report to the Task Force. Two committees of lawyers, one for gender and the other for race and ethnicity, were formed. In conducting their investigations, the committees used public hearings, focus groups, and interviews. In addition, a social scientist team from the Baruch College of the City University of New York conducted an extensive survey of judges, lawyers, and court employees (the "Baruch Report"). The research included a statistical study of employment practices in the circuit and a survey of jurors with the aid of Price Waterhouse, under the direction of Dr. Judith Stoikov (the "Stoikov Report"), and Louis Harris and Associates, Inc. The Task Force Report utilizes a detailed report by the committees (the "Committee Report") and much of the data underlying it to reach the Task Force's own independent findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

Following an introduction to the Task Force and its objectives in Chapter One, Chapter Two briefly describes the demographic profile of the geographic region that comprises the Second Circuit and the caseload handled by the circuit.

Chapter Three presents data on the gender, race, and ethnicity of circuit, district, bankruptcy, and magistrate judges in the circuit.

Chapter Four summarizes the results of the Baruch Report to understand the extent to which biased behavior occurs or might be thought to be occurring within the courts of the Second Circuit by judges, lawyers, and court employees affecting lawyers, parties, and witnesses. Based on the data from the Baruch Report, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

- a. Some biased conduct toward parties and witnesses based on gender or race or ethnicity has occurred on the part of both judges and lawyers.

- b. Biased conduct toward lawyers based on gender or race or ethnicity has occurred to a greater degree.
- c. Most judges believe that they have a duty to intervene when biased conduct occurs in the courtroom, whether directed at a lawyer, party, or witness.
- d. Biased conduct toward parties, witnesses, or lawyers based on gender or race or ethnicity is unacceptable, and all participants in Second Circuit courts -- judges, court employees, and lawyers -- must guard against such conduct.
- e. Where biased conduct is reported to have been experienced or observed, whether to a major or a minor degree, some uncertainty will inevitably exist as to whether those experiencing or observing the conduct are misperceiving innocent conduct or whether others who fail to observe biased conduct are insensitive to it. Despite these uncertainties, it is significant that far more women than men, particularly white men, report observing biased conduct based on gender, and that far more minorities than whites report observing biased conduct based on race or ethnicity.
- f. The perceptions of advantage and disadvantage as between male and female lawyers and as between white and minority lawyers vary widely depending on the race, and to a lesser extent, the gender of those expressing a view.
- g. Most lawyers, regardless of gender or race or ethnicity, share the opinion that to whatever extent female and minority lawyers are disadvantaged, the source of that disadvantage is the judge's attitude. The prevalence of this view should be a matter of concern to all judges, and efforts should be made to avoid actions or remarks that might easily be misinterpreted as biased treatment of female or minority lawyers.

Based on the conclusions of Chapter Four, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

- 1. Each judge should carefully review and consider the results of the Baruch Report.
- 2. Judges should consider the following, which may fairly be drawn from the Baruch Report: the number of women and minorities reporting direct observation of biased conduct by judges and lawyers in the courts is such that one must conclude that such conduct does occur.
- 3. Judges should consider their current practice with respect to intervening when they observe biased conduct occur in their courtrooms. Judges should consider both which types of conduct are biased and when intervention is appropriate.

4. Biased treatment of lawyers, parties, and witnesses is unacceptable, and all participants in Second Circuit courts -- judges, court employees, and lawyers - must guard against such conduct.
5. All judges should deepen their understanding of what constitutes biased conduct and why some believe certain conduct to be biased and others do not. To this end, courts should take steps to make judges aware of the differing observations of occurrences of biased conduct and beliefs as to the existence of bias, and of ways to remedy the same through meetings of the judges of the circuit, utilizing such educational materials on this subject as are available at the Federal Judicial Center.

Chapter Five discusses the procedures employed by the courts of this circuit in appointing bankruptcy judges, magistrate judges, quasi-judicial officers, including special masters and trustees, Criminal Justice Act attorneys, judicial law clerks, members of bench-bar committees, and Judicial Conference invitees. Based on this data, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

- a. A judge-made appointment is a mark of professional prestige and should result from a process that considers the broadest spectrum of candidates. Opportunities for such appointments should be equitably distributed among qualified candidates.
- b. Within the Second Circuit, women and minorities are represented as magistrate judges and bankruptcy judges at least to the same degree as their relative percentages as lawyers within the circuit. However, the distribution of women and minorities serving as bankruptcy and magistrate judges varies considerably among districts and in some districts there are none.
- c. The percentage of women and minorities appointed to serve in quasi-judicial capacities (special masters, receivers, mediators, and the like) falls below the percentage of women and minority lawyers in the circuit. Similarly, the percentage of women appointed to serve as panel lawyers under the Criminal Justice Act falls below the population of women lawyers in the circuit. Although the Committee Report does not find the percentage of women and minorities possessing the requisite expertise relevant to appointment for these positions, for many quasi-judicial appointments, general litigation expertise is sufficient.
- d. Of the law clerks selected by judges over the past five years, 47.1% were women and 11.7% were minorities, although the representation of women and minority law clerks varied among courts.
- e. The Committee Report concluded that women's participation both on bench-

bar committees and as invitees and participants at the annual Judicial Conference generally has increased over the last several years, although no concrete data were presented. No specific data were presented regarding minority participation on bench-bar committees, and data presented regarding minority attendance at the Judicial Conference suggest that minorities have consisted of less than 5% of attendees for the past several years.

Based on the conclusions of Chapter Five, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

1. Notice of openings for the positions of bankruptcy judge and magistrate judge should be widely disseminated. Such notices should, at a minimum, be posted in general newspapers and, unless impracticable, in legal newspapers, including newspapers or periodicals of minority bar associations. The courts should consider endorsing the practice of sending notices to minority and women's bar associations.
2. In selecting members of bankruptcy judge and magistrate judge merit selection panels, appointing authorities should keep in mind the benefits to the judiciary of panels that reflect the diversity of the legal community. Records should be maintained of the gender, race, and ethnicity of merit panelists. Such documentation would assist in determining the effect, if any, that the diversity of such panels has upon the diversity of the resulting appointments.
3. Each court should consider establishing a formal process of: (a) publicizing available quasi-judicial positions; (b) establishing a list of qualified persons to serve in such capacities, and adopting a formal policy encouraging judges to appoint lawyers from such a list wherever practicable; and (c) documenting the gender, race, and ethnicity of those appointed in such capacities.
4. Each court should: (a) publish widely the opportunity to serve on Criminal Justice Act ("CJA") panels; (b) document the race, ethnicity, and gender of those currently serving on CJA merit selection panels; and (c) examine the process by which panelists are assigned to individual cases to determine whether women panelists are assigned cases to the same degree as are men. Courts should consider formalizing the method of assigning CJA lawyers to ensure that opportunities for assignment are equitably distributed.
5. As they administer their CJA panels, the district courts should encourage CJA attorneys to provide opportunities for qualified women and minority lawyers seeking experience in federal court to assist them in criminal proceedings.
6. With regard to law clerk selection, courts should encourage judges to make known to law school deans and professors their interest in a diverse applicant pool, to make certain that their selection criteria do not unfairly restrict the

pool, and to seek the assistance of existing law clerks in developing the pool. The courts should also encourage minority internship programs and hold events to encourage minority law clerk applications.

7. Bench-bar committees appointments should reflect the diversity of the legal community. The race, ethnicity, and gender of those currently serving on bench-bar committees should be documented.
8. Courts should encourage federal judges and the Judicial Conference Planning and Program Committee to distribute invitations to the annual Judicial Conference in an equitable manner, keeping in mind the diversity of the legal community. Courts should encourage bar associations to subsidize lawyer-invitees demonstrating financial need.

Chapter Six examines the role of the court as an employer. Based on this examination, the Task Force reaches several conclusions:

- a. Courts and court units have substantial autonomy in employment practices. Court employees, while not generally covered under the federal anti-discrimination statutes, are covered by the Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan ("EEO Plan"), which provides for an EEO Coordinator to monitor equal opportunity issues, make reports, and informally resolve disputes. The EEO plan provides for resolution of disputes by the Chief Judge of the court. This Plan, which was supposed to have been implemented by each court in the country, has not been implemented or has been implemented only to a limited degree in the Second Circuit.
- b. The Stoikov Report, a statistical study of court employee demographics and employment decisions in 1994 and 1995, reflects that, while situations vary as between courts, women and minorities are not underrepresented in the Second Circuit workforce overall, although women were underrepresented in promotions and terminations of minorities were greater than expected. Additionally, although there was substantial diversity overall, women and minorities generally do not hold the senior management positions.
- c. The overall representation of both women and minorities exceeds their percentages in the circuit's population as a whole.
- d. A survey of employees revealed that: (a) substantial numbers of minorities -- about 33% of minority women and 23% of minority men -- believe that slurs, jokes, and negative comments about race, ethnicity, and gender are at least a moderate problem in this circuit; (b) about 30% of the employees are unaware of any EEO policies, and 40% are unaware of procedures to deal with harassment; (c) fear of retaliation inhibits harassment reporting; and (d) most

employees, including a majority of white employees, believe that diversity training is needed.

- e. Written personnel policies covering equal employment opportunity practices, anti-harassment policy, disciplinary action, hiring, recruitment, performance evaluation, and complaint procedures are an essential foundation for a non-discriminatory workplace.
- f. There are no standard policies covering personnel matters, equal employment issues, or complaint procedures. While such policies exist to some degree in some courts, they are not present circuit-wide, and existing policies are not effectively communicated.

Based on the data presented in Chapter Six, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

1. Courts of the Second Circuit should implement the Judiciary Model Equal Employment Opportunity Plan.
2. Courts should direct employing units to use outreach sources, such as publications and organizations, in hiring so as to facilitate recruitment of women and minorities.
3. The various employment policies, practices, procedures and manuals should be as uniform as possible throughout the circuit.
4. Courts should adopt or update anti-harassment policies and procedures. The policies and procedures should cover sexual harassment, as well as harassment based on race, religion, national origin, gender, and sexual orientation, and should be coordinated with the units' equal employment opportunity plans and with grievance policies and procedures.
5. Courts should publicize anti-harassment complaint procedures so that they are accessible and easily used. Because EEO coordinators are the managers responsible for implementing non-discrimination policies within each employing unit, they should be thoroughly trained as to anti-discrimination policy. EEO coordinators should be directed to document all bias-related complaints received.
6. For those employment units that are not doing so, the courts should take steps to ensure that programs are established for employees to be made aware of the perceptions and observations of biased conduct and ways to remedy such problems utilizing such educational materials on this subject as are available at the Federal Judicial Center.

7. Courts should distribute complete personnel manuals, including court policy on diversity and harassment, to all new hires. Any modifications to the manual should be distributed promptly to all employees.
8. Courts should create, review, coordinate, and, where appropriate, standardize their leave policies, including the following: (a) annual leave policy; (b) sick leave policy; (c) disability policy (including maternity); (d) child care leave of absence (maternity/paternity leaves not based on disability); (e) Federal Employee Family Friendly Leave Act; (f) Family and Medical Leave Act; (g) unpaid leave; (h) religious holiday policy; (i) other leaves; (j) part-time/flex-time availability; and (k) child care support programs (e.g., emergency care).
9. Courts should develop, review, and, where appropriate, standardize corrective action policies and procedures. The EEO coordinator should receive a copy of every adverse or corrective employment action.
10. Courts should review the analysis of workforce demographics contained in the Stoikov Report. Such review will permit each employing unit to determine whether there are statistical indicators of possible bias or disparate treatment and, if so, to determine whether corrective action is warranted.
11. A study should be conducted of the diversity and hiring practices of the workforce of the circuit's Court Security Officers.
12. A committee comprised of a representative from each court should be formed to implement the foregoing recommendations and promulgate common policies and practices where possible.

Chapter Seven examines the treatment of litigants in the courts of this circuit. Based on the data presented, the Task Force reaches the following conclusions:

- a. While the circuit's interpretation services are generally excellent given the array of languages for which interpretation is sought and the frequency with which interpretation is required, some language requirements, particularly in lesser populated areas, are not being met.
- b. The interpretation services provided in civil cases initiated by private parties need study.
- c. Assistance to pro se litigants while adequately serving the needs of these litigants in general vary in kind and degree among the courts within the circuit and a better exchange of information between courts is needed.
- d. The Committees have reported receiving information, largely from lawyers, to

the effect that some judges disfavor employment discrimination cases and therefore might be treating litigants in those cases less than evenhandedly. We view the existence of such a concern as worrisome.

Based on the data presented in Chapter Seven, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

1. Courts should promote the use of certified interpreters to the extent possible.
2. A circuit-wide employee should be given the responsibility of responding to requests for interpreters for unusual languages in the rural districts.
3. To minimize the differences in the level and quality of service provided to pro se litigants between the several pro se offices in the circuit, courts should direct that pro se offices share their educational information, including any pro se instructional materials, pamphlets, and sample forms.
4. Courts should appoint pro bono counsel to qualifying pro se litigants, where appropriate and permissible under law, to assist pro se litigants with claims of likely merit.
5. The Judicial Council, in an effort to eliminate gender, race, and ethnic bias in the courts of this circuit, should continue to study biased treatment, including an investigation of the treatment of litigants in employment discrimination cases.
6. Courts should note the concern on the part of some that employment discrimination cases are disfavored by judges and take care that litigants in those cases are treated fairly. Judges should avoid remarks or visible reactions that might create the impression of bias.

Chapter Eight presents data collected on the treatment of jurors. The following conclusions are drawn:

- a. The representativeness of jury pools on the basis of gender, race, and ethnicity is a matter that warrants constant vigilance and monitoring.
- b. In some courts, the representation of women and minorities in jury pools is somewhat below what would be expected.
- c. A significant number of jurors who served believe that their gender and, to a lesser extent, their race affected their selection to be jurors.
- d. The nature and scope of jury voir dire can alter the perception that jury

selection is in part based on gender, racial, or ethnic stereotyping.

- e. Jurors are not treated inappropriately based on gender, race, or ethnicity.

Based on the data presented in Chapter Eight, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

1. Each court should be vigilant and closely monitor the representativeness of its jury pool (with a view to the prevention and early elimination of problems).
2. Courts in which representation of groups based on gender, race, or ethnicity is deficient should determine the cause or causes and take appropriate remedial action.
3. Courts should consider whether to alter voir dire practices to reduce the degree of stereotyping in jury selection based on gender, race, or ethnicity, but the decision as to how to conduct voir dire should remain with the courts and with individual judges.

Chapter Nine details the procedures available for registering complaints for conduct based on gender, race, or ethnic bias and reaches the following conclusions:

- a. Many persons do not file complaints against judges notwithstanding the existence of a possible basis for such a complaint because they believe the incident too trivial, fear adverse repercussions from filing a complaint, consider it futile, or are unaware of the complaint procedure.
- b. Complaints regarding lawyer misconduct may be made to grievance committees of the circuit's courts, except in the Northern and Western Districts of New York and the District of Vermont, in addition to state grievance mechanisms.
- c. The authority and procedures of grievance committees, in the districts that have them, are varied. There is little general knowledge by the public and the bar as to the existence of these grievance committees and how they function.
- d. Complaints about the conduct of court employees from co-workers based on gender, race, or ethnicity may be made in each court through existing EEO procedures which will likely be revised in light of the approval of a Model Employment Dispute Resolution Plan in March 1997 by the Judicial Conference of the United States.
- e. No procedures exist for members of the public to report biased conduct committed by court employees.

- f. The adoption by each court of a local rule prohibiting biased related conduct and specifying remedial action would decrease the frequency of biased conduct and send a message of disapproval to those who would engage in it.

Based on the data collected in Chapter Nine, the Task Force makes several recommendations:

1. Courts should consider whether to use a lawyer committee to screen complaints against judges by eliminating those that are frivolous and ensuring that meritorious complaints are not withheld out of fear of repercussions.
2. Courts should review existing mechanisms for complaints of attorney misconduct to determine whether they are adequate.
3. Courts should make the public and bar aware of procedures for processing complaints of misconduct by judges and attorneys.
4. In carrying out the request of the Judicial Conference that they adopt and implement an Employment Dispute Resolution Plan pursuant to the Model Plan, courts should bear in mind the need to accommodate complaints of biased conduct based on gender, race, and ethnicity.
5. Each court should adopt procedures for processing complaints by the public of biased treatment by court employees based on gender, race, or ethnicity and publicize them.
6. Each court should adopt a local rule setting forth unacceptable biased conduct and its intent to take corrective action where appropriate.

Chapter Ten assembles all of the foregoing conclusions and recommendations. In addition, the Task Force makes the following general recommendations:

1. The Task Force's findings on race and gender fairness in the Second Circuit, together with the Committee Report (Appendix A), the Baruch Report (Appendix B), and the Stoikov Report (Appendix C) should be made available to all judges, court personnel, and lawyers.
2. The Judicial Council should adopt guidelines addressing the need to continue to assure gender, racial, and ethnic fairness in the courts.
3. The Judicial Council should appoint a committee to consider and carry out the Task Force's recommendations herein. This committee should also give due consideration to the conclusions and recommendations of the Committee Report to the extent they do not appear in this Task Force Report.

4. The Chief Judge of the Second Circuit or the Judicial Council should take appropriate steps to carry out the Task Force's recommendations with regard to the treatment of court employees and the policies and practices relating to such treatment.

REPORT OF THE

ADVISORY PANEL

ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

COMMISSIONER MARGARITA ROSA,
CHAIR

AUGUST 16, 1991

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MARGARET ROSS
COMMISSIONER

August 16, 1991

Dear Governor Cuomo:

I am pleased to submit to you the Report of the Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations. You will recall that I convened this group of distinguished New Yorkers last year at your behest, in order to explore how the State of New York might assist in reducing tensions and fostering positive inter-group relations in New York City. The results of the panel's work, including a number of recommendations for concrete action, are enclosed. We hope that you will find them useful.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Margarita Rosa".

Margarita Rosa
Chair, Advisory Panel on
Inter-Group Relations

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONSINTRODUCTION

In June 1990, in the wake of a sharp increase in incidents of bias-related violence in New York City, Commissioner Margarita Rosa of the New York State Division of Human Rights (DHR) convened, at the behest of Governor Mario Cuomo, an Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations. The membership of the panel was drawn from the full spectrum of those groups which contribute to the cultural diversity of New York City.

The Advisory Panel was convened at a time when intense media attention was being paid to racial and ethnic tensions in New York City, particularly in relation to two incidents in Brooklyn: the tragic murder of a young African-American in Bensonhurst, and the emotion-charged boycott of two Korean-American produce stores on Church Avenue. The panel's mandate was to examine ways in which the State could help to reduce tensions and foster positive inter-group relations among New York City's diverse population.

At the first two panel meetings, members engaged in vigorous discussion as to the parameters of their mission. They concluded that intervention in individual situations was not the panel's task; nor had the group been convened to explore the impact of Federal or local issues, such as allegations of police misconduct.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Furthermore, there was a sense of frustration among Advisory Panel members that any proposals would be difficult to make in the abstract. Many public and private entities already had made specific proposals to address problems of bias violence which had yet to be implemented.

Given these discussions and mindful of its own limitations, the panel chose to define its mission as identifying major issues which contribute to inter-group discord and violence and, where possible, providing concrete recommendations as to how the State could address these issues. The panel then reached a consensus that a lack of economic opportunity, particularly in minority communities, is a major factor underlying strained inter-group relations. The panel also agreed that a lack of multicultural inclusion in the public school curriculum can lead to intolerance, and ultimately to aggressive, even violent behavior among diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural groups.

In view of these preliminary deliberations, the Advisory Panel chose to focus on two specific areas of concern: economic development and youth-related issues, especially teaching young people to respect difference. Because the backgrounds of most panel members more strongly reflected expertise in the latter set of issues, the panel concentrated its investigatory and fact-finding efforts primarily in the realm of economic development.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations makes the following recommendations:

- * That the State of New York institute a centralized information system that would enable aspiring entrepreneurs -- especially minority entrepreneurs -- to access, with a single telephone call or visit, information about all relevant State programs that could assist them.
- * That the State of New York institute a comprehensive strategy to facilitate ongoing communication among existing State agency programs to assist aspiring minority entrepreneurs, and to disseminate information about those programs to the target communities as quickly and effectively as possible.
- * That New York State designate a specific agency to identify and develop specific proposals to tap alternative funding sources, including Federal, corporate, and foundation monies, for community-based

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

organizations. In addition, the Advisory Panel recommends that New York State place special emphasis in its own applying for Federal funds on those programs which permit the State to re-distribute grant monies to community-based organizations.

- * That the State of New York take a leadership role in devising initiatives needed to implement educational programs which promote positive multicultural relations and stress respect and appreciation of diversity.
- * That the New York State Legislature immediately enact the Bias-Related Violence and Intimidation Act.
- * That the State Human Rights Law be amended to add sexual orientation to those bases for which discrimination in employment, housing, and public accommodations is prohibited.
- * That the Governor and relevant State agency officials press the Federal government to augment its human and civil rights programs -- specifically to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1991 -- and maintain a close and constant review of Federal activity in the civil rights arena as it affects New York State.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

The Advisory Panel also wishes to commend the following efforts:

- * The work of the Crisis Prevention Unit of the Division of Human Rights; and
- * Outreach programs instituted by prosecutors' offices which are specifically aimed at reducing inter-group tensions. Other prosecutors' offices are urged to institute similar programs.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Having identified economic empowerment through equal opportunity as a critical component in creating and maintaining sound inter-group relations, the Advisory Panel decided to gather information on existing State efforts in this area. It established fact-finding subcommittees, and invited the following representatives of New York State government entities to deliver presentations about the efforts of their agencies toward economic development and empowerment of minority communities:

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

- * Lee Webb, Executive Vice President, New York State Urban Development Corporation (UDC);
- * Denise Pease, Deputy Superintendent, New York State Banking Department;
- * Al Bass, Assistant Director of Business Services Bureau, Department of Economic Development -- Business Services Bureau, New York State Governor's Office of Minority and Women's Business Development;
- * Armando Martinez, Special Assistant to the Commissioner for Fair Housing, New York State Division of Human Rights (DHR);
- * Grace Lyu-Volckhausen, Director of Minority Program Evaluation, State of New York Mortgage Agency (SONYMA), and a member of the panel; and
- * Anthony Dais, Deputy Commissioner for Community Services, New York State Department of Labor.

Programs to Assist Entrepreneurs

UDC's Lee Webb reported that since 1986, that agency has expanded its focus to include two new program areas: investment in economically distressed communities, and development of minority- and women-owned business. The first program area emphasizes creation of jobs by sponsoring physical improvements through grants

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

or loans for renovation or new construction. These loans can assist small business owners in the study, planning, and creation of small development projects, or help store owners with commercial facade improvements.

The second new program area for UDC emphasizes businessperson development, specifically the direct stimulation of minority- and women-owned businesses, from start-up to expansion. Over the last three-and-one-half years, loans to minority businesses have comprised the single largest number of loans by UDC.

There are four types of loans offered by UDC to aspiring minority entrepreneurs. The first type are loans to minority and female individuals who can come to UDC directly for loans ranging from \$75,000 to \$500,000 to assist their efforts to build their own businesses. The second type are loans ranging from \$20,000 to \$75,000 to countywide community-based organizations which have independent boards of directors comprised of at least half women and/or members of minority groups, and at least half of whom have banking experience. These organizations then determine actual grants to businesses.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

In the third type of loan, a "micro" loan, UDC makes deposits into community development credit unions at an interest rate of two percent. Loans from these credit unions to entrepreneurs range from \$2,000 to \$12,000. The fourth type of loan involves UDC and the New York State Department of Economic Development making grants to community organizations and technical assistance providers to provide technical assistance to aspiring entrepreneurs.

Denise Pease of the Banking Department reported to the panel on the Federal Community Redevelopment Act (CRA) under which her department monitors banks on their involvement in redeveloping the communities from which they draw their deposits. A dozen factors go into making this assessment, including participation in community and economic development efforts, mortgage lending practices, establishment of automatic teller machines, and branch locations and closings. A poor CRA rating weighs heavily against a lending institution when it applies to the department for other privileges, e.g., opening a new branch.

The Banking Department also has an assistance center that entrepreneurs can call to see who provides what service. When a bank or other lending institution rejects a minority loan applicant, the Department encourages the institution to refer the customer to UDC.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Al Bass of the Governor's Office of Minority and Women's Business Development reported that his office serves three functions: it certifies that minority- and women-owned businesses are bona fide, so that they can participate in State contract competition; its Agency Services Bureau assists entrepreneurs in introductions to appropriate State agencies; and its Business Assistance and Development unit refers businesses that need assistance to appropriate resources, such as UDC's Minority Revolving Loan Fund and Small Business Development Centers.

The office has no grant money of its own to provide, but has compiled a database of grants and loans available from other sources. It also assists in matching businesses with appropriate financial institutions; tries to interest banks in minority community economic development; and conducts forums to introduce entrepreneurs to foreign investors.

Programs to Assist Home Buyers

In addition to the above-cited programs, which are aimed at entrepreneurs, the panel also heard presentations from two State agency representatives about efforts to assist minority home buyers.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Armando Martinez reported that the Division of Human Rights is creating an outreach program to advise community fair housing groups about the availability of data compiled pursuant to the CRA and the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act that can indicate discriminatory lending patterns.

Grace Lyu-Volckhausen reported that her division at SONYMA serves two functions: bringing the programs of SONYMA to the attention of minority communities, and evaluating SONYMA's activities as to their effectiveness in reaching New York business communities and others in economically disadvantaged communities.

The Home Buyers Program offers a first-time home buyer mortgage money at two percent below market rate. In order to qualify for a SONYMA loan, one must meet a maximum income limit which is decided within various regions in New York State by the Federal Government. Target areas are also determined by the Federal Government, based on Census tract income data. SONYMA also has a Mortgage Insurance Program which offers mortgage insurance to housing projects when a residential, mixed residential/business, or special needs (e.g., seniors or people with AIDS) project has difficulty in obtaining mortgage insurance coverage.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONSA Common Thread

Through these fact-finding presentations during its first six months of operation, the Advisory Panel learned that although there exists a battery of both public and private agency programs with the objective of empowering minorities through economic development -- some of them excellent -- these already-available services are underutilized by the targeted populations. There appear to be three concrete reasons why this occurs: 1) a lack of awareness in targeted communities about how and where to obtain information; 2) the relative inaccessibility of the pertinent information, due to its fragmented nature; and 3) the lack of coordination among the public agency programs. The Advisory Panel identified a consistent problem that leads to this situation: a lack of effective outreach to target communities, resulting in underutilization of well-intentioned programs and services.

The Multi-Service Center Concept

As an initial response to these agency presentations, members of the Advisory Panel discussed how a public/private partnership might address economic development of minority entrepreneurs. One possible result of such a partnership, it was theorized, could be a centralized multi-service center in New York City, specifically designed to serve budding minority businesspeople. Such a center

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

would be professionally staffed, and would showcase the full range of programs offered by public and private agencies which are committed to fostering the growth and economic development of minority communities.

This concept seemed to have some parallels with an existing effort by the New York State Department of Labor (DOL). To explore the similarities and differences -- and the possibility of "piggybacking" onto DOL's program, to save resources -- DOL was invited to send a representative to the panel's November 1990 meeting. In return, DOL's Deputy Commissioner Anthony Dais offered to host the meeting at that agency's 23rd Street Community Service Center in Manhattan, so that the panel might see first-hand a community service center in operation.

The panel found that DOL's community service centers do indeed facilitate economic development by providing a multitude of services and programs -- unemployment insurance, job referrals, training, counseling, computerized directories of job openings -- at one location. The focus, though, is on those looking for employment, rather than those seeking to start their own businesses.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONSRECOMMENDATIONS - ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

In the key area of economic development, the Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations makes the following recommendations:

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the State of New York institute a centralized information system that would enable aspiring entrepreneurs -- especially minority entrepreneurs -- to access, with a single telephone call or visit, information about all relevant State programs that could assist them.

There are existing models from which such a system might be derived, ranging from the City of New York's "NY-MAGIC" program to the State of New York's "GATEWAY" program. For New York State, incorporation into the Department of Labor's existing operation may be the most cost-effective and feasible method of achieving this goal -- and the Advisory Panel is most mindful of the fiscal constraints under which the State is operating. Further study is advisable to determine whether grafting the Advisory Panel's proposed system onto DOL's program would be the most effective route in terms of both cost-saving and reaching the intended audience.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

But the panel also wishes to emphasize its belief that community-based organizations (CBOs) are the most effective instrument for delivering information to targeted communities. The panel recommends that State agencies involved in minority economic empowerment provide training about the services they offer to CBOs, which would in turn provide actual staffing for a multi-service center, within DOL or elsewhere.

The ultimate goal of any such center would be to have the greatest possible number of people utilize available services. But would-be businesspeople do not automatically think of the Department of Labor when seeking assistance, and the panel's meeting with DOL made it clear that even many prospective job-seekers were not aware of that agency's programs, due to lack of resources for outreach. Clearly, without a truly effective communication strategy, any effort would be to no avail.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the State of New York institute a comprehensive strategy to facilitate communication among existing State agency programs to assist aspiring minority entrepreneurs, and to disseminate information about those programs to the target communities as quickly and effectively as possible.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Public information officers of the agencies involved in minority business development should be invited to meet and talk with members of the ethnic press. An effort should be made to create a half-hour television documentary about DOL's community service centers, to get the word out to the public about the services they provide.

Funding, of course, is a constantly pressing question for the CBOs that would disseminate information about existing State programs. Here, too, the State can be of assistance.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that New York State designate a specific agency to identify and develop specific proposals to tap alternative funding sources, including Federal, corporate, and foundation monies, for community-based organizations. In addition, the Advisory Panel recommends that New York State place special emphasis in its own applying for Federal funds on those programs which permit the State to re-distribute grant monies to community-based organizations.

Given the existence of Federal block grants to the States, New York State should make a special effort to secure those grants that allow for distribution to community-based organizations. CBOs are

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

our basic unit of community communication and economic development on the local level. If the State is unable to adequately fund their efforts with its own revenues, it should be an active participant in seeking other monies which may be available.

RECOMMENDATIONS: BIAS VIOLENCE AND INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

In addition to the economic development area, the Advisory Panel spent some time reviewing the overriding issue of inter-group violence as it relates to education and youth issues. The recent surge in youth-initiated bias violence is alarming; by some accounts, 75 percent of the perpetrators of such crimes are under the age of 25. From their own experiences, panel members have identified a failure to teach young people to respect difference, backed by a monocultural emphasis and the lack of cultural diversity awareness in the educational system, as a contributor to racial, ethnic, and other inter-group intolerance among the young.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the State of New York take a leadership role in devising initiatives needed to implement educational programs which promote positive multicultural relations and stress respect and appreciation of diversity.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

While there are some such efforts underway, to date they appear to be fragmentary in nature. There must be a coordinated effort from the top to reach the hearts and minds of our young people before they learn to hate others because those others are somehow different from themselves. New York can set an example by ensuring that its State University institutes such programs in its curriculum, and that such programs are a continuing component of a SUNY education.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the New York State Legislature immediately enact the Bias-Related Violence and Intimidation Act.

The continued failure of the Legislature to pass this measure, when in the last year alone such states as New Jersey, New Hampshire, and Iowa have done so, is a stain on New York's record as a leader among states in human and civil rights. Once violence against anyone is accepted as an expression of opposition to difference, a society's foundations are undermined. These crimes must receive special attention from government.

The inclusion of sexual orientation as a protected category in the bias bill is widely viewed as the reason why it has yet to be enacted. This focus on sexual orientation in the debate obscures

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

the fact that bias violence is affecting a broad array of groups. Violence against racial, ethnic, and religious groups is also on the rise, as the aforementioned Bensonhurst murder and escalating anti-Asian attacks, for example, illustrate.

In the context of the proposed legislation, the Advisory Panel also would like to point out a lack of consciousness concerning bias-related violence based on gender. For example, earlier this year, several women were attacked with pins or needles at Penn Station in Manhattan. Clearly these victims were singled out as women, but these acts are not being viewed as bias-related crimes. New York State's Bias-Related Violence and Intimidation Act should include gender among its protected categories.

Emphasis on the broad reach of the bias bill is not meant to minimize the problem of violence against lesbians and gay men. At the very first meeting of the Advisory Panel, members requested a special report on the subject of gay-bashing, which was presented at the July 1990 meeting by Lance Ringel, then Director of the Office of Lesbian and Gay Concerns for DHR, and by panel member Paula Ettelbrick of Lambda Legal Defense and Education Fund. The panel heard that there is an extra dimension to violence against lesbians and gay men that may not be present in other acts of bias violence -- a belief that in perpetrating these crimes, the

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

attacker is reinforcing his value system. The point must be made that those whose beliefs cause them to be intolerant of the very existence of gay people cannot be allowed to express their disapproval by acts of violence.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the State Human Rights Law be amended to add sexual orientation to those bases for which discrimination in employment, housing, and public accommodations is prohibited.

The silence of the law on the issue of discrimination based on sexual orientation is one part of a social construct that seems to give tacit encouragement not only to discrimination but to violence as well. Recent events in the Persian Gulf, in which the Armed Forces suspended its policy of homosexuality being incompatible with military service -- but only for the duration of hostilities -- underscored the hollowness of a position that only allows lesbians and gay men to serve their country if shooting is actively taking place.

- * The Advisory Panel commends the work of the Crisis Prevention Unit of the Division of Human Rights.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

In the absence of a bias bill, New York State has not waited to address bias violence. The Crisis Prevention Unit (CPU) of the Division of Human Rights was created in 1988 to provide an immediate response team to inter-group tension situations across the state. Despite a relatively small staff of ten people, the CPU was able to follow through in many situations, allowing the State to play a constructive role in decreasing inter-group tensions. Unfortunately, in late 1990, fiscal constraints mandated that the CPU staff be cut to six people.

As already noted, the panel is keenly aware of the fiscal realities facing the State. But the CPU gives DHR -- and the State of New York -- a unique capability not duplicated elsewhere within the government. The CPU's work with police departments across the state -- urging both police and prosecutors' offices to create distinct units for addressing bias-related crimes -- has been especially vital, coming as it does at a time when tensions between various minority communities and police are spiraling. Funds must be found to continue and enhance these kinds of efforts -- and not at the expense of the Division's regular caseload of Human Rights Law complaints.

- * The Advisory Panel commends outreach programs instituted by prosecutors' offices which are specifically aimed at

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

reducing inter-group tensions, and urges that other prosecutors' offices institute similar programs.

Frictions between minority communities and the justice system are not limited to police. Issues between groups often turn on a perception of unequal law enforcement, as witness the ongoing tensions between the Hispanic and Hasidic communities in the Williamsburg section of Brooklyn.

In such a climate, prosecutors' offices can play a critical role in improving inter-group relations. As part of its outreach to reduce inter-group tensions in Brooklyn, the Kings County District Attorney's office has created several advisory councils representing major constituencies which historically have been subject to discrimination. In addition, that office's "Adopt-A-School" program has sought to place assistant district attorneys and other staff in Brooklyn schools, where they can help to teach students about the justice system, and also serve as role models. These are low-budget programs that make excellent models for other prosecutors' offices.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONSA CHANGED CLIMATE

From the time the panel was created until the submission of this final report, a pronounced change has occurred in the social climate of the United States of America. A war and an economic recession have taken place; the repercussions of both will be felt for years to come. In New York City, there constantly seem to be other explosive issues -- the question of condom distribution in schools, and the ugliness surrounding the St. Patrick's Day parade, to name but two recent examples -- that need to be watched because they create a deep divisiveness in our society.

In the area of civil and human rights, the most obvious and immediate ramification of the Persian Gulf conflict on the home front was the sad and alarming upsurge in discrimination against Arab-Americans. But the overrepresentation of people of color in the Armed Forces also became an issue -- and one which is closely tied to the economic situation.

In times of economic difficulty like those currently affecting New York City, New York State, and the country, members of historically disadvantaged communities are disproportionately losing their jobs. Public spending cuts also impact disproportionately on minorities, both as clients and as employees.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

In this context, the position of the President of the United States on the proposed Civil Rights Act of 1991 is not irrelevant to the question of inter-group relations. This act would, among other things, overturn the standard imposed by a 1989 Supreme Court decision which shifted the burden of proof in discrimination cases from the employer to the employee. In 1990, President Bush vetoed the Civil Rights Act -- and in 1991, he continues to oppose it -- on the grounds that it would promote hiring and promotion "quotas". This argument is based on ideology rather than the actual language of the proposed law -- which specifically states that nothing in the law should be construed as requiring that employers impose quotas.

The negative implications of this Federal stance for the people of New York State are profound. To the extent that there is Federal retrenchment on civil rights, the role of agencies like DHR becomes increasingly important. This State has a very progressive law. When people have less money, and cannot afford to go to court, they will come to DHR. And if people believe that they have no place to turn at all, sound inter-group relations are jeopardized.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Minorities and women essentially have been told by the Federal government and the courts that their civil rights cannot be adequately protected. A climate has been created over the last ten years that says, "Enough's enough. Turn back the clock. It's time for the dominant culture to reassert its dominance." But a combination of social factors dictates that the President support adoption of the Civil Rights Act of 1991 -- not in diluted form, but in a form which really protects the needs of women and racial and religious minorities in this country. New York State must make itself heard more forcefully on this matter.

- * The Advisory Panel recommends that the Governor and relevant State agency officials press the Federal government to augment its human and civil rights programs -- specifically to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1991 -- and maintain a close and constant review of Federal activity in the civil rights arena as it affects New York State.

A strong statement from the State of New York on this Federal legislation is of critical importance. This is one legislative item which does not impact on the budget, and involves no appropriations at this point. There is no reason why New York State cannot lobby the Federal government on civil and human rights as it does in matters of housing and banking.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONSCONCLUSION

The Governor's Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations has been the first entity to survey and assess the range of New York State agency programs and services relating to economic development in minority communities -- especially in terms of their effectiveness in reaching targeted communities -- in light of their impact on alleviating inter-group tensions. Coordination of and communication about existing programs must be improved in order to spread the impact of the State's limited resources in the most cost-effective manner.

The Advisory Panel wishes to commend Commissioner Margarita Rosa and the DHR staff (notably Nadia Martinez, Yvette Gaynor, and Lance Ringel, principal author of this report) for the support they have provided for our work. We thank the Governor for giving us the opportunity to review current efforts to improve inter-group relations, and to make concrete recommendations for further State actions in this critical area.

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY PANEL ON INTER-GROUP RELATIONS**Footnotes**

In the inevitable interim that occurs between approval of final language by an entity like the Advisory Panel on Inter-Group Relations and submission of its final report, events occur which relate directly to the report's content, and indeed to its recommendations. Three such events occurred in this case, which should be duly noted:

1. On April 23, 1991, Governor Mario Cuomo introduced legislation to amend the State Human Rights Law to add sexual orientation as a protected category. The State Legislature adjourned in July without taking action on the bill.

2. On June 4, 1991, Governor Cuomo issued a strongly worded statement calling on President Bush and the U.S. Congress to enact into law H.R. 1, the Civil Rights Bill of 1991.

3. On June 13, 1991, a Social Studies Syllabus Review and Development Committee appointed by Commissioner Thomas Sobol of the New York State Education Department submitted a report to the Board of Regents entitled "One Nation, Many Peoples: A Declaration of Cultural Interdependence." On July 15, Governor Cuomo and Commissioner Sobol issued statements about the report, which continues to be the subject of extensive public discussion.

Circuit Report on Bias Urges Court Reforms

Policies, Training Among Recommendations

BY DEBORAH PINES

A MASSIVE 2 1/4-year examination of bias issues in federal courts in the Second Circuit has resulted in a draft report yesterday calling for more sensitivity training for judges, court employment anti-bias policies, and greater outreach to women and minority lawyers when making coveted court appointments such as those of special masters and trustees.

The 122-page report, from a nine-member committee dominated by judges, based its recommendations on a dizzying array of statistical and anecdotal findings and a commitment to root out conscious or unconscious forms of bias. "The most pernicious kind of bias consists in falsely supposing yourself to have none," the report states at the outset, quoting an English educator, Sir Walter Moberly.

Next week, the report and additional findings and recommendations by an advisory committee of lawyers will be submitted to the Second Circuit Judicial Council, the governing body of the Second Circuit courts, which requested such a report in 1993. The Council could act immediately on any of its recommendations or wait until the document is rewritten following a public comment period that ends Sept. 1.

One task force co-chair, Second Circuit Judge John M. Walker Jr., yesterday was optimistic the judicial council ultimately will act on at least some of the recommendations.

Judge Walker noted the task force was mindful of criticisms leveled against earlier bias reports from the D.C. Circuit and the California-based Ninth Circuit by judges and conserva-

Bias Task Force Recommendations

- 1. Increase judges' awareness and understanding of bias
- 2. Consider formalizing processes for appointment of quasi-judicial officers such as special masters and trustees
- 3. Provide wider notice of openings for bankruptcy and magistrate judges, law clerks, Criminal Justice Act panelists and bench-bar committee members
- 4. Encourage more women and minority appointment panel members
- 5. Increase diversity in Second Circuit Judicial Conference guest lists and bar group subsidies for needy invitees

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SECOND CIRCUIT APPOINTMENTS OF WOMEN, MINORITIES — PAGE 4

tive politicians including U.S. Senator Charles E. Grassley, R-Iowa, who criticized the expense and methodology of the earlier projects.

But Judge Walker noted the Second Circuit task force focused on bias issues it can reasonably address and not topics such as bias in law firms or presidential appointments. He also noted the Second Circuit report, which mostly stemmed from the work of hundreds of volunteer lawyers, cost less than \$250,000 in public money, most of which was spent on survey, polling, travel and printing expenses and the costs of public hearings.

Another task force co-chair, South-

Inflation Data Allowed in Damage Cases

Appeals Court Highlights

The Second Circuit of Appeals

Permits Expert Testimony

BY GARY SPENCER

ALBANY — In an important ruling

required by CPLR 5041(e) would give plaintiffs a double recovery if they are permitted to present evidence on inflation. The Court said precluding such testimony "would erode the compensatory nature of damages awards since inflation

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in structured judgment cases, since the periodic payment statutes apply only to awards of future damages that exceed \$250,000 and the amount of a future damage award "cannot be determined in advance of a verdict."

"Such a rule would require juries to be instructed in a very confusing alternative," the Court said, and could place plaintiffs who receive less than \$250,000 "at a distinct disadvantage." It said, "It is improbable that the Legislature intended to produce this inequity and to introduce this confusion."

The plaintiff was represented by Buffalo attorney Robert B. Nichols and the defendant by Herbert Rubin of Herzfeld & Rubin in Manhattan.

In *Buckley v. National Freight Inc.*, No. 109, the Court held that a claim for loss of consortium should be joined with the injured spouse's personal injury action "whenever possible" and that settlement of the main action will generally bar a subsequent loss of consortium claim.

The unanimous opinion by Judge Richard C. Wesley affirmed an order of the Appellate Division, Second Department, which dismissed a \$5 million loss of consortium claim brought by a Long Island man in an independent suit after his wife's personal injury action was settled for \$1.9 million and future payments.

But it overturned case law in the First Department, where the Appellate Division has held that loss of consortium is a separate cause of action "personal to the deprived spouse" and need not be joined with the main action.

"The requirement of joinder is consistent with the view that a loss of consortium claim represents an injury to the marital relationship," Judge Wesley wrote, and claims by both spouses should be asserted in the same action "so that the trial court can accurately assess the extent of any injury."

He said this approach "conserves judicial resources and tends to discourage sharp litigation practices" and is consistent with most other states that have addressed the question.

Joinder would be impossible if the injured party settles and releases her claim without the knowledge of her spouse, the Court said, but the plaintiff in *Buckley* "stood by throughout with full knowledge of his wife's action." It was the plaintiff's burden to assert his loss of consortium claim before his wife's claim was settled, it said. "Having failed to do so, he must bear the consequences."

State Bar Forms Unit For Mandatory CLE

ALBANY — The State Bar Association announced this week the forma-

2d Circuit Report on Bias Issued

Continued from page 1, column 6

ern District Magistrate Judge Sharon E. Grubin, said assembling the report has had salutary effects. "Interviewing people has already made people aware of problems they weren't aware of before and started the process rolling," she said.

Key findings in the Second Circuit report include:

- Differing perceptions of bias among 614 lawyers interviewed. As one example, while 10.4 percent of white male lawyers reported observing gender bias against lawyers by judges, 35.8 percent of white female lawyers, 30.5 percent of minority male lawyers and 47.2 percent of minority female lawyers reported having witnessed such bias.

- Underrepresentation of women and minorities in quasi-judicial posts, including special masters, trustees and receivers. While women constitute at least 27 percent and minorities at least 6.8 percent of the Second Circuit's lawyers, white men received 80 percent of such appointments since 1992.

- Growing numbers of women and minority law clerks and magistrate judges circuit-wide, although percentages are not uniform among the circuit's courts. Of 433 law clerks, hired since 1992, 47.1 percent were women and 11.7 percent were minorities. Of 40 Second Circuit magistrate judges, 12, or 30 percent, are women, and three or 8 percent are minorities.

- Reports by lawyers of judges dis-

favoring and exhibiting impatience with employment discrimination cases.

- Findings that the circuit's member courts generally lack anti-bias and anti-harassment policies.

The task force draft report followed calls for studies of bias by the U.S. Judicial Conference, the federal courts' governing body, in 1992 and by Congress two years later. It was carried out by a massive volunteer effort in the circuit, which includes federal courts in New York, Vermont and Connecticut (NYLJ, Sept. 19, 1995).

The effort, hampered by delays, involved public hearings, surveys of thousands of judges, lawyers, jurors and court employees, and the drafting of separate committee reports on gender bias and racial and ethnic bias (NYLJ, Feb. 25).

Yesterday's report is shorter than the advisory committee reports, which are expected to be released later this week, due to interests in brevity and avoiding certain controversial issues addressed by the advisory committee. Those include reviews of possible bias in case outcomes and in presidential appointments.

In addition to Judges Walker and Grubin other task force members were Western District Judge John T. Curtin, Eastern District Judge Sterling Johnson Jr., Southern District Judges Constance Baker Motley and Sonia Sotomayor, and three lawyers who participated in earlier bias studies in the state courts: Ellen Mercer Fallon, Fern Schair and Sue Ann Shay.

Decision on Felony Sentences

Continued from page 1, column 4

term of at least 1½-to-3 years.

"Had the Legislature intended to restrict the court's power to impose such a sentence for any unarmed Class D violent felony, it would have done so in clearly expressed terms."

The reform package was negotiated in secret budget talks between Governor Pataki and the Legislature two years ago and is a centerpiece of the Governor's campaign to get tough on criminals.

Minimum Terms

The law increased the minimum terms for a wide array of offenses and eliminated parole and work release for many convicts.

As a result, the reforms have drawn fire from critics who claim that the changes will curtail judicial flexibility in sentencing and will require increased prison spending.

matter of law" and that the motion was "in all respects denied."

Michael F. Berger of the Legal Aid Society of Nassau County represented Mr. Correa. Assistant Nassau County District Attorney Joseph J. Larocca represented the government.

Panel Asks Removal Of 2 Upstate Justices

THE State Commission on Judicial Conduct recommended yesterday the removal of two upstate town and village justices.

The first, John F. Skinner of the Columbia Town Court in Herkimer County, was found to have summarily dismissed a charge of sexual abuse "as a favor to the defendant and his wife, who were social acquaintances." The defendant was accused of abusing a woman who delivered a newspaper to his home. The commission's removal determination also cited Justice Skinner's dismissal of an unrelat-

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Inflation Evidence

Continued from page 1, column 5

tion, whenever possible," the court said, "resolving a conflict among the departments of the Appellate Division."

The question of whether the structured payment statutes provide evidence of inflation finally reached the Court in *Schultz v. Harrison Radiator Division*, No. 25. The New York Trial Lawyers Association filed amicus briefs in two prior cases, in which the Court found the issue was unpreserved, according to Brian J. Shoot of Schneider, Weisnick, Weiss, Damashek & Shoot, who appeared for the association in *Schultz*.

The plaintiff in *Schultz*, who fell from a scaffold at the Harrison Radiator plant in Rockton, was awarded \$646,900 for loss of future earnings and \$240,000 for future medical expenses after the court heard testimony from the plaintiff's expert about the effect of inflation. The trial court then added the 4 percent annual "adjustment" to the structured payments as required by CPLR 5041(e).

The Appellate Division, Fourth Department, upheld the award and the Court of Appeals affirmed in a unanimous opinion by Judge George Bundy Smith.

Before CPLR article 50-B was enacted as part of a tort reform movement in 1986, juries were allowed to consider expert evidence regarding inflation in reaching their verdicts. Judge Smith said, "Nothing in CPLR 5041 [the article's periodic payment provision] explicitly dispenses with this common-law rule."

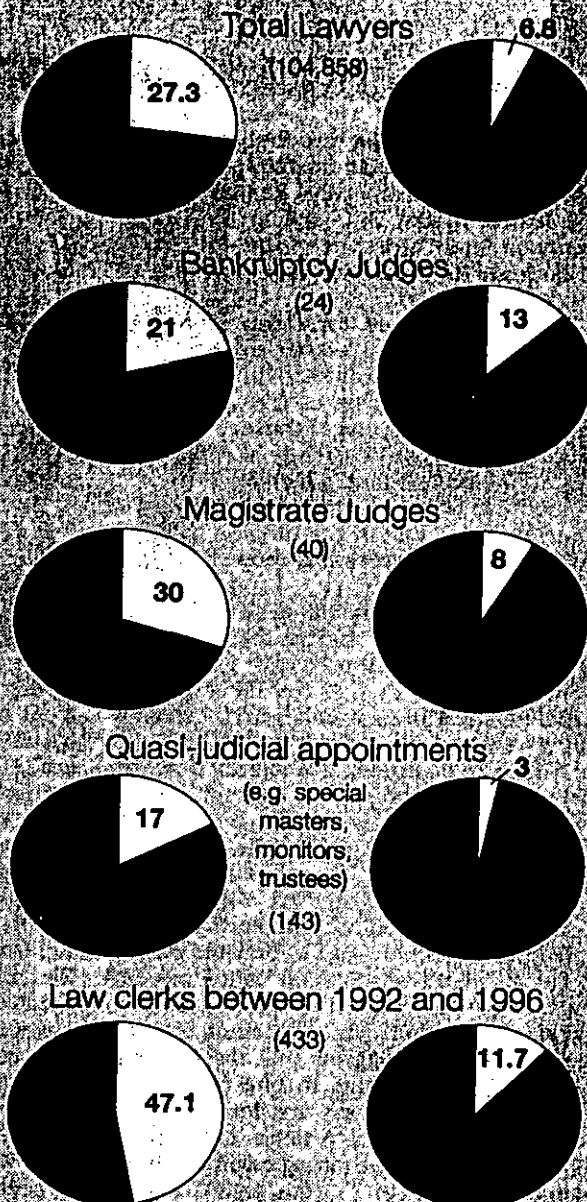
The purpose of the 4 percent adjustment is not made clear by the statute or its legislative history, he said, though it was apparently intended to account for inflation. But he said, "Nothing in any of the legislative history indicates that the 4 percent rate was intended to be the exclusive measure of inflation...."

Judge Smith also cited the practical

Minorities and Women in Second Circuit

□ % Women

□ % Minorities



SOURCE: Preliminary Draft Report of the Second Circuit Task Force on Gender, Racial and Ethnic Fairness in the Courts

UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF NEW YORK
UNITED STATES COURTHOUSE
FOLEY SQUARE
NEW YORK, NEW YORK 10007-1581

CHAMBERS OF
SONIA SOTOMAYOR
UNITED STATES DISTRICT JUDGE

TO: MICHAEL O'CONNOR

FROM: THERESA BARTENOPE
Secretary to Judge Sotomayor

DATE: JUNE 13, 1997

I am enclosing a copy of Judge Sotomayor's Suffolk Law Review article.

Please mail three copies.

MB

SUFFOLK UNIVERSITY LAW REVIEW

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**RETURNING MAJESTY TO THE LAW AND POLITICS:
A MODERN APPROACH**

Hon. Sonia Sotomayor and Nicole A. Gordon

Returning Majesty To The Law and Politics: A Modern Approach*

Hon. Sonia Sotomayor[†] and Nicole A. Gordon^{††}

Even after participating in many different aspects of the practice of law, it is still possible to retain an enthusiasm and love for the law and its practice. It is also exciting to address future lawyers about the practice of law. This is not easy to do, unfortunately, in the context of recurring public criticism about the judicial process.¹

The public expects the law to be static and predictable. The law, however, is uncertain and responds to changing circumstances. To the public, justice means that an obviously correct conclusion will be reached in every case. But what is "correct" is often difficult to discern when the law is attempting to balance competing interests and principles, such as the need to protect society from drugs as opposed to the need to enforce our constitutional right to be free from illegal searches and seizures.² A con-

* This Article is based upon a speech that Judge Sotomayor delivered in February 1996 as part of the Donahue Lecture Series. The Donahue Lecture Series is a program instituted by the *Suffolk University Law Review* to commemorate the Honorable Frank J. Donahue, former faculty member, trustee, and treasurer of Suffolk University. The Lecture Series serves as a tribute to Judge Donahue's accomplishments in encouraging academic excellence at Suffolk University Law School. Each lecture in the series is designed to address contemporary legal issues and expose the Suffolk University community to outstanding authorities in various fields of law.

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1. See, e.g., Katharine Q. Seelye, *Dole, Citing 'Crisis' in the Courts, Attacks Appointments by Clinton*, N.Y. TIMES, Apr. 20, 1996, at A1 (describing Senator Dole's criticism of liberal ideology of Clinton judicial appointments and American Bar Association); John Stossel, *Protect Us From Legal Vultures*, WALL ST. J., Jan. 2, 1996, at 8 (asserting damage manufacturers have done to society is "trivial" compared with harm lawyers do); Don Van Natta Jr., *Group Urges More Scrutiny For Lawyers*, N.Y. TIMES, Nov. 10, 1995, at B1 (discussing recommendations for improving legal system and combatting public criticism by Committee on the Profession and the Courts assembled by New York State's highest court).

2. See generally 5 WAYNE R. LAFAVE, SEARCH AND SEIZURE: A TREATISE ON THE FOURTH

fused public, finding itself at odds with the results of particular judicial decisions, experiences increased cynicism about the law.³

Unfortunately, lawyers themselves sometimes feed that cynicism by joining a chorus of critics of the system, instead of helping to reform it or helping the public to understand the conflicting factual claims and legal principles involved in particular cases.⁴ Similarly, instead of attempting to control criminal or unethical conduct occurring in our profession and promoting the honorable work of most of us, many lawyers respond by denigrating the professionals in certain practice areas, like personal injury law. Further, many neglect to focus on the core issues that rightly trouble the public, such as whether there is fraud and deceit in the prosecution of claims, and if so, what we should do about it.

Today, we will discuss how we can satisfy societal expectations about "The Law" and help create a better atmosphere in which public officials, and especially lawyers and judges, can inspire more confidence and respect for the "majesty of the law" and for the people whose professional lives are devoted to it.

I. THE LAW AS A DYNAMIC SYSTEM

The law that lawyers practice and judges declare is not a definitive, capital "L" law that many would like to think exists. In his classic work, *Law and the Modern Mind*, Jerome Frank aptly summarized the paradox existing in society's attitude toward law and its practitioners:

The lay attitude towards lawyers is a compound of contradictions, a mingling of respect and derision. Although lawyers occupy leading positions in government and industry, although the public looks to them for guidance in meeting its most vital problems, yet concurrently it sneers at them as tricksters and quibblers.

Respect for the bar is not difficult to explain. Justice, the protection of life, the sanctity of property, the direction of social control—these fundamentals are the business of the law and of its ministers, the lawyers. . . .

But coupled with a deference towards their function there is cynical disdain of the lawyers themselves. . . . The layman, despite the fact that

AMENDMENT (3d ed. 1996) (explaining that exclusionary rule protects constitutional right to be secure against unreasonable searches and seizures).

3. See *Judge Baer's Mess*, N.Y. TIMES, Apr. 3, 1996, at A14 (criticizing federal judge's reversal of initial exclusion of drugs and confession as unconstitutional seizure). According to one editorial, "[o]ne of the major troubles with most lawyers is that they actually believe their profession is making the United States a better place to live." *Time For Real Legal Reform Is Now, Before Lawyers Bring Nation Down*, Series: *The Trouble with Lawyers*, FT. LAUDERDALE SUN-SENTINEL, Jan. 4, 1996, at 14A.

4. See Max Boot, *Stop Appeasing the Class Action Monster*, WALL ST. J., May 8, 1996, at A15 (detailing how corporate mass-tort defense lawyers criticize class actions yet offer few alternatives or solutions).

he constantly calls upon lawyers for advice on innumerable questions, public and domestic, regards lawyers as equivocators, artists in double-dealing, masters of chicane.⁵

Frank, a noted judge of the Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit and a founder of the school of "Legal Realism," postulated that the public's distrust of lawyers arises because the law is "uncertain, indefinite, [and] subject to incalculable changes," while the public instead needs and wants certainty and clarity from the law.⁶ Because a lawyer's work entails changing factual patterns presented within a continually evolving legal structure, it appears to the public that lawyers obfuscate and distort what should be clear. Frank, however, pointed out that the very nature of our common law is based upon the lack of certainty:

The constant development of unprecedented problems requires a legal system capable of fluidity and pliancy. Our society would be strait-jacketed were not the courts, with the able assistance of the lawyers, constantly overhauling the law and adapting it to the realities of ever-changing social, industrial and political conditions; although changes cannot be made lightly, yet law must be more or less impermanent, experimental and therefore not nicely calculable. *Much of the uncertainty of law is not an unfortunate accident: it is of immense social value.*⁷

Frank believed that in the complex, fast-paced modern era, lawyers do themselves a disservice by acceding to the public myth that law can be certain and stable. He advocated that lawyers themselves accept the premise that the law is not fixed and that change in the law is inevitable and to be welcomed: "Without abating our insistence that the lawyers do the best they can, we can then manfully [sic] endure inevitable short-comings, errors and inconsistencies in the administration of justice because we can realize that perfection is not possible."⁸

Frank's thesis, set forth in 1930, should continue to attract examination today. It supports a pride that lawyers can take in what they do and how they do it. The law can change its direction entirely, as when *Brown v. Board of Education*⁹ overturned *Plessy v. Ferguson*,¹⁰ or as the common law has gradually done by altering the standards of products liability law directly contrary to the originally restricted view that instructed "caveat

5. JEROME FRANK, *LAW AND THE MODERN MIND* 3 (Anchor Books 1963) (1930).

6. *Id.* at 5. In the preface to the sixth printing of *LAW AND THE MODERN MIND*, Frank took issue with the notion that his theories and their advocates constituted a school. *Id.* at viii-xii. Instead, Frank preferred to be viewed as a "factual realist" or as he described himself, a "fact skeptic," as opposed to a "rule skeptic." *Id.* at xii.

7. *Id.* at 6-7 (footnotes omitted).

8. *Id.* at 277.

9. 347 U.S. 483 (1954).

10. 163 U.S. 537 (1896).

emptor."¹¹ As these cases show, change—sometimes radical change—can and does occur in a legal system that serves a society whose social policy itself changes. It is our responsibility to explain to the public how an often unpredictable system of justice is one that serves a productive, civilized but always evolving, society.

Lawyers must also continually explain the various reasons for the law's unpredictability. First, as Frank describes, laws are written generally and then applied to different factual situations.¹² The facts of any given case may not be within the contemplation of the original law.¹³ Second, many laws as written give rise to more than one interpretation (or, as happens among the circuit courts, differing or even majority and minority views).¹⁴ Third, a given judge (or judges) may develop a novel approach to a specific set of facts or legal framework that pushes the law in a new direction.¹⁵ Fourth, the function of the law at a trial is not simply to provide a framework within which to search for the truth, as understood by the public, but it is to do so in a way that protects constitutional rights.¹⁶ Against these and other constraints, including, as Frank observed, an unknown factor—i.e., which version of the facts a judge or jury will credit—competent lawyers are often unable to predict reliably what the outcome of a particular case will be for their clients.¹⁷

11. See W. PAGE KEETON ET AL., PROSSER AND KEETON ON THE LAW OF TORTS §§ 95-96, at 677-83 (5th ed. 1984) (outlining movement from notion of caveat emptor to liability for losses caused by defective products); RESTATEMENT (SECOND) OF TORTS § 402A cmt. b (1965) (detailing common law evolution of liability for defective products).

12. See FRANK, *supra* note 5, at xii (describing how courts apply legal rules to unique cases).

13. See *id.* at 127-28 (criticizing mechanistic approach to law that would treat people like mathematical entities to achieve predictability).

14. See *id.* at 121 (discussing statistical evidence concerning differences among judges).

15. Cf. Jeremy Paul, *First Principles*, 25 CONN. L. REV. 923, 936 (1993) (discussing how cases of first impression force judges to create law and affect law's unpredictability).

16. See *United States v. Filani*, 74 F.3d 378, 383-84 (2d Cir. 1996) (discussing varied goals of the trial in American jurisprudence). In *Filani*, the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit considered a drug conviction based on the judge's improper questioning of the defendant. *Id.* at 382-83. In discussing the history and role of trial judges in England and the United States, the court stated:

One of the reasons for allowing an English judge greater latitude to interrogate witnesses is that a British trial, so it is said, is a search for the truth. In our jurisprudence a search for the truth is only one of the trial's goals; other important values—individual freedom being a good example—are served by an attorney insisting on preserving the accused's right to remain silent or by objecting to incriminating evidence seized in violation of an accused's Fourth Amendment rights. The successful assertion of these rights does not aid—and may actually impede—the search for truth.

Id. at 384.

17. FRANK, *supra* note 5, at xiv-xv. Of course, there are many instances in which lawyers can predict reliably what the outcome of a particular case will be. See Rodney J. Upboff, *The Criminal Defense Lawyer as Effective Negotiator: A Systematic Approach*, 2 CLINICAL L. REV. 73, 83-86 (1995) (analyzing systemic pressures to plea bargain in criminal cases). Cases that reach the trial stage do not reflect the multitude of cases that are resolved early—even before the complaint stage—precisely because the parties have quite a clear expectation of how their cases would be decided. See *id.* at 83.

This necessary state of flux, as well as our reliance on the adversary system, give rise to a cynicism expressed by Benjamin Franklin in the mid-seventeen hundreds, but equally reflective of the public mood today:

I know you lawyers can with ease
Twist words and meanings as you please;
That language, by your skill made pliant,
Will bend, to favor every client;
That 'tis the fee limits the sense
To make out either side's pretense,
When you peruse the clearest case,
You see it with a double face. . . .
Hence is the Bar with fees supplied;—
Hence eloquence takes either side. . . .
And now we're well secured by law,
*Till the next brother find a flaw.*¹⁸

This image raises perhaps the greatest fear about the role of law and lawyers: that on the same facts, and presented with the same law, two judges or juries would reach different results in the same case because of a lawyer's presentation.¹⁹ Whether the concern is that only the wealthy can afford the best lawyers, or simply that the more "eloquent" attorney can get a better result, it is an intimidating possibility to a public that seeks certainty and justice from the law. From the vantage of a judge, however, it is not a correct or complete picture of what happens in the courtroom. To the extent judges and juries reach different results, much, as Frank observed, may be attributable to the fact that judges and juries react differently to facts because their life experiences are different.²⁰ Working from the same facts and within the confines of the same law, however, it seems that gross disparities in result do not frequently occur.²¹ But the law does evolve, and to assist its evolution and at the same

(noting some defendants readily admit guilt and acknowledge responsibility for wrongs committed).

18. Benjamin Franklin, *Poor Richard's Opinion*, in *LAW: A TREASURY OF ART AND LITERATURE* 151, 151 (Sara Robbins ed., 1990).

19. Compare *BMW v. Gore*, 116 S. Ct. 1589, 1592-94 (1996) (considering constitutionality of \$2 million punitive damages award for undisclosed automobile paint repairs), with *Yates v. BMW*, 642 So. 2d 937, 938 (Ala. Civ. App. 1993) (noting jury in virtually identical Alabama fraudulent car repainting lawsuit awarded no punitive damages), *cert. quashed as improvidently granted* by 642 So. 2d 937 (Ala. 1993).

20. See FRANK, *supra* note 5, at xii-xiii (recognizing judge and juries bring personal prejudices to trials). In extreme cases, of course, a lawyer (or a judge or jury) can be entirely incompetent or otherwise entirely fail to do a proper job.

21. This conclusion is based both on personal experience as a judge and on the statistically small number of jury verdicts set aside or new trials ordered by judges. Of course, case law principles require that appellate courts give jury verdicts a great deal of deference. See *Honda Motor Co. v. Oberg*, 114 S. Ct. 2331, 2336-38 (1994) (stating civil jury verdicts are historically afforded deference on judicial review unless damages too large); *United States v. Powell*, 469 U.S. 57, 67 (1984) (commenting

time maintain their own credibility, lawyers must dispel the view that they are dishonest, dissembling, hypocritical, or that Ben Franklin's description is correctly derisive.²²

Frank's point that the public fails to appreciate the importance of indefiniteness in the law must be addressed through better education of the public by lawyers and others, including government officials.²³ In addition, the public has other needs relating to the law: the need, for example, for lawyers to act honorably, beyond what any law, regulation, or professional rule may require. This need requires a different response.

II. MORALITY IN PUBLIC SERVICE

What are our expectations of lawyers, judges, and of public servants generally? Over the years, the response to scandal and disappointment in lawyers and in our public officials has varied. A history of ethical codes that have apparently not provided sufficient guidance to practitioners has recently led to tighter restrictions. In the public sphere, we have for some time been engaged in passing laws and regulations intended to curb unworthy behavior. This may not always be adequate for public officials or for lawyers. Some would argue that reliance on regulations alone defuses the notion of personal responsibility and accountability.

Charles Dickens on a visit to the United States in the nineteenth century described his sorrow when confronted with the American approach to regulating gifts to public servants:

The Post Office is a very compact and very beautiful building. In one of the departments, among a collection of rare and curious articles, are deposited the presents which have been made from time to time to the American ambassadors at foreign courts by the various potentates to whom they were the accredited agents of the Republic; gifts which by the law they are not permitted to retain. I confess that I looked upon this as a very painful exhibition, and one by no means flattering to the national standard of honesty and honour. That can scarcely be a high state of moral feeling which imagines a gentleman of repute and station likely to be corrupted, in the discharge of his duty, by the present of a snuff-box, or a richly-mounted sword, or an Eastern shawl; and surely the Nation who reposes confidence in her appointed servants, is likely to be better served, than she who makes them the subject of such very mean

that deference to jury's collective judgment brings element of finality to criminal process); *Binder v. Long Island Lighting Co.*, 57 F.3d 193, 201-02 (2d Cir. 1995) (finding appellate court grants "strong presumption of correctness" when reviewing whether jury verdict is "seriously erroneous").

22. Franklin, *supra* note 18, at 151.

23. See Roberta Cooper Ramo, *Law Day More Important than Ever for Keeping Strong*, CHI. DAILY L. BULL., Apr. 27, 1996, at 8 (emphasizing importance of legal profession keeping citizenry well informed about Constitution and legal system).

and paltry suspicions.²⁴

There is indeed a national plethora of legislation at every level of government restricting activities of government officials.²⁵ This legislation, among other things, controls the receipt of gifts; limits outside employment and the amounts of fees and honoraria; restricts post-employment contact with government; curbs the extent of political activities; requires the acceptance of the lowest (but not necessarily best) bids on government contracts; and sets prohibitions on the manner and ways in which to address financial and other conflicts. These rules are extremely important, even vital, notwithstanding Dickens' eloquent statement to the contrary. They protect the public from many kinds of inappropriate influences on government officials, and they perform another crucial service in providing guidance to and protecting those they regulate. Public servants have sometimes walked a fine line or walked over the line between gifts and bribes.²⁶ If specific rules have their place, however, that does not mean that we should limit the standard we apply to public officials to the technical question whether those rules have been broken, rather than aspiring to the highest in moral behavior. As a "Nation," we have not sufficiently emphasized the importance of professional morality in public service, whether among our government officials or our lawyers. Instead, we over-emphasize social morality, concentrating on personal scandals that we cannot regulate, and then pass detailed rules, hoping to elevate professional behavior in that way. If we limit our expectations to what is specifically regulated (and sometimes over-regulated), we may in effect degrade the offices and the people who hold them.

In other countries, professional morality is approached differently. In Europe, for example, public officials often have greater discretion, are better paid, and are held to higher standards of behavior, in some instances resigning their office if there is the hint of financial scandal in their work.²⁷

24. CHARLES DICKENS, *AMERICAN NOTES AND PICTURES FROM ITALY* 123 (Oxford Univ. Press 1957) (1842). It is interesting that in England there is now a heightened sense that laws or rules are in fact needed to regulate the behavior of public officials. See COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS IN PUBLIC LIFE, *FIRST REPORT*, 1995, Cmnd 2850-I, at 3 (urging remedial legislative action to counter public discontent with ethical standards of public officials).

25. See generally COUNCIL ON GOVERNMENTAL ETHICS LAWS, *THE COUNCIL OF STATE GOV'TS, COGEL BLUE BOOK* (9th ed. 1993) (compiling information on laws governing campaign finance, ethics, lobbying and judicial conduct nationwide).

26. See Jane Fritsch, *The Envelope, Please: A Bribe's Not a Bribe When It's a Donation*, N.Y. TIMES, Jan. 28, 1996, at D1 (describing subtle distinction between illegal bribes and legal campaign contributions to politicians); Stephen Kurkjian, *Ferber's Conviction Spurs Widening of Probe*, BOSTON GLOBE, Aug. 15, 1996, at B5 (reporting planned investigation of Massachusetts politicians after corruption conviction of former financial advisor to state agencies).

27. See generally Mark Davies, *The Public Administrative Law Context of Ethics Requirements*

The tolerance in this country for questionable behavior by public officials is illustrated by the persistence of extremely troubling—but legal—practices in the public arena. In one of the murkiest and least well-controlled areas, we find ourselves debating what the quid pro quo's are for campaign contributions. Here we have abandoned standards we would surely apply in any other context. We would never condone private gifts to judges about to decide a case implicating the gift-givers' interests.²⁸ Yet our system of election financing permits extensive private, including corporate, financing of candidates' campaigns, raising again and again the question what the difference is between contributions and bribes and how legislators or other officials can operate objectively on behalf of the electorate.²⁹ Can elected officials say with credibility that they are carrying out the mandate of a "democratic" society, representing only the general public good, when private money plays such a large role in their campaigns? If they cannot, the public must demand a change in the role of private money or find other ways, such as through strict, well-enforced regulation, to ensure that politicians are not inappropriately influenced in their legislative or executive decision-making by the interests that give them contributions.³⁰ As Congress revamps many questionable practices, including the receipt of gifts from lobbyists, it must monitor to the public's satisfaction both whether inappropriate activity is being left unregulated and whether laws and regulations that are put in place are actually enforced. The continued failure to do this has greatly damaged public trust in officials and exacerbated the public's sense that no higher morality is in place by which public officials measure their conduct.

Similarly, the public wonders whether lawyers have enforceable rules of self-government or any kind of defined professional morality. Professional codes tend to speak in terms of ethical presumptions, without prescribing what lawyers should do in specific, troubling situations. For example, almost all professional codes require that a lawyer should represent a client zealously within the bounds of the law and may not suborn perjury or the creation of false documents.³¹ But no rule guides a lawyer who is

for *West German and American Public Officials: A Comparative Analysis*, 18 GA. J. INT'L & COMP. L. 319 (1988) (detailing differences between ethics regulations for American and German public officials).

28. Cf. Scott D. Wiener, Note, *Popular Justice: State Judicial Elections and Procedural Due Process*, 31 HARV. C.R.-C.L. L. REV. 187, 194 (1996) (discussing Texas attorney Joe Jemal's \$10,000 campaign contribution to judge in Texaco-Pennzoil case).

29. See Fritsch, *supra* note 26, at D1 (reporting influence of special interest money as serious political issue).

30. See Jamin Raskin & John Bonifaz, *The Constitutional Imperative and Practical Superiority of Democratically Financed Elections*, 94 COLUM. L. REV. 1160, 1160 (1994) (proposing replacement of federal election finance system with total public financing of congressional campaigns).

31. See MODEL RULES OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT Rule 3.3 (1995) (noting candor toward tribu-

merely left with a firm and abiding conviction that what is being said or proffered by a witness or client is false. Rules might be ill-suited to answer such dilemmas, but moral imperatives, or what Lord Moulton described in 1924 as "Obedience to the Unenforceable," may be more helpful.³²

Lord Moulton, to be sure a man of his time, spoke of Obedience to the Unenforceable as a standard that people live up to despite the fact that no law can force them to do so.³³ He gave as an example the conduct of the men aboard the Titanic who, facing imminent death, nevertheless adhered to the principle that women and children should be saved first:

Law did not require it. Force could not have compelled it in the face of almost certain death. It was merely a piece of good Manners. . . . The feeling of obedience to the Unenforceable was so strong that at that terrible moment all behaved as, if they could look back, they would wish to have behaved.³⁴

Our public officials and lawyers should also be prepared to adopt a culture that depends upon subjective accountability as well as on well-defined, consistent rules and regulations:

The difference between the true lawyer and those men who consider the law merely a trade is that the latter seek to find ways to permit their clients to violate the moral standards of society without overstepping the letter of the law, while the former look for principles which will persuade their clients to keep within the limits of the spirit of the law in common moral standards.³⁵

III. THE BAR'S RESPONSIBILITY

What is the responsibility of a practicing lawyer, and how can lawyers' behavior be changed in ways to encourage greater respect for the legal profession? To take one example of a tolerated but unacceptable pattern, let us examine the lying and misrepresentation that occurs in court.

Some number of witnesses in court lie, including some for the prosecution and some for the defense, and their lawyers suspect as much. Lawyers are not, however, routinely confronted with the clear-cut dilemma

nal prevents lawyer from offering false evidence); MODEL CODE OF PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY EC 7-1, 7-6 (1983) (declaring lawyer's duties to client and legal system).

32. Lord Moulton, *Law and Manners*, ATLANTIC MONTHLY, July 1924, at 1, 1. Lord Moulton, a judge and member of the British Parliament, served as Minister of Munitions for Great Britain at the outbreak of World War I. *Id.*

33. *Id.*

34. *Id.* at 4.

35. PIERO CALAMANDREI, EULOGY OF JUDGES 45 (John Clarke Adams & C. Abbott Phillips, Jr. trans., 1942).

that a client proposes to "lie" on the stand. A client presents a version of the facts, and lawyers rarely have independent, first-hand knowledge of them. (In criminal cases, clients frequently choose not to take the stand, often on the advice of an attorney, advice that is given for any number of reasons, including the risk of presenting perjured testimony.) What more commonly occurs is that witnesses, often unconsciously, allow selectivity, prejudice, and emotion to color their perceptions. Even when two witnesses directly contradict one another, both may be "telling the truth" from their own points of view or to the best of their recollection. Real life is complex, and we have chosen to use the adversarial system to sort out the truth as best it can.³⁶

To maintain credibility in the system, however, we must study how well we do in fact get at the "truth."³⁷ Lying is risky in the courtroom, but not generally because of the threat of a perjury indictment. It is risky because each side has the opportunity, through discovery, independent investigation, and cross-examination, to expose falsehood.³⁸ But the adversarial system may not always be wholly adequate to the task of exposing wrong-doing and false or inflated claims. Empirical studies have been performed, for example, that examine the reliability of witnesses and jurors.³⁹ Many factors influence witnesses and juries, including subconscious racism and other prejudices. As a profession, we should seek, based upon empirical evidence, ways in which to improve our ability to arrive at the truth. If we undertake this seriously, we will not only do well by the cause of justice, but we will justifiably improve the public's opinion of our profession.

The adversary system may also be ill-suited to resolve certain types of disputes such as those presented by "battles of the experts" in medical malpractice and many other kinds of cases. There is recurring debate about the ability of jurors to evaluate such evidence. The Supreme Court of the

36. See SISSELA BOK, *LYING: MORAL CHOICE IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE LIFE* 158-59 (1978) (analyzing how adversary system sometimes encourages attorneys to argue credibility of clients who have made knowingly perjurious statements).

37. See Marvin E. Frankel, *The Search for Truth—An Umpireal View*, 30 REC. ASS'N B. CITY N.Y. 14, 15 (1975) (arguing that the "adversary system rates truth too low among the values that institutions of justice are meant to serve.")

38. See FED. R. CIV. P. 26-37 (setting forth rules governing depositions and discovery in federal civil cases); FED. R. CRIM. P. 16 (establishing rules of evidentiary disclosure by both government and defendant in criminal cases); FED. R. EVID. 607 (allowing impeachment of witness' credibility).

39. See generally JEFFREY T. FREDERICK, *THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE AMERICAN JURY* (1987) (presenting social scientific research on jury behavior and persuasion); SAUL M. KASSIN & LAWRENCE S. WRIGHTSMAN, *THE AMERICAN JURY ON TRIAL: PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES* (1988) (analyzing jury reliability and phases of jury trial); Christopher M. Walters, Note, *Admission of Expert Testimony on Eyewitness Identification*, 73 CAL. L. REV. 1402 (1985) (discussing expert witness reliability in eyewitness identification cases).

United States, in *Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, Inc.*,⁴⁰ has reacted to this debate by expanding the judge's function to require that scientific testimony be evaluated more stringently before it can be presented to a jury.⁴¹ Certainly, the battle of the experts undermines public confidence not only in the certainty of the law, but in another desired bedrock, the certainty of science. We must revisit whether other methods of inquiry into specialized areas—such as the use of court-appointed experts or Special Masters who share their conclusions with juries—may be more useful to resolve these kinds of disputes. The current system, in this particular respect, should somehow be made to work better or should be critically evaluated, and if necessary, replaced.

Finally, the adversary system, almost by definition, cannot address the gray area of the "truth" present in most cases because the system tends to produce all-or-nothing winners and losers. This is why settlements and new forms of "alternative dispute resolution" are so important.⁴² Dickens' remark that honorable lawyers admonish their clients to "[s]uffer any wrong that can be done you, rather than come here [to the courts]," is still timely for many litigants.⁴³ The adversary system has its limitations under the best of circumstances, including the limitations it places on the judges' role, and so we must explain why the benefits of the system outweigh those limitations.⁴⁴ If, as has been said of the democratic form of government, the adversary system is "the worst . . . except [for] all those other forms," then that is the way in which the public should understand it: not as a system expected to accomplish more than any system can.⁴⁵

40. 509 U.S. 579 (1993).

41. See *id.* at 597 (acknowledging Federal Rules of Evidence require judge to ensure scientifically valid principles support expert testimony).

42. See Abraham Lincoln, Notes for a Law Lecture, in *THE OXFORD DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN LEGAL QUOTATIONS* 302 (Fred R. Shapiro ed., 1993) ("As a peacemaker the lawyer has a superior opportunity of being a good man. There will still be business enough."); Joshua A. Darrell, *For Many, Litigation Retains Important Practical Benefits*, NAT'L L. J., Apr. 11, 1994, at C11 (discussing benefits of alternative dispute resolution).

43. CHARLES DICKENS, *BLEAK HOUSE* 51 (Norman Page ed., Penguin Books 1971) (1853) (quotation marks omitted).

44. Judges sometimes receive criticism if they ask, or let juries ask, too many questions of witnesses. See *United States v. Filani*, 74 F.3d 378, 384 (2d Cir. 1996) (commenting on popular notion that limited questioning by trial judge guards against bias); *United States v. Ajmal*, 67 F.3d 12, 14-15 (2d Cir. 1995) (discussing dangers of prejudice and compromise of juror neutrality in juror questioning of witnesses); see also Bill Alden, *Juror Inquiries Require Retrial for Defendants*, N.Y. L.J., Sept. 22, 1995, at 1 (reporting how improper juror questioning in *Ajmal* case led to reversal and new trial). In today's media-dominated world, jurors are more informed about legal issues than ever before. More explanation by judges why certain legal principles are important or why certain evidentiary rulings have been made may be helpful to contain speculation that can lead juries astray. Similarly, if jurors ask questions that seek to clarify evidence, and if the practice is properly controlled, this may preserve rather than interfere with a jury's impartiality.

45. Winston Churchill, Speech (Nov. 11, 1947), in *THE OXFORD DICTIONARY OF QUOTATIONS* 202 (Angela Partington ed., 4th ed. 1992).

As we ponder how effective our legal system is, we must help create greater credibility in existing, useful mechanisms. A number of years ago, Judge Harold Rothwax of the Supreme Court of the State of New York noted his concern that illegal activities occur in the judicial system sometimes for years and that lawyers do not report them.⁴⁶ In a heartening exception to this generalization, insurance kick-backs were recently exposed by a lawyer who was offered one in New York.⁴⁷ Similarly, we recently have heard much about the police practice of tailoring testimony to avoid the suppression of evidence, an apparently common practice that must be known to, or at least suspected by, some prosecuting attorneys.⁴⁸ Often, however, lawyers, instead of engaging in genuinely useful projects to ferret out fraud, tend to denigrate either the law itself or the role and quality of work performed by lawyers in the fields, for example, of personal injury or criminal defense. Lawyers have also unfortunately joined the public outcry over excessive verdicts and seemingly ridiculous results reached in some cases.⁴⁹

The response that can give the public confidence in our profession is our own leadership in weeding out the fraudulent and wrongful conduct that the public rightly condemns at the same time as we challenge overreactions that undermine the principles of our judicial system.⁵⁰ For example, legislators have introduced bills that place arbitrary limits on jury verdicts in personal injury cases.⁵¹ But to do this is inconsistent with the premise of the jury system. The focus must be shifted back to monitoring frivolous claims, uncovering pervasive misrepresentation in court, and educating the public that no system of justice is perfect. Despite occasional disappointing results, our system does have mechanisms in place that moderate jury verdicts (such as judges' discretion to set aside or reduce unreasonable verdicts), that allow for the discipline of lawyers, and

46. See *Symposium: Ethics in Government*, CITY ALMANAC, Winter 1987, at 20, 20 (noting corruption in legal system succeeds when a few good people do nothing).

47. See Matthew Goldstein, *23 Lawyers Arrested in Insurance Scheme: Inflating of Settlements in Tort Cases Charged*, N.Y. L.J., Sept. 22, 1995, at 1 (reporting praise of whistleblowing attorney who stated he "did what any honest citizen would do"); George James, *47 Accused in an Insurance Claim Scheme*, N.Y. TIMES, Sept. 22, 1995, at B3 (describing district attorney's praise of lawyer as "credit to the legal profession and the general public").

48. See *And What About Justice?*, WALL. ST. J., Sept. 1, 1995, at A6 (discussing perjury by law enforcement officers in O.J. Simpson trial and on Philadelphia police force); see also HAROLD J. ROTHWAX, *GUILTY: THE COLLAPSE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE* 63-65 (1996) (discussing problems exclusionary rule creates for law enforcement officers).

49. See *Was Justice Served?*, WALL ST. J., Oct. 4, 1995, at A14 (publishing attorney's criticism of criminal trials as "indistinguishable from Roman circuses").

50. Cf. *supra* note 47 and accompanying text (describing efforts of New York attorney exposing fraudulent practices by plaintiffs' personal injury attorneys).

51. See Common Sense Product Liability Legal Reform Act of 1996, H.R. 481, 104th Cong. (limiting punitive damages in certain cases).

that can result in punishment of perjurers.⁵²

Criminal law is the most challenging arena in which to satisfy the public that our system adequately addresses problems of apparently wrong verdicts. This is largely because the public either does not understand or does not accept the necessity for safeguards against sometimes overzealous prosecution and the protection of certain civil liberties. The role of criminal defense lawyers in particular is not well understood or sufficiently appreciated by many lawyers, much less the public. Prosecutors and government officials should be especially sensitive to and publicly supportive of the fundamental place constitutional safeguards and the defense bar have in our system. We must take an aggressive role in cleaning our own house by educating ourselves and publicly supporting our colleagues who perform essential functions in asserting and protecting constitutional rights.⁵³

If we can persuade the public that the system we have in place and the roles played by lawyers within that system are the best available, there remain ancillary issues of an ethical nature that do not necessarily involve what happens in the courtroom. We have an obligation, for example, to address professional conduct perceived by the public to be wrong even if it is not necessarily illegal. For example, in New York State, a recent study of the matrimonial bar concluded that a very significant negative sense exists of matrimonial practice, based on the perception that matrimonial lawyers often take unfair financial advantage of emotionally fragile clients.⁵⁴ Similarly, California found that sexual exploitation of clients

52. See *Gasperini v. Center for Humanities, Inc.*, 116 S. Ct. 2211, 2214 (1996) (applying New York check on excessive damages to federal court); *Bender v. City of New York*, 78 F.3d 787, 794-95 (2d Cir. 1996) (finding verdict of \$300,700 excessive in civil rights action); *Scala v. Moore McCormack Lines, Inc.*, 985 F.2d 680, 684 (2d Cir. 1993) (finding \$1.5 million verdict for pain and suffering excessive); see also 18 U.S.C. §§ 401-02 (1994) (granting courts power to punish contempt of courts' authority, including obstruction of justice); 18 U.S.C. § 1623 (1994) (criminalizing false declarations before any federal court or grand jury); FED. R. CRV. P. 11(c) (providing for sanctions of lawyers who pursue frivolous claims and needless litigation); *Dunn v. United States*, 442 U.S. 100, 107 (1979) (noting Congress enacted § 1623 to "facilitate perjury prosecutions and thereby enhance the reliability of testimony"). Perjury cases are not often pursued, and perhaps should be given greater consideration by prosecuting attorneys as a means of enhancing the credibility of the trial system generally.

53. See *Miranda v. Arizona*, 384 U.S. 436, 480 (1966) (noting attorney carries out sworn duty by advising client to remain silent during police questioning). The *Miranda* Court emphasized that an attorney's advice of silence in the face of criminal investigation is an exercise of "good professional judgment," not a reason "for considering the attorney a menace to law enforcement." *Id.*; see also *United States v. Filani*, 74 F.3d 378, 384 (2d Cir. 1996) (noting that "fulfilling professional responsibilities 'of necessity may become an obstacle to truthfinding.'" (quoting *Miranda*, 384 U.S. at 514 (Harlan, J., dissenting))).

54. See COMMITTEE TO EXAMINE LAWYER CONDUCT IN MATRIMONIAL ACTIONS, ADMINISTRATIVE BD. OF THE COURTS OF N.Y., REPORT 1-5 (1993) (identifying criticism of divorce law system and proposing reforms and improvements for lawyers and courts); see also *Carpe Diem*, N.Y. L.J., Mar. 12, 1993, at 2 (citing report critical of divorce lawyers by New York City Department of Con-

was a pervasive enough problem in divorce and other areas of legal practice that the California Supreme Court passed a very hotly debated professional rule setting forth a lawyer's professional obligations in these situations.⁵⁵

Whether the rule will have an effect in California on the public's perception of lawyers depends largely on how vigilantly their colleagues and others hold lawyers to the rule: Will lawyers actually be reported to the bar association when they are suspected of having inappropriate sexual relations with a client? How aggressively will they be investigated? And will they be held accountable if they continue to represent a client with whom they are having an impermissible sexual relationship?

Failure to enforce such a rule will again feed the public's mistrust, which arises in part from the sense that lawyers (and public officials), whose conduct is generally self-policed, protect themselves from proper regulation. In New York, disciplinary proceedings have until recently been closed to protect lawyers from unjust criticism and harm to their reputations. Despite a recommendation by its Task Force on the Profession that these proceedings be made public, the House of Delegates of the New York State Bar Association has opposed the measure.⁵⁶ Unquestionably, unjust criticism of a professional can be devastating. But it is worth examining whether that concern is better addressed by creating a quick, fair process for determining whether a charge is unfounded than by continuing a practice of not airing complaints publicly.⁵⁷ Alternatively, we must find other ways to assure the public that closed proceedings are effective in disciplining lawyers, and we must do more to monitor them. One way or another, there must be convincing public justification for the manner in which discipline and performance are regulated.

In the political sphere, the sense that elected officials fail to police themselves is equally prevalent. Partisanship is the accepted "adversarial" mechanism that is supposed to maintain checks and balances and protect the public in various contexts, including in the fields of elections and campaign finance.⁵⁸ Bipartisan commissions, such as boards of elections

sumer Affairs commissioner).

55. See CALIFORNIA RULES OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT Rule 3-120 (1995) (prohibiting lawyer from engaging in sexual relations with a client in specific circumstances).

56. See Gary Spencer, *State Bar Opposes Any Public Discipline Procedures*, N.Y. L.J., June 27, 1995, at 1 (reporting bar association refused to endorse "even the smallest step toward opening" disciplinary process to public). The Association of the Bar of the City of New York has endorsed opening up these proceedings. See Committee on Professional Discipline, *The Confidentiality of Disciplinary Proceedings*, 47 REC. ASS'N B. CITY N.Y. 48, 60 (1992) (advocating opening process to public after determination that proceedings should begin).

57. Arguably, lawyers do not exhibit the same heightened sensitivity to the plight their clients suffer when unfair or embarrassing information becomes public through legal proceedings.

58. The Federal Election Commission is, for example, bipartisan by law. See 2 U.S.C. §

or most campaign finance agencies, often reflect a close relationship between commissioners and party politics. The result is often votes on individual matters along party lines rather than on the merits, and policies and procedures that favor the established parties over independent or alternative groups. By contrast, the experience of New York City's Campaign Finance Board—a pioneer agency regulating New York City's program of optional public financing of political campaigns—has been that of a deliberative, non-partisan board that nearly always acts unanimously and certainly always without regard to party affiliation. The non-partisan culture of that board is a model for decision-making in the political sphere. But few legislatures—including the federal Congress—are prepared to have their campaign finances monitored by a genuinely non-partisan, objective body. As a result, regulation of activity which is vital to the health of our democracy—including campaign finance activity—is largely administered by bipartisan agencies with weak claim to the public's trust.⁵⁹ The legislators' failure to submit themselves to meaningful scrutiny heightens cynicism about our elected officials, many of whom, as we all know, are lawyers.

In short, we must find ways to re-evaluate and, if necessary, alter our methods of concluding legal and political conflicts. Next, we must find effective, confidence-building mechanisms for policing ourselves. Further, we must be prepared to entrust judgments on our own professional fitness not only to our colleagues, but to the public.

IV. THE RESPONSIBILITY OF OTHERS

The changing nature of the law and the conduct of lawyers give the public understandable pause. We must not, however, fall prey to the public's cynicism. We must instead expect more of our profession. There is a limit to how far an individual lawyer can elevate the bar as a whole. What a lawyer can do, as argued above, is educate the public—at the very least in the person of his or her clients—and personally raise standards by living up to a code of conduct beyond what is "enforceable." This responsibility is not confined to attorneys in private practice. The others who operate in or around the legal framework—judges, prosecutors, juries, witnesses, public officials, and the press—must also educate themselves, and others, and apply higher standards of conduct to their own behavior.

Much distrust arises from a lack of understanding, whether about the

437c(a)(1) (1994) (providing that only three of six members appointed to Commission "may be affiliated with the same political party").

59. See Charisse Jones, *Old-Style Board Faulted After Botched Voting*, N.Y. TIMES, Oct. 12, 1996, at 25 (reporting criticism of local bipartisan board of elections as "mismanaged" and "crippled" by political appointments).

purpose and role of the adversary system, the presumption of innocence, the right of every party to be represented by an attorney, or the facts and proceedings of a specific case—even a case as highly publicized as the O.J. Simpson trial. The limitations of the law are also poorly understood. We need the help of the schools, our media, and our public officials to communicate the values and limitations of our system of justice and to free us from simplistic analysis that breeds contempt.

What we should also acknowledge, to broaden the true reach of the law's majesty, is the role that many influences, including the press and the lay public, play in contributing to our intricate legal system.

V. CONCLUSION

What we propose is as follows:

First, lawyers must make a greater effort at educating themselves, their clients, and the public about the key underpinnings of our legal system: the reasons for the law's uncertainty; the values and limitations of the adversary system; and the importance of respecting every kind of legal practice and the role it plays in helping our society to achieve its goals.

Second, we must re-examine what does and does not work to bring about justice and consider whether we can improve aspects of our system. Is the adversary process the best way of determining whether witnesses are telling the truth or for dealing with the "battle of the experts"? If not, let us improve what we have, or find a better way, recognizing that we cannot achieve perfection.

Third, we must instill among ourselves and our public officials a culture of a high morality, as best we can. We must determine what ethical guidelines are appropriate and then enforce them seriously. We must adopt concrete ways to recognize those among us who practice law and serve the public at the highest moral levels. We must combine to act more honorably both within our own sphere and collectively as a profession, supporting each other in the inevitable controversies that arise when lawyers and government officials properly carry out responsibilities that are ill understood by the public.

Finally, we must enlist not only every group of our profession, including judges, lawyers, legislators, and other public officials, to adhere to higher standards. We must also enlist clients, jurors, journalists, and all our fellow citizens, because we are all touched by the law, and we can all have an influence on how it evolves.

We cannot delay in addressing these moral issues of professional and political conduct. We are faced with on-going instances of erosion in public confidence. The O.J. Simpson trial and the constantly recurring investigations of public officials continue to subject our profession and government officials to public scorn and ridicule. The response, if we do not act,

will be an increasing amount of legislation criminalizing and otherwise regulating conduct and a demoralization in the practice of law and public service. We are losing many fine elected officials to retirement who no longer care to operate in a bitterly partisan and hostile atmosphere governed by few meaningful rules of conduct and subject to heightened and unrelenting personal scrutiny by the press. Among our own ranks, senior practitioners complain bitterly of the loss even of professional courtesy among lawyers and office holders.

In Boston, lawyers call their adversaries "brother" or "sister" in court. Anyone who experiences the practice appreciates the grace it adds to the proceedings. This grace is created by the aura of respect the titles seek to convey. In light of the increasing call by lawyers to return to greater professional civility, it is clear we ourselves feel and regret the loss of professional courtesy and respect.⁶⁰ We must first give respect to each other and to the profession—in word and in deed—before we can expect the public to do so.

If we act in these areas, the public discourse, the behavior of our lawyers and public officials as well as their reputations, and, ultimately, confidence in our legal and political systems will be greatly enhanced.

60. See Louis P. DiLorenzo, *Civility and Professionalism*, N.Y. ST. B.J., Jan. 1996, at 8, 8-10, 25 (exploring scope of decline in professionalism among attorneys, uncovering its cause, and suggesting possible solutions); see generally NEW YORK STATE BAR ASS'N, *CIVILITY IN LITIGATION: A VOLUNTARY COMMITMENT* (1995) (explaining suggested guidelines for behavior of all participants in litigation process).