#### **MINUTES**

#### CIVIL RULES ADVISORY COMMITTEE

#### **NOVEMBER 8-9, 2007**

 The Civil Rules Advisory Committee met on November 8 and 9, 2007, at the Administrative Office of the United States Courts. The meeting was attended by Judge Mark R. Kravitz, Chair; Judge Michael M. Baylson; Hon. Jeffrey Bucholtz; Judge David G. Campbell; Professor Steven S. Gensler; Daniel C. Girard, Esq.; Judge C. Christopher Hagy; Robert C. Heim, Esq.; Judge Paul J. Kelly, Jr.; Judge John G. Koeltl; Chilton Davis Varner, Esq.; Anton R. Valukas, Esq.; and Judge Vaughn R. Walker. Professor Edward H. Cooper was present as Reporter, and Professor Richard L. Marcus was present as Special Reporter. Judge Lee H. Rosenthal, chair, Judge Diane P. Wood, Judge Sidney A. Fitzwater, and Professor Daniel R. Coquillette, Reporter, represented the Standing Committee. Judge Eugene R. Wedoff attended as liaison from the Bankruptcy Rules Committee. Peter G. McCabe, John K. Rabiej, James Ishida, Jeffrey Barr, and Monica Fennell represented the Administrative Office. Joe Cecil, Emery Lee, and Thomas Willging represented the Federal Judicial Center. Ted Hirt, Esq., Department of Justice, was present. Andrea Thomson, Rules Clerk for Judge Rosenthal, attended. Observers included Alfred W. Cortese, Jr., Esq.,; Jeffrey Greenbaum, Esq. (ABA Litigation Section liaison); Chris Kitchel, Esq. (American College of Trial Lawyers liaison); and Ken Lazarus.

Judge Kravitz opened the meeting by noting that it is a "humbling pleasure" to become Chair of the Advisory Committee. He has reviewed the Advisory Committee's work over a 6-year period as a member of the Standing Committee. Viewed from that perspective, the Advisory Committee has done great work. His first encounter was a class-action conference convened by the Advisory Committee at the University of Chicago Law School; it was a masterful performance. The work on class actions, discovery of electronically stored information, and Style has been demanding but the results are rewarding. It will be hard to fill the shoes of Judge Rosenthal and her predecessor, David Levi, as chair. To paraphrase a politician, "I know Judge Rosenthal, I've worked with her, she's my friend. I am no Lee Rosenthal." Working with the Discovery and Rule 56 Subcommittees over the summer has been a good introduction to the Committee's work. The Rule 56 miniconference convened the day before this meeting was masterfully directed by Judge Baylson.

Gratitude was expressed for the work of Committee members whose terms have expired or who have moved out of the office establishing ex officio membership. Judge Cabranes was not able to attend this meeting. Acting Attorney General Peter Keisler was occupied with his other responsibilities. But Judge Kelly was present and was recognized. Judge Rosenthal said that all members of the Committee are deep, fascinating, complex people. Judge Kelly is a fine example, and unique in his own special ways. In addition to remaining current on his appellate docket he carries a substantial district-court docket; "I cannot tell you how that warms my heart." He does both jobs, trial and appellate, continually and very well. He also is a full-time volunteer fireman. And a sailor. "He is a remarkable guy." The Committee has been fortunate to have him bring all these qualities and insights to the Committee's work. "We have enjoyed our time with you." Judge kelly responded that he has never worked with another committee that gives such intellectual stimulation, nor found such fun and companionship. "I have enjoyed it very much."

Judge Kravitz also noted that three Committee members, Baylson, Girard, and Varner had been appointed to renewed 3-year terms.

Two new members have been appointed. He described the backgrounds of Judge Filip and Judge Koeltl. He also noted the background of Judge Wood, the new liaison from the Standing Committee, and Jeffrey Bucholtz from the Department of Justice.

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# April 2007 Minutes

 The draft minutes for the April 2007 meeting were approved, subject to correction of typographical and similar errors.

#### Agenda Items

Pending agenda items were briefly described. Expert trial witness disclosure and discovery and summary judgment will occupy most of the agenda for this meeting. The effects of the Twombly opinion on notice pleading practice will be discussed, but without any immediate prospect of drafting possible amendments to Rules 8 or 9. The Standing Committee has appointed a Subcommittee on case sealing, chaired by Judge Harris Hartz. Judge Koeltl is the Civil Rules member of the Subcommittee; Professor Marcus is the reporter. The topic began with a request that something be done to correct the programming that led the electronic case-filing system to report that "there is no such case" when an inquiry is made about a case that has been sealed in its entirety. That problem has been addressed. The topic then expanded to study at least the practice of sealing an entire case; it is possible that it may also consider whether to study practices in sealing specific items in a case file.

The Appellate Rules Committee has begun consideration of the problems that arise when a litigant loses the opportunity to take a timely appeal by relying on erroneous advice from the district court. If the Appellate Rules project goes to the point of framing specific rules proposals, it may prove useful to consider whether the Civil Rules should be amended to accommodate the Appellate Rules proposals.

Legislation is pending that includes a provision that would exclude application of part of Civil Rule 45 that might interfere with efforts to ensure that witnesses from around the country can be subpoenaed by the federal court in New York for "9/11" proceedings.

#### June 2007 Standing Committee Meeting

Judge Rosenthal reported briefly on the June 2007 Standing Committee meeting, in part as a preface to the work on Rule 56 that carries forward at the present meeting. The June agenda was presented in five books. That was too much material, with too many important topics, to permit a deliberate focus on Rule 56. As Advisory Committee chair she and Judge Levi agreed that it would be better to defer consideration of Rule 56 for publication so that the Standing Committee could consider it carefully and in depth. This coming January will be a good opportunity for a first presentation to the Standing Committee. The January meeting ordinarily is used in large part as a period of reflection, considering long-range questions or taking a first look at topics that will be brought back for action in June. Of course it is proper to present action items as well, taking advantage of the common circumstance that all of the advisory committees together typically present few action items. But the opportunity for a first careful look, allowing considered reaction by the advisory committees, is particularly valuable.

Judge Rosenthal also reported that the Standing Committee had considered and approved work by Professor Capra, Reporter for the Evidence Rules Committee, on standing orders. The use of standing orders is a subject for concern, in much the same way as local rules continue to cause concern. Standing orders are "the level below local rules." They are used in very different ways by different courts and judges. They are made available on court web sites in different ways. The report will be sent to the chief district judges, asking them to consider development of common standards on the allocation of subjects between local rules, court standing orders, and individual judge standing orders.

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#### Rule 26(a)(2), (b)(3), and (b)(4): Expert Witnesses

Judge Kravitz introduced the report of the Discovery Subcommittee. He noted that the Subcommittee has worked hard — while he was a member of the Standing Committee he sat in on the miniconference held in Arizona after the January Standing Committee meeting. Since then there have been another miniconference with New Jersey lawyers and many conference calls. Hard work has uncovered the difficulty of many issues that did not seem so complex on first acquaintance. Judge Kravitz and Professor Marcus attended an American Bar Association session on expert discovery. The session attracted a standing-room-only crowd of 285. "People are really interested" in these questions. And it was agreed by those present that the problems with present practice affect both plaintiffs and defendants; this is not a one-sided issue.

Judge Campbell began the Discovery Subcommittee report. He noted that this is the third time the Subcommittee has brought these issues to the Committee for discussion. The continued exploration and development reflect "how thorny the issues are." The purpose of the present report is to describe the Subcommittee's tentative suggestions and to get the Committee's views.

The Subcommittee's work began with two different sets of suggestions. One raised the rather narrow issue framed by the Rule 26(a)(2)(B) distinction that requires disclosure reports by expert witnesses whose duties as employees of a party regularly involve giving expert testimony, but not from employees whose duties do not. More than a few courts have ignored this distinction, reasoning that a report is useful in preparing to cross-examine and to rebut without regard to the frequency with which the employee witness acts as a witness. Related questions were raised, particularly by Judge Kravitz in Standing Committee discussions, about the problems that have emerged from discovery of treating physicians who appear as witnesses. Treating physician testimony is often challenged at trial on the theory that the physician has crossed the line from treating physician to expert retained or specially employed to give expert testimony, so that the testimony must be excluded for want of a disclosure report.

The other suggestions were framed by an ABA Litigation Section proposal to limit discovery of attorney-expert communications and to bar discovery of draft reports. The present system, fostered by the Committee Note to the 1993 amendments that added Rule 26(a)(2) disclosure, is seen as imposing extensive costs in time and money without revealing much useful information. And the prospect of discovery causes artificial behavior — experts do not make notes, they do not prepare drafts, they discuss their approaches orally with the lawyers, they scrub their hard drives to eliminate any trace of discoverable matter, and so on. Lawyers who want to protect communications with experts often are driven, when the client can afford it, to retain two sets of experts: consulting experts, protected against discovery by Rule 26(b)(4)(B), and trial-witness experts. Parties who cannot afford this expense are left at a disadvantage.

The Arizona miniconference attracted a good cross-section of the bar from different parts of the country. The April miniconference with New Jersey lawyers attracted lawyers from all aspects of practice, both private and public; the consensus was uniform enthusiasm for the New Jersey rule that sharply curtails discovery of expert witness exchanges with counsel. Practice, indeed, was said to go beyond the rule by recognizing still greater protection.

Since the miniconferences the Subcommittee has held seven conference calls. Each was long, and each could have run longer still. Four sets of issues have emerged:

Employees who are not required to make a disclosure report under Rule 26(a)(2)(B) and treating physicians — as well as other experts not retained or specially employed to give testimony in the case — are addressed in the draft Rule 26(a)(2)(A) set out at p. 109 of the agenda materials.

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This draft requires disclosure by the lawyer, not by the expert. The disclosure would describe the subject matter of the expected testimony and give the substance of the facts and opinions. The other side could then depose the witness under Rule 26(b)(4)(A). Plaintiff lawyers have made it clear that there is a risk of losing treating physicians as witnesses if they are required to prepare reports. Nor should the "drill-press operator" be required to prepare a report. The attorney disclosure will enable effective depositions if the other side wishes, and will avoid surprise at trial. The Subcommittee is comfortable with this recommendation.

The second and third issues run together. They involve discovery of attorney-expert communications and draft expert reports. The Subcommittee is satisfied that some protection is warranted. The challenge is to draw the lines of protection. What should be protected? How stringent should the protection be? The drafts begin the protection by adding one word to Rule 26(a)(2)(B): the expert must disclose a "final" report. Then a new subparagraph would be added to the work-product rule as Rule 26(b)(3)(D). This would say that draft reports and attorney-expert communications are not discoverable unless the requesting party makes the showing required by Rule 26(b)(3)(A) to obtain work product; even then the protection for "core" work product provided by 26(b)(3)(B) would apply, barring discovery of mental impressions, conclusions, opinions, or legal theories of the attorney or other representative concerning the litigation. Alternative approaches and levels of protection have been explored and remain open for further consideration. These provisions are both supported and offset by an amendment of Rule 26(a)(2)(B)(ii) to eliminate the source of broad discovery that has taken root there. The expert's report must contain "(ii) the facts or data or other information considered by the witness in forming" the opinions. The upshot is that facts and data communicated by the lawyer to the expert would remain discoverable. But beyond that the communications and draft reports would be discoverable only on the need and hardship showings required to defeat work-product protection.

The fourth issue involves expert work papers, as described at pp. 117-118 of the agenda materials. This is the area least thoroughly explored by the Subcommittee. Discovery of work papers will generate the same artificial behaviors that have emerged with respect to draft reports. For that matter, it is difficult to define a line between "work papers" and "draft reports." If a line is defined, it is safe to predict that all working papers will be stamped as "draft report." Fear of discovery could also lead to continuing the practice of retaining two sets of experts, one as consultants and another as witnesses. On the other hand, the need to test development of the opinion requires access to the facts or data considered — both those considered and relied upon and those considered and rejected.

#### (1) Treating Physicians, Employees Not Regular Witnesses

Professor Marcus launched more detailed discussion of the proposal for "lawyer disclosure." The Committee was advised of a rather common practice of misconstruing Rule 26(a)(2)(B) to require disclosure reports by employee expert witnesses whose duties to not regularly involve giving expert testimony. The theory seems to be that in framing the original rule the rulemakers did not realize what a good thing the report is. That frames the question whether there are good reasons for drawing the distinction between four categories of expert witnesses: those retained or specially employed to give testimony; those whose duties as employees regularly involve giving expert testimony; and other experts who are not a party's employees and who are not retained or specially employed to give expert testimony. One possible concern seems to have been put aside — lawyers say that they do not forgo choosing the most useful expert because of the burden of preparing a report. If the best witness is an employee who has never testified as an expert, that employee would still be used even

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if a report had to be prepared. But there is frustration with respect to treating physicians, and perhaps also fact witnesses who are also able to give expert opinions. The problems tend to surface at trial, when an objection is made that the witness cannot offer an opinion because there was no disclosure report.

The Subcommittee decided that there is no need to require a disclosure report by those who are experts in a particular topic but not professionally engaged in giving expert testimony. Rule 26(a)(2)(A) would be revised to require disclosure by the lawyer as to the subject matter of the opinion testimony and the substance of the facts and opinions. This disclosure will suffice to inform other parties' decisions whether to depose the witness, and how to examine the witness at deposition or trial. The draft Committee Note on this topic has not been considered by the Subcommittee. The Note identifies treating physicians as one of the categories of experts who often will fall into this lawyer disclosure. It was decided, however, that the rule text should not single out treating physicians for special attention.

Judge Campbell noted that the Subcommittee had decided to delete a further requirement that the lawyer disclosure state a summary of the grounds for each opinion. There was no great apparent need for this kind of summary, and a fear that treating physicians might refuse to spend enough time with the lawyer to support the summary.

Discussion began with the observation that trial often degenerates to a "gotcha" in opposing treating physician testimony. Similar problems arise with respect to such witnesses as a state police officer who investigated an accident. These problems are addressed vaguely in the 1993 Committee Note. "The case law is punishing." Often these witnesses have been disclosed under 26(a)(1)(A)(i), but not under (a)(2)(A), much less made to report under (a)(2)(B). Their testimony is often excluded.

The next observation was that at both miniconferences the lawyers thought that full opinions are not needed. In most of these cases there will be abundant discovery materials to support preparation for the deposition.

Then came a question: suppose records — for example medical care records — are attached to the lawyer's summary disclosure. Will the attachment limit the opinions that can be expressed? An answer was: "I've never seen a response saying only 'see attached.' Lawyers provide at least a few paragraphs." A further response was that a treating physician will have records or notes, but that often the notes do not address causation or prognosis. Opinions on these subjects may be excluded unless they are included in the summary. The lawyer knows what she wants from the witness and can include it in the summary. The other side can depose the witness if they want.

The next question asked how often do lawyers in fact follow up a summary disclosure with a deposition. The first response was that in Arizona, which has a similar disclosure rule, lawyers do not bother with a deposition if the witness is disclosed only for treatment. But if the witness will offer opinions beyond the treatment, depositions are taken. An additional response was that one of the expectations behind adoption of the Rule 26(a)(2)(B) disclosure report in 1993 was that the detailed report often would forestall the need for any deposition; that expectation does not seem to have been realized.

There are many technical issues surrounding the attorney disclosure. Suppose the witness has already been deposed: is permission needed for a second deposition? Or suppose the side has already taken ten depositions? These problems exist now. The Committee considered a timing rule related to depositions, but decided any workable rule would be too complicated. It seems likely that a second deposition will be allowed if the disclosure identifies an opinion that was not explored at

the first deposition. And the Subcommittee expects that an opinion not identified in the disclosure will be excluded at trial. These topics might be addressed in the Committee Note; work on the Note will continue.

**Draft Reports** 

Draft language dealing with expert reports appears at pages 111 and 114 of the November agenda materials. The first changes appear in Rule 26(a)(2)(B). One word is added in the first sentence, describing the report that accompanies the expert witness disclosure as a "written <u>final</u> report." Item (ii) in the list of report contents is then changed as noted above: the report must contain "the <u>facts or</u> data <del>or other information</del> considered by the witness in forming" the opinions. The word "final" may be resisted as an unnecessary "intensifier," but the common discovery quest for draft reports may make this useful.

The provision directly addressing draft reports is combined with attorney-expert communications in a new Rule 26(b)(3)(D) addressing communications between counsel and a person identified as an expert by a Rule 26(a)(2)(A) disclosure and also "a draft report prepared by such a person." Discovery is limited to "facts or data considered by the expert in forming the opinions the expert will express. The court may order further discovery only on a showing that satisfies Rule 26(b)(3)(A)(i) and (ii). If the court orders further discovery, the protection of Rule 26(b)(3)(B) applies \* \* \*." This draft extends the protections accorded work product to attorneyexpert communications and draft expert reports. Discovery is allowed only on showing substantial need for the materials and inability to obtain the substantial equivalent without undue hardship. Even if these standards are met, the court — by virtue of (b)(3)(B) — "must protect against disclosure of the mental impressions, opinions, or legal theories of a party's attorney or other representative concerning the litigation." Treating these expert materials as if work product is not the same as labeling them work product. Rule 26(b)(3) of itself protects only documents and tangible things; protection of such things as oral communications by a lawyer in anticipation of litigation or preparation for trial continues to depend on the "common-law" doctrine developed by Hickman v. Taylor. It has seemed better to postpone any effort to redraft (b)(3) in a way that would facilitate direct incorporation of these expert materials into work-product protection.

The agenda materials include at p. 114, note 13, a shorter alternative (b)(3)(D) that states that the communications and draft reports "are protected as trial preparation material under Rule 26(b)(3)(A) and (B)." This version has been displaced because of concern that it might create apparent conflicts by extending work-product protection beyond the documents and tangible things protected by (b)(3). This approach, further, might exacerbate problems that trace back to the 1970 drafting of (b)(3) and (b)(4). In the 1970 Rules, (b)(4) provided that discovery as to experts could be had "only as follows." Because (b)(3) was then, as now, "subject to" (b)(4), it was clear that experts were governed by a separate set of standards, independent of work-product theory. The words "only as follows" were deleted from (b)(4) in the 1993 amendments. The desire to protect attorney-expert communications in any form led to the longer draft version.

Drafting issues remain. The suggested version that applies the "core work-product" protection of Rule 26(b)(3)(B) to expert materials includes in brackets: "applies [to counsel's mental impressions, opinions, or legal theories]." If the bracketed words are omitted, the expert's mental impressions, opinions, or legal theories also are protected. The choice is not an easy one.

One question has been protection of supplemental reports. Drafts leading to a final supplemental report would be protected under the rule protecting draft reports.

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The draft report questions lead directly to a difficult set of questions regarding "work papers." Can a meaningful line be drawn between work papers that should be subject to discovery and draft reports that are protected? What is to stop an expert from stamping every paper as a draft report?

The first question asked how it has come to be that discovery is widely obtained with respect to attorney-expert communications and draft reports? The practice seems to have grown out of the 1993 creation of the new Rule 26(a)(2)(B) expert witness disclosure report. The rule directed that the report "contain \* \* \* the data or other information considered by the witness in forming the opinions." The Committee Note says that given the obligation to disclose data and other information considered by the expert, "litigants should no longer be able to argue that materials furnished to their experts to be used in forming their opinions — whether or not ultimately relied upon by the expert — are privileged or otherwise protected from disclosure when such persons are testifying or being deposed." The "other information" phrase has been seized upon to include attorney-expert communications that have nothing to do with "data." It is not at all clear whether the Committee intended this result. It is surprising to think that the Committee might so casually defeat even the protections of privilege without clearly identifying the issue and invoking the special Enabling Act procedures that 28 U.S.C. § 2074(b) imposes on any rule "creating, abolishing, or modifying an evidentiary privilege." A casual inquiry directed to the Committee Reporter for the period in which Rule 26(a)(2)(B) was developed elicited no clear recollection of attention to this issue. All that can be said with confidence is that the 1993 amendments as a package were designed to move beyond the 1970 version of Rule 26(b)(4) to establish deposition of a trial witness expert as a routine right. This version confirmed practices that had become widespread in some, but not all, federal courts. Overall, including the newly devised disclosure report, "which is intended to set forth the substance of the direct examination," it is clear that the Committee intended to establish a much more open process with respect to trial-witness experts. It is clear that it did not want the witness to be able to conceal the factual basis assumed in forming an opinion by invoking the work-product argument that counsel had suggested the fact be assumed. Beyond that point, matters remain uncertain. Some participants from the time believe that the Committee never intended the practices that have grown out of the Committee Note.

Discussion turned to the question whether Evidence Rule 612 addresses the question, however indirectly or awkwardly. It provides for production "at a hearing" "if a witness uses a writing to refresh memory for the purpose of testifying, either (1) while testifying, or (2) before testifying, if the court in its discretion determines it is necessary in the interests of justice." A famous ruling several years ago relied on Rule 612 to direct production of volumes of work-product materials an attorney had given to an expert. But what is the line between information given to create an opinion and information used to refresh memory — including "memory" of an opinion never before formed? And for that matter, how far is it practicable to win a court ruling that the interests of justice require production of materials considered by the expert before testifying at deposition?

The draft refers to discovery of "facts or data." What, it was asked, is the difference between a fact and a datum? Referring to "data" alone might carry an untoward limitation by somehow implying a rigorously collected set of anonymous facts, perhaps divorced from the immediate events in litigation. There can be no doubt that "facts" includes all of the historic facts surrounding the action. "Facts or data' works in the New Jersey rule."

A perennial question has been whether disclosure and discovery should be narrowed to facts or data "relied upon" by the expert, foreclosing discovery of facts or data considered but put aside

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in framing the opinion. Limitation to facts "relied upon" was rejected as too narrow. It is important to be able to cross-examine the expert by asking whether fact X was considered, why it was not considered if it was not, why it was not relied upon if it was considered, and so on. One of the examples that recurred during Subcommittee discussions was the expert who ran the same test 37 times. It failed to produce the desired result 36 times, but did produce (or seem to produce) the desired result once. Should the expert be able to express an opinion based on the one test he chose to rely upon, and to bury the 36 other tests considered but not relied upon because unfavorable? "Considered" appears to have been deliberately chosen in 1993, and continues to be the right choice. An observer suggested that 90% of the problems arise from "or other information," not from "considered." "Facts or data" are the heart of the opinion testimony and the heart of what should be discoverable.

The same observer further suggested that there should be an absolute prohibition on disclosure or discovery of draft reports. Present discovery practice has spurred many artificial practices designed to prevent the emergence of anything that looks like a draft "report." If there are any escape routes that will allow discovery, the same practices will continue. The response noted that the Subcommittee had considered this possibility. But it concluded that adopting the work-product standards for discovery would afford an effective protection that would abolish the incentives to communicate by artificial and awkward means, scrub computer drives, and so on. It will be difficult to show substantial need for discovery of a draft report, and it may also be difficult to show an inability to obtain the substantial equivalent without undue hardship by turning to your own experts. It seemed better nonetheless to hold open the possibility that some circumstances might support these showings and thus warrant discovery. A draft report, for example, might reflect facts or data that cannot be duplicated; destructive testing of evidence is the example most frequently suggested. If a lawyer's "documents" are not absolutely protected by Rule 26(b)(3), why should an expert's drafts be afforded greater protection?

This theme was expanded. "We're looking at a problem driven by practitioners." The problem arises from the artificiality of forcing lawyers to communicate with experts in ways that do not endure, to ensure that there are no "draft reports." Lawyers representing both plaintiffs and defendants agree that everyone would be better off without this discovery. It is increasingly common for lawyers to agree on a case-by case basis that they will not pursue discovery of draft reports or attorney-expert communications. Raising protection to the level of work-product protection is so effective that the artificial behaviors will disappear. "The destructive testing example is very rare. There will seldom be occasions for discovery." The Committee Note makes it clear that "substantial need" cannot be shown simply by arguing that discovery is needed to support effective cross-examination.

Attention turned back to the Rule 26(a)(2)(B) reference to a "final" report. The amendment would not change the time for disclosure set by (a)(2). It would simply emphasize that the disclosure obligation is only a report that anticipates the direct examination, not all preliminary approaches considered in framing the direct testimony. What we want at the time for disclosure is a "final" report, and that is what judges require. At the same time, further consideration is required. Rule 26(e)(2) explicitly recognizes a duty to supplement the (a)(2)(B) report — the report is not "final" in a sense that relieves the obligation to supplement when the expert's trial testimony will change. Nor is it intended to cut off the right to supplement the report. If the only purpose for saying "final" is to emphasize the explicit later rule limiting discovery of draft reports, it may be better to drop "final."

The Committee agreed that it is sensible to protect against discovery of draft reports by

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invoking the work-product discovery tests of Rule 26(b)(3)(A)(i) and (ii), as well as the core work-product protection of (b)(3)(B). The Subcommittee remains free to refine the drafting as appropriate and to consider further the issues left open.

#### **Attorney-Expert Communications**

Because a single draft provision embraces both draft reports and attorney-expert communications, discussion of the communications issues was opened with the draft-report issues. The origin and genesis of the issues seems to be the same — the 1993 Rule 26(a)(2)(B) Committee Note. But it is possible that different drafting approaches are desirable, including different locations within Rule 26.

The overall orientation of the draft responds to the sense expressed by participants in the August ABA meeting: unbridled discovery of attorney-expert communications has many more bad consequences in the development of expert testimony than it has good consequences in other discovery or at trial.

As with draft reports, it would be possible to create an absolute protection. Or different levels of protection could be invoked — a rule could protect only "core opinion" work-product, or adopt the "exceptional circumstances" test applied to experts retained or specially employed to consult but not testify, or the general substantial need and undue hardship test of Rule 26(b)(3)(A)(i) and (ii). Or present practice could be left where it is. Among these choices, it again seemed best to allow discovery only on satisfying the need-and-hardship test, and even then to protect mental impressions, opinions, and legal theories. Protection of opinions and the like, however, must be subject to the basic need to disclose and discover the opinions that will be expressed in testimony.

There are similar choices to be made in locating any new provision within Rule 26. The problem began with the Committee Note to Rule 26(a)(2)(B), but the problem is one of discovery, not the disclosure report. Locating a new provision here would invite casual disregard by occasional federal-court practitioners. (b)(4), addressing expert-witness discovery, is a more likely possibility. But (b)(4)(A) addresses only discovery by deposition; the protection should extend to all forms of discovery. So (b)(3) was chosen for the draft.

The first question asked whether the scope of the present project should be expanded to reconsider all of the rules addressed to expert-witness discovery. Although the present rules are drafted with precision in a way that is helpful in some cases, perhaps it would be better to craft simpler rules that leave more to the trial judge's discretion. An answer was that discretion makes it impossible to predict with any confidence what the ruling will be. The uncertainty would be multiplied in litigation of topics that may become involved in different federal courts. Lawyers would have to anticipate discovery according to the most expansive views that might be adopted. "The result will be continuation of the problems we encounter now." General propositions may not afford an effective degree of protection. This answer was expanded by an observation that "it is important to stop the mickey-mouse behavior that's going on now. It gets in the way, and turns up nothing of use."

Still, there might be some advantage in developing a single rule that governs all aspects of expert-witness disclosure and discovery. As Rule 26 has expanded over the years to far outstrip the length of any other rule, and to become interdependent with other discovery rules, the structure more and more resembles a tax code.

The discussion of locating protection of attorney-expert communications in the rules expanded. Initially attention turned to the "facts or data" phrase that would be substituted in Rule

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26(a)(2)(B)'s direction for the disclosure report. There is strong support for making this change there. But it is critical to maintain discoverability in the provisions that address discovery, wherever located. Those provisions could be located in (b)(4), working from the view that people will naturally look to (b)(4) for the limits on expert-witness discovery. At the same time, it must be remembered that the protection at deposition that might be provided in (b)(4)(A) also should continue at trial — it would be a step backward to prohibit discovery of material that could be the subject of examination at trial. Trial examination would then encounter all of the problems that led to the 1970 addition of (b)(4) discovery. Although there is no present occasion to reexamine workproduct doctrine in general, protection of attorney-expert communications involves the attorney as well as the expert. The focus on the attorney is even more clear if the eventual rule extends core work-product protection only to the mental impressions, opinions, and legal theories of the attorney and not those of the expert. (b)(3), to be sure, is incomplete as it stands; reliance on Hickman v. Taylor remains necessary as to matters not covered as documents or tangible things. The choice is further complicated by the need to choose the standard of protection — if it is to be the "exceptional circumstances" standard of (b)(4)(B), perhaps (b)(4) is the better location. On the other hand, (b)(3)extends protection to a party's "consultant" and "agent." The now ambiguous relationship between (b)(3) and (b)(4) may mean that even now the expert witness's documents fall directly into workproduct protection.

A still further complication was recognized. The draft protects all attorney-expert communications, without attempting to distinguish among those that seem to involve something like work-product and those that do not. One horrid example might be that an attorney tells the expert that "if you do well in this case, I have 50 more; you can earn a lot of money." We are uncomfortable with paid witnesses in an intensely adversarial system. "If impeachment testimony that comes through the lawyer is off limits, we may get awkward lawyer behavior." The draft rule seems to put all aspects of negotiating compensation off limits. This example, however, may serve primarily to show that a rule cannot be drafted to cover all bad conduct. Rule 26(a)(2)(B) requires disclosure of the compensation to be paid for the study and testimony in the case. Perhaps the suggestion of future rewards falls within that. But more importantly, it is unlawful to arrange a fee for expert testimony contingent on the outcome. Something like the crime-fraud exception should justify discovery, and that may fit more readily within established work-product doctrine than within a new expert-discovery rule.

More general discussion noted that the draft does not put off-limits all communications. Facts or data communicated by the lawyer and considered by the expert remain discoverable without any required showing of substantial need or undue hardship. And there are many ways to cross-examine a witness. "We cannot write a rule without creating loopholes." But we do need to shield attorney-expert communications. We want a rule that people can rely on without attempting to create loopholes. And the loss from affording this protection is de minimis. It is possible that the disclosure report will be drafted by the lawyer, not the expert. That is rare. And that expert is likely to fail on cross-examination. As soon as exceptions are recognized, the ability to rely on the rule will diminish. The counter-productive behavior we have now will continue. "We need to enable dealing with the expert comfortably."

These themes were explored further. "Why limit discovery short of what is allowed at trial"? At trial you can ask about compensation. It is in the disclosure report. Does the draft rule permit inquiry on deposition? So of the question of who actually wrote the disclosure report. In one recent trial the expert testified that the lawyer wrote the report. After the verdict, the jury revealed an assumption that it is always the lawyer that writes the report.

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Returning to the question of location within the rules, it was observed that the rule drafts address discovery, not trial. "Putting it all in one place may not be possible." But will people look to (b)(3)? And "if this all can come in at trial, what do we gain"?

The question of trial examination prompted the statement that although the discovery rule will address only discovery, it must be anticipated that the same protection will carry over to trial. If the protection does not carry over, none of the gains sought by limiting discovery will be realized. The same artificial behaviors will continue. And so will the problems arising from the imbalance between parties who can and those who cannot retain two sets of experts, one set to consult and remain free from discovery, the other to testify and be subject to discovery. There continues to be a substantial "common law" of work-product protection, and it applies at trial as well as in discovery. So in criminal cases, without a work-product Criminal Rule, work-product is protected at trial. There may be an advantage in situating the new provisions with the work-product provisions in (b)(3) because courts are familiar with the concept that although there is no Evidence Rule to parallel Rule 26(b)(3), work-product protection applies at trial.

This puzzle was developed further by asking what reason there might be to distinguish an expert witness from other witnesses. It is fair to ask an ordinary witness what the witness discussed with counsel. How is an expert different? Is it because we tacitly recognize an adversary dimension of advocacy in the sworn truthful testimony of the expert that we do not recognize with a fact witness? What should be done about an employee witness or, for example, a treating physician: should examination be permitted at trial as to their communications with counsel? The draft proposal extends discovery protection to any person identified under Rule 26(a)(2)(A), whether or not a disclosure report is required under (a)(2)(B), although it may be relevant that the parallel proposal will require attorney disclosure as to any (A) expert not required to give a disclosure report under (B). Is it intended also to cut off examination at trial? If possible, it would be helpful to articulate the reasons for closing off inquiry into communications between counsel and all these experts, and for hoping to extend the bar to examination at trial.

The question of protecting oral communications then arose. Rule 26(b)(3), standing alone, protects only documents and tangible things. The proposal to protect oral communications with expert witnesses thus reaches further. Why should that be? One answer was that it would be difficult to draw a line that distinguishes between communications that distinguish an attorney's thinking about the case from other communications. The line that allows discovery of communications about facts or data considered by the expert in forming an opinion is the most workable line that can be drawn. The first response was that the line between an attorney's thought processes and other matters is drawn at depositions now, but this response was qualified by agreeing that the other side's theories and mental impressions are being disclosed now and that this practice should be stopped if possible.

The role of expert witnesses was considered again. They are "unique creatures, one part witness and another part helpers in preparing and presenting the case." Protection of attorney-expert communications need not rest on characterizing them as closer kin to lawyers than to witnesses. Protection simply reflects "practical reality."

The costs of present practice were recalled by observing again that sophisticated lawyers opt out of this discovery. They agree not to ask for communications or drafts. And good people feel bad about the way the practice makes them behave in dealing with experts, instructing them not to prepare drafts, hedging communications, perhaps retaining a set of nontestifying experts. "These are good reasons to change the rule."

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A similar observation was that communications between attorney and expert witness are different from communications with other witnesses. This proposition should be made clear in advancing the proposals. "This is a set of problems that lawyers understand better than judges do. Judges see the disputes cleaned up, not in raw form." The meeting with New Jersey lawyers offered persuasive reasons for believing that although an occasionally useful bit of information will elude discovery under the proposed protections, the tradeoff is desirable. "What you lose is a cost well worth bearing." A rule that barred only questions going "solely" to an attorney's theories and impressions sounds nice, but it would be hard to implement in practice.

The problem of extending the protection to trial was brought back for discussion. Can a Civil Rule on discovery control evidence at trial? Can a sensible system be developed only by parallel Civil and Evidence Rules? And again it was answered that one advantage of incorporating the protection in Rule 26(b)(3) is that courts are accustomed to carrying work-product protection over to trial, and will understand the need to carry over as well the parallel protections for attorney-expert communications and draft reports. To be sure, the protection will extend beyond communications that would now be protected as work product under Hickman v. Taylor. A lawyer who wants to retain a highly qualified expert who has never appeared as an expert witness, for example, may now be deterred by the prospect that efforts to train the expert in the ways of witnessing will be discoverable.

The differences between experts and other witnesses were then approached from a new angle. There are two kinds of experts. In some circumstances, the expert witness is an advocate, and everyone knows it. The jury figures it out. Then there are others who appear as witnesses seldom, and then only to testify for a party they think is right on the issues addressed by the expert testimony. The jury figures out this picture as well. "The rule will not sacrifice much." But it will save great expense, "and that is an important benefit for the party that ought to win."

Attempts to summarize this discussion led first to the response that no Committee member wants open discovery of communications. Nor did anyone want to limit protection narrowly to an attorney's mental impressions. But doubts remained whether discovery protection will extend to protection at trial, underlined by grave doubts whether a discovery protection is worthwhile if the matters ruled out of discovery can be explored at trial. It will be important to attempt, by further research, to develop as good an idea as possible about the prospect that discovery limits will be honored at trial.

#### **Expert Work Papers**

The Subcommittee devoted several hours to discussing the possible values and difficulties of a rule protecting an expert witness's "work papers" against discovery. The question is difficult. Both sides of the argument were presented first.

The "whole loaf" protection argument builds on the practice, indulged by litigants who can afford it, of retaining two sets of experts. The experts who will be trial witnesses are carefully excluded from development of the case. The experts who are retained only as "consultants" are shielded from discovery by the "exceptional circumstances" test in Rule 26(b)(4)(B). They can participate openly in shaping strategy, in sorting unsuccessful approaches out from more favorable approaches, in helping to evaluate the case, in reviewing reports by the other side's experts, in preparing cross-examination of the other party's experts, and so on. Smaller firms find this burdensome, and many clients cannot afford it. The "collaborative process" that engages an expert witness in counsel's work and work product should be protected by extending the Rule 26(b)(4)(B) test to work that does not involve facts or data considered in forming the trial testimony. So, for

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example, the expert may consider 3, or 4, or 5 different tests. Counsel picks the one that is most favorable. If a consulting expert does all that, followed by a trial expert's consideration only of the most favorable test, the consultant's work is not discoverable. A trial expert should be allowed to perform this consulting work, and to be protected in the same way.

Similarly, suppose an expert jots notes in the margins of a draft report: is that part of the draft report, and not discoverable? Will efforts to draw a line between protected draft reports and unprotected "working papers" lead to gaming behavior similar to the behavior now prevalent? Or suppose counsel and expert discuss alternative approaches — is the discussion not a draft report, so in discovery a line must be drawn between the mental processes of counsel that are protected as work product and the mental processes of the expert that are not protected?

And if an expert's working papers or notes are discoverable, will that open the door to discovery of attorney-expert communications?

The less protective "half-loaf" approach would be to accord different treatment to work papers than to draft reports or attorney-expert communications. Facts and data considered by the expert would remain discoverable, no matter whether counsel was the source. But it is very hard to separate work papers from facts and data. Drafting a clear definition of the things protected as work papers will be difficult.

A "whole-loaf" approach, further, would be polarizing. If an expert explores 5 tests that produce the "right" result by different methods, and chooses to rely on 2 or 3 of them, the others should be discoverable.

Discussion began with the observation that if work papers are discoverable, the incentive to retain two sets of experts will remain. And there will be gamesmanship to defeat discovery, instructing the expert to label everything as a "draft report." But the decision to allow discovery of facts and data considered by the expert seems to require discovery of work papers.

An observer suggested that the rule must protect the opportunity to ask the expert to review an adversary's expert report, and to participate in planning cross-examination. A lawyer should not have to retain a separate consulting expert to be protected against discovery of such collaboration. So protection should extend to such discussions as evaluating settlement options, perhaps by estimating the damage awards that would result from adopting the approaches suggested by one expert or the other, or from amalgamating them. Such matters are not discoverable from a trial witness in New Jersey.

It was suggested that the problem of work papers emerged at an advanced stage of Subcommittee deliberations. The New Jersey rule does not address work papers. Neither do the ABA recommendations. Some part of an expert's mental processes must be open to discovery — the only way to test an opinion is to explore the ways in which it was developed.

The observer responded that under New Jersey practice discovery extends to the calculations supporting an opinion. Papers on the discount rate assumed, market analysis, and such are discoverable. That does not directly address the problem of the expert who repeats a test 37 times, rejecting 36 unfavorable results and adopting the 1 favorable result. Are the 36 unfavorable tests facts or data considered in forming the opinion? Perhaps it is enough to address such questions by examples in the Committee Note. Discovery clearly extends to "work papers" supporting the report. Perhaps it should extend to other "reports" considered.

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The problem of two sets of experts returned with the observation that if you do not know what the results of a test will be, you hire an expert who will remain a consulting expert if the results prove to be unfavorable. But perhaps that is not a general problem. In any event, anyone who may become a testifying expert will be instructed to create no notes, or notes in a form that you want to have produced. Experienced expert witnesses will not produce papers inconsistent with what they are testifying to.

It was protested that protecting work papers will not protect the interests of justice. We want to know whether the expert was told not to inquire into one subject or another.

The "facts or data" line was brought back for discussion. All drafts seek to allow discovery of facts or data considered by the expert. But how does that address the examples of expert advice offered to counsel? We want discovery of all matters that went into shaping the expert's opinion, but expert advice to counsel should not be discoverable.

The difficulty of distinguishing advice offered by the expert to counsel from development of the expert's opinion was tested by asking whether an expert's opinion may be shaped by reviewing for counsel the report of the adversary's expert? Suppose the adversary's expert engaged in sophisticated "numbers crunching" — may not the expert's trial testimony be shaped, in part to respond and perhaps in part to back off from initial opinions that now appear unsustainable? But if you can discover that, why not also permit questions about the ways in which conversations with counsel may have shaped the opinions?

Returning to the earlier decision to protect attorney-expert communications and draft reports, it was noted that these protections should extend to discussions of strategy and the related examples of evaluating adversary expert reports, preparing to cross-examine adversary experts, and the like. At the same time, the expert witness can be asked: "Did you ever consider X"?

The next step was taken by asking whether the trial expert could be asked whether she had evaluated the adversary expert's report? If she did, can the next question be: "What did you think of it"? The person who thought the communications protected responded that these questions remain proper. But, it was protested, that response means that you do after all have to hire consulting experts to protect against discovery of trial experts.

A similar dilemma was expressed by suggesting that if we protect something framed as a communication to counsel, discovery is blocked by framing everything as a communication to counsel. Well, not everything would be protected — facts and data considered would remain discoverable. Opinions to be expressed at trial are discoverable. But what about opinions that will not be expressed at trial? The view was expressed that these are not facts or data, and should not be discoverable. Nor should assistance in preparing cross-examination be discoverable; the expert can deflect discovery by saying that the cross-examination communications were not considered in framing the expert's own opinions. One way to bolster this position is to ask the expert to evaluate the adversary expert's report, and to help to prepare cross-examination, only after your expert has prepared her own report.

The same problems were examined again by confessing that it is difficult to draw the proper lines. Facts or data bear on the opinions expressed on the stand. It may be hard to draw that line. "Did you consider X" is proper. "What of our expert's report" is proper. If considering the adversary expert's report changed the opinion of another party's expert, that should be discoverable — perhaps it amounts to facts or data considered? Would it be possible to say that if the effect flowed only as a matter of high theory, divorced from specific facts, it is not discoverable or subject to examination at trial? It is difficult to ignore the problem of work papers, but the best line may

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be that adopted in the drafts for attorney-expert communications and draft reports: "facts and data considered" are to be disclosed and are subject to discovery, while other matters are protected by the work-product tests.

It was suggested that if there is no separate protection for work papers, it will be important to provide examples of protected attorney-expert communications in the Committee Note. And also some testing illustrations of what are "facts or data." This suggestion was seconded. At times it is impossible to frame clear rule text that answers all of the prominent problems. Examples in the Committee Note may help to clarify the rule text without creating unforeseen traps.

An observer noted that the ABA report implicitly deals with these problems. Analysis for settlement, critique of an opposing expert, and exploration with the expert of competing methodologies should be protected. But the "36 tests that disappear" may not be addressed by the ABA resolution. And if "work papers" do not include "notes in the margin," discovery of work papers may be appropriate — the expert's methodology is important.

But a challenge was put: "Do we agree that we should bar discovery of an expert's critique of an opposing expert"? Suppose the critique is factually based? Doesn't the adversary need to discover that? All the calculations the expert did that support or undermine the adversary expert's opinion should be fair game for discovery.

It was responded that if, after an expert's disclosure report is filed, the retaining party asks him to analyze the other party's expert report, that analysis is not something that informed the expert's opinion. Production should not be required.

The need for protection was underscored by observing that one of the participants in the January miniconference was an attorney who often takes "small-injury cases." He cannot afford to hire two experts. And he needs to be able to ask his expert for an opinion on what the case is worth — but he cannot do that if the opinion will be subject to discovery.

A broader perspective was suggested by noting that what we are trying to avoid is the use of an expert "witness" as an attorney's mouthpiece to present the case. We protect the expert consultant because that expert is not a mouthpiece. The expert witness should be subject to discovery that uncovers the mouthpiece role.

This view was met by the suggestion that in reality, cross-examination will reveal the witness who testifies as mouthpiece, not as expert.

A different but also broad perspective was taken in noting that as our system has evolved trials have become more and more infrequent. Expert witnesses are used more on summary judgment, certification of class actions, electronic discovery, and other events. Examination of an expert is different in these contexts. The "documents" are critical in determining what other parties can use in framing their examinations.

The difficulty of the "work papers" question was underscored by a suggestion that perhaps it would be useful to publish a proposal for comment, indicating at the same time that the fall-back position might be to rely only on protection for attorney-expert communications and draft reports. Tentative publication for the purpose of eliciting comment to inform decision on controversial proposals is at times appropriate. But the first task should be to reach the best judgment the Committee can. If it seems unwise to attempt protection of work papers, it may suffice to note that decision in the communication transmitting for publication the proposals on attorney-expert communications and on draft reports. The important thing is to find a mode of publication that

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elicits comments that may enable a decision to go forward without repeating the publication-and-comment process.

The question whether to continue to allow discovery of facts or data "considered" returned with the suggestion that the focus on facts or data "considered" in forming an opinion comes close to facts relied upon, and that the problems posed by discovery of work papers might be solved by limiting disclosure and discovery to facts "relied upon." This suggestion was not pursued further.

An effort to focus the discussion on reaching decisions began by asking whether a rule should be proposed to bar discovery of all work papers. No one supported this approach. Four votes were offered for an attempt to draw a line that would allow discovery of work papers that "go to the heart of the opinion, but not otherwise."

Then it was recognized that sufficient protection might be found in limiting discovery of communications with an attorney. The protection might be fleshed out by examples in the Committee Note. And so it was concluded that the most promising approach is to carry forward with the provisions that apply work-product standards to discovery of attorney-expert communications and draft reports, while allowing discovery of facts and data considered by the trial-witness expert in forming the opinions to be expressed.

#### **Duration of Protection**

A final question addressed a problem not framed by any draft rule text. How long should the protection against discovery of expert trial witnesses extend? If protection is provided in the first case, what about a second case with the same attorney, the same expert, and the same or closely related subject matter? If we allow discovery in the second case of all communications and draft reports in the first case, have we lost all of the benefits of the protections in any situation that includes the possibility of related actions?

This question is nearly the same as the question of extending work-product protection from one action to another.

The Subcommittee is investigating these questions. A recent decision has been found in which an expert was involved in a first case. The same expert then became involved in a second case involving similar subject matter, but different parties and a different lawyer. There were added complexities. The court allowed discovery of the expert's work in the first case. Is that proper? The question is in some ways similar to the question raised by the "retaining counsel" question. Suppose one defendant confronts 100 actions by 100 different plaintiffs with 100 different lawyers, all of whom retain the same expert? The question is complicated. The Supreme Court has approached it only in a Freedom of Information Act case, FTC v. Grolier. The Subcommittee has begun to explore these problems only recently. There may be a real need to provide some form of protection for the lawyer who often hires the same expert for similar actions, or closely related actions.

These questions may only be aggravated in mass torts. Imagine, for example, the expert retained for the bellwether trial in the first of 14,000 similar product-liability cases.

A further question may be posed by the "turncoat" expert who consults for one party and then changes sides to work for an opposing party.

It was noted that agreements with expert witnesses commonly contain confidentiality provisions, but that courts do not seem to feel bound to enforce them.

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Discussion of expert-witness discovery problems concluded with the Subcommittee's undertaking to prepare for the spring meeting a proposal that may be suitable for a recommendation to publish.

715 Rule 56

Judge Baylson introduced the Rule 56 Subcommittee discussion by noting that the miniconference held on November 7 was structured in the same way as the New York conference in January. It was perhaps a bit larger — counting Subcommittee members there were perhaps 30 people gathered around the table. The discussion proceeded on a very high level throughout and produced many excellent suggestions. The Subcommittee met for two hours after the conference to consider which points were the most valuable. The next step will be a revised draft, framed in reliance on the Committee's discussion today. The plan is to have a draft that can be presented for initial discussion in the Standing Committee next January, with the hope to have a recommendation for publication by next spring. The work has been strongly supported by Joe Cecil's research at the Federal Judicial Center.

**Rule 56(a)** 

The time-for-motion provisions in draft Rule 56(a) are in essence the same as the proposals published last August as part of the Time-Computation Project.

The provision that allows the Rule 56(a) time periods to be changed by local rule has drawn the questions that invariably arise when local rules are recognized. But allowing local rules will recognize local docket circumstances and motion-practice traditions. This provision seems secure.

The provision allowing the court to order different time periods will be revised by adding words to require that the order be made "in a case." These words are intended to discourage "standing orders."

Subdivision (a)(1) describes a motion for summary judgment "on an issue." This phrase will be changed to "part or all of a claim or defense." Inviting motions on "an issue" may lead to requests for summary judgment on evidentiary issues. But it remains important to recognize well-established partial summary judgment practices. One illustration used during miniconference discussions was defining the relevant market in an antitrust case.

There has been little discussion of the decision last spring to set the motion deadline at 30 days after the close of all discovery. Elimination of the alternative that would have set the deadline at 60 days before trial has been accepted.

Some miniconference participants thought that 21 days is not sufficient time to respond, suggesting that 30 days would be better. It was argued that "parity" requires the same time as set for the motion. But setting the motion deadline at 30 days after the close of discovery is not a simple parallel — for one thing, deposition transcripts may not be immediately available upon the close of all discovery.

No questions have been raised as to the 14-day period set for replying to a response.

**Rule 56(b)** 

The Subcommittee wants to restore references to declarations in the places where the rule refers to affidavits. Many younger lawyers are accustomed to declarations and may be puzzled by the reference to affidavits. Some older lawyers may be accustomed to affidavits and will benefit from a direct reminder that declarations can be used. The Style Subcommittee prefers to avoid

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references to declarations in Rule 56 in order to avoid inconsistency with other rules that refer only to affidavits. There may be some risk of ambiguous implications from the inconsistency. Nonetheless the question will be raised once again.

There has been some question whether the Rule need direct that the affidavit or declaration "show" that the affiant or declarant is competent. Most witnesses are competent. Perhaps a statement should suffice. Present Rule 56(e)(1) directs that the affidavit "show affirmatively" that the affiant is competent. Style Rule 56(e)(1) reduces this to "show." There no indication that this requirement has caused any real difficulty in practice. "Show" will remain in the next draft.

Later discussion agreed that it remains important to authorize support and opposition to summary judgment by affidavits or declarations. Ordinarily these materials are not admissible in evidence. But the provision will be relocated to become part of the procedure directions in subdivision (c).

# **Rule 56(c)**

The overall structure of the Rule 56 draft has been discussed, reflecting concern that it may be too dense to be "user friendly." Restructuring will be considered. Subdivision (c) could be restructured by rearranging and consolidating the paragraphs. Paragraph (1) will remain as (1), identifying the "default" quality of the detailed procedures by stating at the outset that the court can order different procedures in a case. Paragraph (2) will begin with the provisions defining the motion, response, and reply. Then it will continue with the common provisions for citing support for fact positions; the description of affidavits or declarations; the direction to file cited materials; and the provision for briefs. The hope is that this will be a clearer package. Clarity is important because the draft departs from the structures of both present and Style Rule 56.

Committee members supported the rearrangement.

Discussion moved to a question that has been explored several times. Should the statement of facts be a part of the motion, or should it be a separate document? Early drafts adopted a 3-document approach that provided for a (brief) motion, a separate statement of facts, and a brief. Later drafts reflected a decision to telescope the motion and statement of facts into one paper.

It was noted that practice in the District of Arizona follows the 3-document approach. The motion is part law — the requested relief. It is brief. The statement of facts is separate. Other judges reported 3-document practices in their districts, and expressed support for this approach. Still another judge urged that there can be confusion as to what is the "motion"; the statement of facts is a separate thing.

Another judge, however, suggested that it is better to include the statement of facts in the motion. Although subdivision (c) is calculated to discourage overly long statements of fact, the tendency to undue length may be restrained if the statement is part of the motion. This suggestion prompted the concession that it is difficult to predict which format might provoke longer statements.

An observer suggested that from a practitioner's viewpoint there is less risk of confusion if the statement of facts is separated from the motion. A separate fact document will make it easier to identify failures to comply with the rule's other requirements and to give notice.

Yet another judge noted that in the Northern District of Illinois the statement of facts is separate. Separation may help people remember they are supposed to do it — some lawyers who appear in federal court are not regular federal practitioners, and even with the separate statement requirement may forget to do it.

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The separate fact statement was reflected in asking whether the response should similarly be divided between a brief "response" and a separate paper addressing each fact in the statement accompanying the motion. It would be possible to divide still further by requiring a third paper to state additional facts that preclude summary judgment. But it also is possible to simplify the response by providing that a single paper responds to the movant's statement of facts and also states the additional facts. It may not be as important to have a separate statement replying to a separate motion. The nonmovant can be expected to dispute the summary-judgment relief sought in the motion. Still, separation into a brief "response" and a separate responding statement of facts might have advantages. The nonmovant may be willing to concede part of the relief sought, perhaps pretermitting the occasion for responding at all to some of the facts stated by the movant.

Without taking a vote, six Committee members expressed a preference for the 3-document approach to the motion, while 3 preferred the 2-document approach.

Later discussion asked whether it would be better to identify the elements without mandating a 1, 2, or 3-paper process. If, for example, the rule directs 3 papers, some people still will include everything in a single document. The response may be a protest that the motion is improper in form. Why proliferate the opportunities for minor noncompliance, the number of hoop-jumping exercises without reason?

Various wording issues were addressed. It was noted that if a 3-document approach is adopted for the motion the provision for citing support should refer to a statement of fact "in a movant's statement," or something like that, not "in a motion." It might help to caption the response provision as "Response to Statement of Facts" as a better reminder that a nonmovant is supposed to respond. The provision for the movant's statement of facts can be improved by "state concisely in separately numbered paragraphs," and "entitle the movant to summary judgment as a matter of law." Deletion of the reference to judgment as a matter of law will be supported if the basic standard is articulated in the first subdivision by rearranging the present subdivisions.

Attention also was directed to the provision that a response may "qualify" a fact. Fear was expressed that an open-ended "qualify" "invites a novel." This word has been discussed extensively. It is apparent that many readers attribute an expanded meaning, including arguments that supporting evidence is not admissible or does not support, or that the asserted fact is not material. No immediate disposition was expressed to change the word. The issue was discussed further, however, in considering the provision for supporting positions on the facts.

Many participants in the November 7 miniconference asked whether the rule text could clearly identify the place for arguing that the evidence identified to support an asserted fact is not admissible. There was no particular concern as to what the place might be, whether in a response, reply, or brief. Clear guidance could be provided by adding a provision to the rule on responses. That would address replies as well since the procedure for a reply is the same as for a response. The next draft will illustrate this approach.

Later discussion of the provision for supporting fact positions asked whether it is better to provide for disputing an asserted fact rather than denying it. This change was accepted. The quest is to identify genuinely disputed facts. It may be a more comfortable position for a lawyer who believes that an asserted fact may be true but that the party asserting the fact cannot prove it.

The draft includes a separate subparagraph recognizing that a response "may state that those facts do not support judgment as a matter of law." This statement is the equivalent of a demurrer to a complaint. It can be as general as a statement that summary judgment is not warranted even if all the asserted facts are established beyond dispute. It is essentially argument, not a response in

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factual terms. It was included as a "marker," with the thought that it may help the court to know when perusing the fact dimensions of the response that the nonmovant also is asserting that any dispute as to this fact makes no difference. This discussion led to a consensus that this provision addresses matters of argument better relegated to the brief. It will be deleted from the next draft.

The brief provision for a reply elicited little comment. It was noted that the rule text might be revised to reflect the statement in the Committee Note that the reply may be addressed "only to any additional fact stated in the response." That is the intent — the reply is not to become a vehicle for challenging the response's positions on the facts in the movant's statement or for adding new citations to bolster the movant's initial statements.

The provision for citing support has been economically drafted to include the motion, response, and reply. That means that it includes terms that do not apply to all three of those papers. A motion, for example, will not be supported by a showing that materials cited to support a fact do not establish the fact. Care must be taken to avoid potential confusion.

One part of the provision on citing support recognizes a showing that materials cited to support a fact do not establish the absence of a genuine dispute. This provision is incomplete; it might well be expanded to refer to materials cited to support or dispute a fact, and say "do not establish a genuine dispute or the absence of one." Whether or not expanded, it is important to avoid any invitation to add elements of argument that would better be included in a brief. But the rule is both incomplete and misleading if it seems to say that there must be citations to specific materials. A response, for example, need not cite anything to support the argument that the materials cited by the movant do not establish the absence of a genuine dispute. The additional provision suggested for a response challenging the admissibility of the supporting materials also does not require citation of counter-materials.

This discussion led to more elaborate exploration of the way to provide for admissibility arguments. It was urged that the response should be the place to say "because it is not admissible." Agreement was expressed by observing that it is important to provide an immediate indication that a stated fact is disputed because the supporting materials are not admissible — "red flags go up if there is no citation to support the response." We should not rely on permission to "qualify" a fact in a response; a qualification is a response that the fact is partly true. The purpose is to tell the judge which facts are in dispute.

A related question arises from the provision for "showing that \* \* \* no material can be cited to support the fact." This provision addresses a motion made by a party who does not have the trial burden of production and who asserts that the nonmovant will not be able to carry its trial burden of production. Finding a clear expression may be a challenge. But the issue clearly goes to one proper form of motion; it is not something that can be relegated to the brief. The difficulty actually begins with the description of the motion in draft (c)(2)(B). The motion is to state "facts that the movant asserts are not genuinely in dispute." But the "no-evidence" motion seems to be stating a non-fact: "I was not driving the car." More accurately, the motion states "you do not have evidence to show that I was driving the car." Is that a statement of a fact not genuinely in dispute? Yes. A fuller statement would be that there is no genuine dispute as to the fact because the nonmovant, who has the trial burden, cannot carry the trial burden. Alternative drafting would be awkward; the language chosen should not misdirect a lawyer intent on making a "no evidence" motion by "showing" an adversary has no evidence. The reference to "showing \* \* \* no material can be cited," moreover, is a deliberate choice to avoid resolving what appears to be continuing uncertainty about a notorious ambiguity in the Celotex opinion. Some observers still argue that a movant who does not have the trial burden of production can "show" the nonmovant lacks evidence sufficient to carry

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the burden by simply asserting that proposition without doing anything more to illuminate the lack of evidence. Many others believe that the movant must do something more, such as ask by interrogatory what evidence the nonmovant has to prove an issue and then address in the motion the insufficiency or inadmissibility of any evidence the nonmovant identifies in its answer.

Discussion became more specific. Suppose discovery has closed: Can a defendant say there is no evidence of scienter in a securities fraud case, or no evidence of agreement to conspire in an antitrust case, without doing anything more? One response was that such motions are not made. Movants do point to specific parts of the discovery materials and perhaps other supports such as declarations.

The Subcommittee will consider possible drafting changes, but it was agreed that some version of showing that nothing can be cited to support a fact should remain in the draft submitted for Standing Committee consideration.

Draft (c)(6) will be changed to read "A party must attach to file with a motion \* \* \*." The final words will be deleted: "or at a time the court orders." The court's authority to alter by order any procedure specified in subdivision (c) is ensured by (c)(1).

The provision for filing only materials that have not already been filed presents a more important issue. Some courts have local rules directing that all materials referred to in a Rule 56 motion be gathered in an appendix whether or not they are already on file. The draft Committee Note approves this practice. This may be a case in which the rule text should expressly support the Note. In addition, at the November 7 miniconference Judge Swain suggested that some bankruptcy files are so mammoth — she described one with 1,000 pages of docket entries — that the judge may face serious problems in attempting to retrieve a paper that is somewhere in the file. Consideration should be given to revising the rule text to recognize appendix practice and to allow a court order to refile information already on file.

Finally, an old question was reopened by asking whether the argument paper should be referred to as a "memorandum" rather than a "brief." The choice to substitute "brief" for memorandum, made last spring, was reconfirmed.

It also was agreed that the provision authorizing use of affidavits or declarations should be moved into subdivision (c) as one aspect of the procedure.

#### **Rule 56(d)**

Draft Rule 56(d) addresses the consequences of a failure to respond or a response that does not comply with the procedural requirements of Rule 56(c). One question is whether it also should address a motion that does not comply with Rule 56(c), the failure to reply (does that admit new facts stated in the response?), and a failure to reply in proper form. Arguments have been made that it is unfair to address only one form of impropriety. The imbalance leaves nonmovants uncertain about the proper procedure, and may seem to imply favoritism for movants. One approach, for example, would be to provide a motion to strike a motion in improper form. But providing the motion might invite make-work challenges to trivial defects in the motion. Worse, it might invite arguments that more serious defects — such as failure to cite any supporting material, or failure to challenge the admissibility of cited material — are waived by failure to move to strike. Courts have extensive experience in dealing with defective motions; there is no need to add a provision for defective motions here. But consideration should be given to the failure to reply: the first question will be whether permission to reply should entail an obligation to reply on pain of accepting any new facts in the response not addressed by a reply.

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The draft includes "any other appropriate order" in the list of responses to a failure to respond or to respond properly. The Subcommittee discussed the "deemed admitted" practice at length and initially decided to recognize this practice in the Committee Note, and in a subordinate position. Rather than take the failure as a deemed admission of a fact not properly responded to, the Note suggested that the court enter an order that the fact would be deemed admitted unless a proper response is filed. On further consideration, it may be better to write deemed admission into rule text as a direct consequence of the failure to respond properly. The text could, for example, include an order that "a fact not properly responded to is not controverted for purposes of the motion." This would both enhance the duty to respond and give clear notice in rule text of the consequences of failing to respond.

It was asked why not say "deemed admitted" in the rule? It was answered that some circuits seem hostile to this practice, preferring that even if there is no response the district court must examine the motion and supporting materials to determine whether there is a genuine dispute.

The relationship to partial summary judgment was noted. If a fact is considered not controverted (or "deemed admitted"), the result may be summary judgment on the whole action, summary judgment as to some part of the action, or denial of any summary judgment because the fact is not material or other facts establish a genuine dispute.

The limitation of the considered acceptance of a fact to the purposes of the Rule 56 motion was thought important. The result should be the same as for a response that explicitly accepts a fact only for purposes of the motion. If summary judgment is not granted on the fact, it remains open to dispute at trial. Of course careful pretrial practices are likely to flag this fact as one of the topics for discussion in defining the issues for trial.

Hesitation was expressed. Appellate courts are wary of granting summary judgment without examining the materials offered to show that there is no room for genuine dispute. This concern rises higher in cases involving pro se or prisoner litigants. By whatever name, "deemed admitted" will be controversial. One protection will be a direction that a pro se litigant must be given notice of the need to respond, and perhaps a second notice after there is no response or an inadequate response.

The discussion concluded by a straw poll that showed 7 members in favor of adding to the rule a provision for an order that a fact is "deemed accepted" for want of a proper response, with 4 against.

#### **Rule 56(e)**

Draft Rule 56(e) began as a provision recognizing common practices not directly addressed in the present rule. Courts may grant summary judgment without any motion; may grant a motion for reasons not stated in the motion; and may grant summary judgment for the nonmovant. Incorporation in the rule provides notice to the parties of the general practice. The rule also recognizes the established requirement that the court should give notice and a reasonable time to respond before doing any of these things. Including these provisions seems desirable.

Last spring it was decided that this subdivision seemed incomplete because it did not include an admittedly redundant reminder that the court can also grant or deny the motion. That reminder was included in the present draft. But it is redundant with other provisions, and may cause confusion precisely because it is redundant.

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This discussion led to a suggestion that had been made earlier. It may be better to rearrange the subdivisions so that the first subdivision, (a) does the work done by subdivision (c) in present and Style Rules 56. The rule can begin with a statement of the power to grant summary judgment, just as Rules 50 and 59 begin with a statement of the powers to grant judgment as a matter of law or a new trial, followed by the procedural details of time to move and the like. Rule 60(b) is similar—the power to vacate a judgment is stated before the time limits. This arrangement will reduce the redundant provisions in the present draft that anticipate the summary-judgment power that is not announced directly until subdivision (g). It was agreed that a rearranged draft will be prepared for consideration.

**Rule 56(f)** 

Draft Rule 56(f) carries forward Style Rule 56(f) with little change. It adds a new recognition that when the court orders time for further discovery it can deny a motion rather than defer a ruling.

Some effort has been made to retain this provision as subdivision (f) because that has been its familiar designation. But as the subdivisions come to be rearranged, logical sequencing may require that it be relocated.

**Rule 56(g)** 

Draft subdivision (g) states the basic power to grant summary judgment. Its language carries forward the traditional core of the summary-judgment standard, substituting "dispute" for "issue" but otherwise leaving the standard unchanged. Summary judgment is proper if there is no genuine dispute as to any material fact and a party is entitled to judgment as a matter of law.

Some issues remain. Style Rule renders as "should" the direction in present Rule 56(c) that the court "shall" grant summary judgment. The Committee Note for the Style Rule explains that it has become well established that there is a one-way discretion on summary judgment. The court has no discretion about granting summary judgment — a grant is proper only if the summary-judgment record would require judgment as a matter of law at trial, a question reviewed de novo without any deference to the trial court. But there is discretion to deny summary judgment even though the same evidence at trial would not allow judgment on a contrary jury verdict. The Style Rule Note also indicates that the discretion to deny summary judgment should be used sparingly: "Should' in amended Rule 56(c) recognizes that courts will seldom exercise the discretion to deny summary judgment when there is no genuine issue as to any material fact."

It was noted that the Style Project was forced by style conventions to find some substitute for "shall" in the present rule. Given the established discretion to deny summary judgment, "should" was the proper approach for the Style Project. But the present project supports substantive amendment. Substituting "must" for "should" would not violate the decision to leave the summary-judgment standard unchanged. The standard remains the same. If in the continuing language of the rule a party is "entitled to judgment as a matter of law" under the unchanged standard, there should be no discretion to deny.

A counter-example was offered. Gender- and national-origin discrimination claims may be joined in a single action. The facts bearing on each claim may be almost entirely the same. Even though the evidence on one theory may seem very thin — for example the national-origin theory — it may be better to try all theories together to avoid the risk that a partial summary judgment rejecting the national-origin claim might be reversed and require a new trial.

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A more general question asked whether judges often exercise discretion to deny a summary judgment that is warranted under the summary-judgment standard? One response was that this is not a real problem in practice. "If a judge wants it to go away the judge will sit on the motion and the parties may settle." But it also was observed that some lawyers find it frustrating that a court may refuse to whittle a case down by partial summary judgment. A further frustration occurs when a summary-judgment motion is decided on the brink of trial. Recognizing these frustrations does not mean that it is possible to provide an effective response through Rule 56.

Further discussion resolved the issue with 8 straw votes in favor of "should" and 2 for "must."

A second set of questions arises from the direction that "[a]n order or memorandum granting summary judgment should state the reasons." Would it be better to say that the court "must" state reasons for a grant? Should the rule address an order denying summary judgment, either stating that the order "should" or "must" state the reasons?

The strongest argument for saying that an order granting summary judgment must state the reasons arises when the judgment disposes of the entire action. There is likely to be an appeal. Although the court of appeals is obliged to provide de novo review, it is essential to understand the reasoning of the district judge who first undertook a comprehensive analysis of the record. The rule could distinguish grants from denials, either omitting denials or saying only that an order denying summary judgment should state the reasons.

Reasons were offered for not saying that the court must give reasons for a denial. One example is a determination that the case is close, that sustained work will be required to determine whether summary judgment is indeed appropriate, and there is a real risk that any summary judgment will be reversed. Denial in deference to a trial that will produce a definitive answer may be wise. But little is gained by stating such reasons. This question relates to the question whether the court should identify specific issues that are genuinely disputed. Identifying disputed issues can help focus the parties' trial-preparation work, but also may be an investment of the court's time that pays few dividends. It also was suggested that given de novo review, the prospect that very few denials will come up on appeal outside official-immunity and similar collateral-order appeals, and general present practice, nothing more need be said on a denial than that there is a material disputed issue.

It also was suggested that an obligation or strong encouragement to state reasons becomes more complicated when the court grants summary judgment as to only part of a case, or grants in part and denies in part.

Straw voting at the end of this discussion produced some double votes. Three members favored a rule that the court must state reasons both in granting and in denying summary judgment. Five favored must for a grant and should for a denial. Five also favored should for both grant and denial.

The question whether the basic statement of summary-judgment authority should be relocated to become subdivision (a) came back for further consideration. It was suggested that if it comes at the beginning, this provision is the proper place to refer to "evidence that would be admissible at trial." But the provision addressing the need to state reasons might better be relocated. Further support for relocation was offered: it is better to begin with the fundamental proposition in the model of several other rules, and then flesh out the surrounding procedures and incidents. This should not be buried in the last quarter of the rule. A rearranged draft will be prepared for consideration by the Subcommittee.

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**Rule 56(h)** 

Draft Rule 56(h) recognizes the long-established practice and terminology of "partial summary judgment." The draft remains open to further wordsmithing here as everywhere else.

Discussion focused on the provision in subdivision (h)(2) for an order stating that a material fact is not in dispute "and treating the fact as established in the action." Should "established" be replaced by "accepted"? The response was that "accepted" is not appropriate for a court determination. "Accepted" is appropriate when addressing the "deemed admitted" consequence of a failure to respond properly because then there is no actual court determination that the record shows there is no genuine dispute. (h)(2), in contrast, requires a court determination on the summary-judgment record. Its language is close to present Rule 56(d) — "the facts so specified shall be deemed established" — and is drawn directly from Style Rule 56(d)(2) — "must be treated as established in the action."

**Rule 56(i)** 

Style Rule 56(g) provides that the court "must" order payment of the reasonable expenses, including attorney fees, caused by submitting a Rule 56 affidavit in bad faith or solely for delay. The court also may hold the offending party in contempt. Draft Rule 56(i) carries these provisions forward, but reduces the command to permission — the court "may" order these sanctions. The FJC responded to a request to study the use of Rule 56(g), finding that there are very few motions and almost no grants. The Subcommittee has thought about simply abolishing this provision as moribund. Civil Rule 11 and 28 U.S.C. § 1927 may be sufficient deterrents.

Some participants in the November 7 miniconference thought Rule 56(i) should be expanded beyond bad-faith affidavits. They fear that summary-judgment motions are often made for strategic purposes of delay or to impose crippling costs on an adversary with few resources for the litigation. They recognize also that a hopeless response may be filed. The recommended solution is to create a cost-shifting sanction similar to the sanctions Rule 37 provides for unsuccessfully making or resisting a discovery motion.

An observer expanded this proposal by suggesting that it is not properly characterized as cost-bearing or as cost-shifting. It is an attempt to discipline the parties to follow the structure of the new rule. A motion, response, or reply submitted without reasonable justification would be subject to a discretionary sanction to compensate the adversary. It would apply to all parties. It would not be a "lose and pay" rule.

The underlying concerns reflect not only the strategic motion but also the "400-page statement of uncontested facts."

Competing observations suggested that the proposal goes well beyond the "bad faith" exception to the "American Rule" that the loser is not responsible for an adversary's attorney fees. It also goes far beyond Civil Rule 11. It could easily be challenged as at least testing Enabling Act limits. Rule 37 discovery sanctions rest on failure to comply with the procedural obligations imposed by other discovery rules. The obligation not to make a strategic Rule 56 motion may not be as purely procedural. Rule 56 does state a summary-judgment standard, and it does address premature motions through the provision for further discovery. But translating these provisions into a procedural obligation that is a suitable foundation for a procedural sanction is not easy. Tort remedies for abusive litigation are deliberately narrow. Expanding "procedural" remedies may approach substantive law too closely for comfort.

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A more direct response was "thanks, but no thanks." Any such sanction "will never be applied." Rule 37 was amended in 1970 in an attempt to foster free use of discovery cost-shifting sanctions, but courts have been reluctant to follow the lead. And after a decade of experience, Rule 11 was modified to reduce the volumes of collateral litigation spawned by the 1983 amendments.

It was determined that draft Rule 56(i) should be retained in the draft form, with the addition of an explicit direction to give notice and a reasonable time to respond before a sanction order is entered.

# **FJC Study**

Judge Baylson introduced presentation of the most recent phase of the FJC summary-judgment project by noting that it had been—presented at the November 7 miniconference. At the end of the conference, Professors Burbank and Schneider both focused attention on Table 5. Table 5 suggests that the median time to dispose of summary-judgment motions is significantly longer in courts with local rules that require, more or less as draft Rule 56(c) would require, counterpoint statements of fact and supporting citations in motion and response.

Joe Cecil presented the study results. The study looked for possible effects of different local-rule patterns. Taking the count supplied by the Administrative Office, they categorized 20 districts as having statement and counterpoint reply rules similar to proposed Rule 56(c). They then compared those districts to those that require only a formal statement of uncontested facts by the movant, with supporting citations, and districts that do not require either a formal statement by the movant or a counterpoint response.

Most of the tables show that there are no meaningful or even suggestive differences in the rates of filing or granting summary judgment, nor even in terminations of whole cases.

Table 5 shows median time to disposition of 23 weeks in districts that require both statement and response, 17 weeks in districts that require the statement but not a response, and 14 weeks in districts that do not require either statement or response. This pattern holds when broken down for various types of cases. But the pattern does not of itself establish a causal relationship, much less an explanation for any causal relationship. The districts with a longer time to disposition also have longer times to disposition across the board; differences in summary-judgment times may or may not be reflected in the overall disposition times. It may be that the statement-counterpoint-response districts allow more time for briefing, or take more time for deliberation. Case loads and weighted case loads also must be taken into account.

It was noted that at least some courts have standing orders that adopt the statement-counterpoint requirement established by local rule in other districts. The study took account of this phenomenon by removing from the analysis cases before any judge for whom such a standing order was identified.

It was asked whether there really is a difference between practice in courts that formally require a counterpoint response and practice in courts that formally require only a statement of undisputed facts? Do responses in fact follow the seemingly natural path of counterpoint? The study may be able to explore actual motions to provide some insight on this question.

Table 12 shows no differences among the three groups in terminations of whole cases by summary judgments. But there may be a higher rate in employment cases in districts with statement-counterpoint rules.

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The data are not ideal. Several districts, including large districts, have been excluded because the docket information cannot be unraveled. Further efforts may make it possible to include some of these districts. But there is no reason to anticipate that inclusion of these districts will change the pattern.

And a further caution. There is no "scientific" basis for determining what is a significant difference in a study of this kind. Determination of significance must be a policy judgment.

One observation was that "employment cases" that come to court tend to be weak. There are strong claims, but those tend to be resolved by administrative processes.

Dr. Cecil agreed that the employment cases "are starting to look different from other cases." There are many summary-judgment motions. Some of the motions are designed to get some of the parties out of the case.

A final question asked whether it will be possible to study appellate review differences. The FJC studied appellate outcomes in some districts 12 years ago. It found reversal rates in summary-judgment cases that were similar to the rates in other cases. So, it was observed, the decisions granting summary judgment may be right, as measured by de novo appellate review, as often as other types of dispositions.

# Class Action Fairness Act Report

Emery Lee presented the fourth interim report on the Federal Judicial Center study of the Class Action Fairness Act's impact on federal courts.

The first phase of the study involves collecting data on filings and removals of class actions from July 1, 2001 through June 30, 2007. The data reveal an increase in both filings and removals after enactment through June 30, 2006, especially in diversity class actions. The data for July 1, 2006 through June 30, 2007 are being collected to determine whether these trends continue.

Phase 2 will examine what happens in a class action case, and will ask particularly whether the amount of work has increased. The first part will begin by examining 300 pre-CAFA cases for all aspects of the work done through appeal; this part cannot yet be completed because some of the cases remain pending. A sample of post-CAFA cases will be examined for comparison. That step also cannot be taken yet. The second part of this phase will look at federal-question cases before and after CAFA, to address the question whether CAFA has created incentives to assert federal claims. One aspect of the question is whether plaintiffs who earlier would have pleaded only state-law claims so as to lock the case into state court are now adding federal claims because the case can be removed under CAFA. A related aspect is to see whether the number of state claims added to federal-question cases has changed.

Of course the impact of CAFA also involves what is happening in state courts. A big increase in federal filings and even removals would not seem as significant if there is a parallel increase in state-court class actions. These data will be very difficult to get — few states collect them. California data may be available. Figure 1 on p. 5 of the FJC report shows a drop in California state-court filings in 2004-2005, accompanied by an increase in federal-court filings. The federal share of all class actions in California increased. This phenomenon may have been caused by CAFA. There has been a slight diminution in total civil-case filings in California, but there is nothing yet to indicate that the decrease in class actions is driven by the decrease in overall filings. The FJC will continue to work closely with California officials. The National Center for State

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1189 Courts is interested in these questions; at one point they had funding for a study, but the funding was withdrawn.

It was noted that California is studying actual court files; "that's a whole lot of effort." Students from the Hastings College of the Law are participating in the work.

Federal-court studies can begin with CM/ECF, a real help. Previous reports identified a few particular categories of cases and included others as "other statutory actions." This residual category is not satisfying. It is possible to recode many of these actions. Many of them are Title 15 consumer-protection actions, such as the Truth in Lending Act. Figure 2 in the report shows the trend line. The biggest increase was in 2005 — the year CAFA took effect in mid-February.

Remand rates for diversity actions have not shown a big change, from 32.5% pre-CAFA to 27.5% post-CAFA. Even this difference may narrow — some more of the post-CAFA cases may yet be remanded.

It was noted that many of the early post-CAFA remands involved sorting out actions that were not removable because they had been commenced in state court before CAFA's effective date. Data for later periods will help to balance that effect.

In response to an observer's question, it was noted that the FJC study is not seeking to determine whether plaintiffs are seeking to avoid CAFA removals. But in diversity cases the study is looking to see where plaintiff class members are from.

Notice Pleading: Bell Atlantic v. Twombly

The last half year has generated great excitement about federal pleading standards. The topic was introduced by a brief recapitulation of recent events.

Notice pleading has held a continuing place on the Committee agenda since the Leatherman decision in 1993. Throughout this period the Supreme Court has alternated between rulings that "heightened pleading" can be required only when authorized by statute or court rule and other rulings that seemed, without using the "heightened pleading" phrase, to exact greater pleading detail than required to identify the events in suit and a sustainable legal theory. Lower-court decisions generally came to repeat the "no heightened pleading" formula, but at the same time often seemed to require greater pleading detail in some kinds of actions than in others. If it is possible to measure degrees of pleading specificity, the thermometer seemed to register differently.

Last May 21 the Supreme Court decided Bell Atlantic Corp. v. Twombly, 127 S.Ct. 1955. The opinion is rich in phrases describing the demands of a notice pleading sufficient to state a claim and show that the pleader is entitled to relief. Many of the phrases focus on some level of fact specificity. Many of them look for sufficient fact context to make the claim "plausible." The Court explicitly retracted the statement in Conley v. Gibson, 1957, 355 U.S. 41, that a complaint should not be dismissed for failure to state a claim "unless it appears beyond doubt that the plaintiff can prove no set of facts in support of his claim which would entitle him to relief." Beyond the phrases of the opinion, the result suggests that at least reasonably detailed fact pleading was contemplated. The Court, reversing the court of appeals, ruled that the complaint was properly dismissed for failure to state a claim. There was, however, no doubt that the complaint gave clear notice of the claims. Neither was there any doubt that the complaint relied on a sustainable legal theory — the Sherman Act is violated by an "agreement" among four incumbent local exchange carriers to refrain from entering into competition with each other, and to engage in similar acts to discourage competitive local exchange carriers from entering. The demand for sufficient facts to first cross the line between

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the conclusory and the factual, and to then cross the line "between the factually neutral and the factually suggestive," seems — despite the Court's disavowal — to exact heightened fact pleading.

The general reach of the Twombly opinion has created uncertainty from the outset. The Court spent some time decrying the enormous burdens that could be imposed by discovery, and in doubting the possibility that effective management of staged and focused discovery can be used to enable a plaintiff to determine, at relatively reasonable cost to the defendants, whether information exclusively available to the defendants can be used to supply a better preliminary fact showing that will justify full-scale discovery and litigation. The Court also relied heavily on its own sense of economically rational behavior in highly concentrated markets. One speculation has been that the opinion is no broader than antitrust pleading, and may be narrowed specifically to pleading § 1 conspiracy claims.

The narrow interpretation of the Twombly opinion gained some support from the decision on the certiorari papers in Erickson v. Pardus, 2007, 127 S.Ct. 2197. Reversing dismissal of a prisoner's complaint claiming injury caused by removal from a Hepatitis C treatment program, the Court quoted Twombly quoting Conley v. Gibson: "Specific facts are not necessary; the statement need only "give the defendant fair notice of what the . . . claim is and the grounds upon which it rests.""

A third decision soon after the Twombly and Erickson decisions added an intriguing side light. In Tellabs, Inc. v. Makor Issues & Rights, Ltd., 2007, 127 S.Ct. 2499, the Court ruled that heightened pleading requirements do not violate the Seventh Amendment.

Faced with the multifarious and often exacting phrases of the Twombly opinion, lower courts have struggled to determine whether pleading standards have in fact changed. The sense of struggle does not imply that changes are unwelcome. There is strong support for the proposition that lower courts have long applied standards close to the "contextual plausibility" test that can be teased out of the Twombly opinion. Greater pleading detail is required in cases that threaten to impose massive pretrial and trial burdens. Greater detail also may be required in facing substantive claims that courts sense are often misused. Greater detail may be required when appropriate to protect particular interests that limit the underlying claim — the detailed pleading of defamation claims required by some courts may be an example. License to do more openly what courts have been doing all along may prove welcome, once the decisions work the way through to finding clear license.

A small sampling of the literally thousands of citations to the Twombly decision can begin with Iqbal v. Hasty, 2d Cir.2007, 490 F.3d 143. The opinion examines the "conflicting signals" of the Twombly opinion and concludes:

[T]he Court is not requiring a universal standard of heightened fact pleading, but is instead requiring a flexible "plausibility" standard, which obliges a pleader to amplify a claim with some allegations in those contexts where such amplification is needed to render the claim plausible.

Other appellate decisions provide interesting insights. The importance of context is suggested by two examples. One is a decision dealing with a claim of retaliation for complaining about employment discrimination. The court ruled that although a complaint for discrimination need only plead the basis of the discrimination — for example, race, age, or gender — a complaint for retaliation must plead the nature of the plaintiff's protest about discrimination. The plaintiff should know the nature of the plaintiff's own conduct and should be required to plead it to enable a determination whether the protest involved matters within the reach of discrimination law. A second

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is a decision dealing with a claim that the defendants violated the plaintiff's First Amendment Free Exercise rights by terminating him from a fieldwork practicum for an advanced social work degree. Ruling that the plaintiff must plead a sincerely held religious belief, the court also ruled that it suffices to state that the plaintiff "sincerely" holds a "religious" belief. There is no need to plead additional facts to support sincerity or to support the religious character of the belief. How else, the court asked, can a plaintiff assert these matters?

With this introduction, it was suggested that it may be premature to embark on a major pleading project. The Standing Committee will have a program on pleading in January. They may provide some sense whether there is anything useful to be done now while the courts are working toward a new understanding of Rule 8. For that matter, the Supreme Court may render more opinions.

One judge suggested that although there is no statistical basis for it, there is an impression that the number of motions to dismiss has increased. Many of the motions seem to request application of a fact-pleading requirement. And it seems clear that some members of the bar want more pointed pleading. But there are different views at the bar.

Other judges were not sure whether there has been an increase in motions to dismiss. Of course Twombly is cited repeatedly in all motions. "Before Twombly courts could rely on context and plausibility." The Dura Pharmaceuticals decision requiring clear pleading of loss causation is an illustration. There is a long line of Second Circuit decisions holding antitrust complaints insufficient, influenced by fear that discovery and other burdens are so great as to coerce settlement. It remains to be seen whether Twombly will apply only in complex cases that involve expensive discovery.

A similar view was expressed by another judge. Conley v. Gibson has been the mandatory citation on motions to dismiss. Now it will be Twombly. It will be fascinating to see, five or ten years from now, whether the result has been anything more than a change in the boilerplate citation.

It was agreed that renewed interest in pleading is clearly linked to discovery. The greater the continuing uneasiness about the burdens of discovery in some cases, and the greater the doubts about the success of continuing discovery rule amendments, the greater the interest in raising pleading requirements as a preliminary shield.

The very notion of contextual plausibility, moreover, brings back the question of transsubstantive procedure. The question of substance-specific pleading rules has often been raised by asking whether the particularized pleading categories in Rule 9 should be increased. Even those suggestions have encountered doubts about the potential effects on substantive rights. More openended and potentially less disciplined invocation of particularized pleading requirements according to an individual judge's sense of substantive values seems more troubling still. Come to think of it, it may be asked whether we have any sense whether Rule 9(b) works well? The Private Securities Litigation Reform Act raised pleading standards above the general Rule 9(b) fraud-pleading standards for securities actions; does Rule 9(b) work better in other settings? Why was it limited to mistake and fraud?

It was noted that Twombly emphasizes both notice and entitlement to relief. Courts develop their own special tests. The Second Circuit, for example, requires pleading the precise defamatory statement complained of.

The suggestion that Twombly may be nothing more than an antitrust pleading decision was renewed. The Court relied on the parallel summary-judgment approach to antitrust cases in the

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Matsushita case. The Court relies on its own concepts of economic rationality to measure the plausibility of claimed conduct.

This suggestion elicited a partly sympathetic response that there is much for the "antitrust only" view, but that explicitly withdrawing the much-used "no set of facts" test clearly applies to all cases. A "plausibility" test clearly does not require a determination whether the plaintiff will, or even can, win. But the pleading standard must be reconsidered across the board.

A specific example was offered. In a big MDL antitrust litigation, the Department of Justice is willing to share documents with the plaintiffs. But the defendants argue that the plaintiffs must first draft their pleadings without access to the documents. The linkage of pleading and discovery in the Twombly opinion will cause trouble even in a case such as this where the discovery will cost the defendants nothing — they are not the ones that have to produce the documents. Experience with litigating many 12(b)(6) motions, including through appeals, has shown problems enough under pre-Twombly pleading standards. It could take 4 or 5 years to reach the point of establishing that the complaint states a claim. What will lawyers and judges talk about under a "plausibility" test? The test seems completely subjective, judge-by-judge. It will be as so many Rorschach blots, with self-same complaints interpreted differently by each viewer. Even now, motions to dismiss commonly assert that the complaint "does not sufficiently allege \* \* \*." This has almost become a legal standard. To say that pleading requirements are "contextual" does not much advance the inquiry or practice.

This example was paralleled by asking whether, under a "contextual plausibility test" — if that is what emerges from Twombly — it matters who possesses the information needed to plead with adequate fact specificity?

One example of institutionalized pleading requirements has been "case statements" in actions under the Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act. Some courts have had local rules or standing orders requiring these statements. But some of these courts have abandoned them for fear they violate notice pleading rules. Perhaps the Twombly case offers renewed authority for this practice.

Employment cases are another category that may provide interesting applications of the Twombly tests. The courts of appeals have not addressed pleading in these cases in a substantive way. They arise in infinite variety.

Product-liability cases were offered as another example. Simplified notice pleading seems to work well for them.

It also was noted that good lawyers have been filing pretty detailed complaints for many years. They want to tell the story and to frame the issues. It seems likely that the Twombly decision will have little or no impact in most cases brought by careful lawyers.

This example was used as a basis for asking whether, under a "contextual plausibility test" — if that is what emerges from Twombly — it matters who possesses the information needed to plead with adequate fact specificity? The plaintiff, for example, knows her race and gender, and that she was fired. She may know about a few questionable remarks. But much important information is in the employer's hands. So can pleading standards be adjusted to require statement of what the plaintiff can fairly be expected to know, and no more? This question was echoed in the suggestion that perhaps Twombly will help "sort out who is the lower-cost information provider."

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It was observed that if more fact-specific pleading is required, plaintiffs will be required to front-load the case, as has happened in securities actions after the PSLRA. But once the plaintiff survives a motion to dismiss, the lawyers presume there is merit to the claim. The result is earlier and higher settlements. But the value of front-loading the pleadings as an offset to the difficulty of controlling discovery does not come without cost. The cost is not only on the parties; motions will put the cost on courts as well. In situations that involve a contest among counsel to become the first to file and thus to gain advantage in becoming lead counsel, moreover, the ability to front-load preparation may be undercut by the need to respond promptly with a parallel filing after the most eager lawyer has filed without much loading at all.

The past was recalled by noting that the Supreme Court seems to march up and down the specific pleading hill. The FJC did a study of motions to dismiss almost 20 years ago, responding to this Committee's study of a proposal to abolish the Rule 12(b)(6) motion. The tie to discovery practice in the Twombly opinion raises a similar empirical question: have judges been more or less engaged in managing discovery, particularly in targeting initial discovery, in ways that might reduce the concerns about launching discovery with no more than a complaint identifying the events that will become the focus of discovery?

The possibility of empirical inquiry was pursued. The FJC might be able to design a study that will show whether fact pleading has increased. There is a foundation in earlier studies in the frequency and outcomes of motions in 1975, 1986, 1990, and 2000. That work, at least, can be updated. The Committee agreed that such work will be enormously helpful if the time comes to consider amending the rules.

It was suggested that it may be desirable to resurrect the Rule 12(e) proposals that were put on hold a year ago. Case-specific pleading requirements directed by the judge with an eye to the needs of effective management of the particular case may be a good substitute for more open-ended requirements imposed at the initial pleading stage. The concern about inviting boilerplate motions may be offset by concern that at least for a while the Twombly opinion may encourage reflexive motions to dismiss. Although the potential uses of present Rule 12(e) have been reduced, revision may prove worthwhile.

This discussion was extended by noting that there was a time when lawyers were too quick to file Rule 12(e) motions. Courts in effect told them not to bother — this is a notice-pleading system. Lawyers took the message to heart. Another lawyer agreed that "Rule 12(e) is no use." There seemed to be a similar lesson on Rule 12(b)(6) — be really careful; a losing motion is a bad way to start a case. The Twombly opinion is seen by practitioners as an invitation. CLE seminars are springing up. Practitioners will reinvigorate motions practice. And we have yet to see what courts will do.

Discussion of the vistas opened by the Twombly opinion concluded with general agreement that the Committee should not immediately move into more aggressive action on its pleading projects.

#### James Duff Report

James Duff, Director of the Administrative Office of the United States Courts, met with the Committee to discuss its ongoing work and pending legislation. Judges Kravitz and Rosenthal expressed appreciation for the support the Administrative Office has provided for the work of the rules committees. Special appreciation was expressed for the outstanding work of the Rules Committee Support Office, and particularly the work and support provided by Peter McCabe, John Rabiej, James Ishida, and Jeffrey Barr.

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1408 Rule 68

The Committee was reminded that proposals to "put teeth" into the Rule 68 offer-of-judgment provisions continue to arrive "in the mail box" at rather regular intervals. Rule 68 was studied, and revisions were published for comment, in the 1980s. These proposals may have been the origin of the warnings that one proposal or another will generate a firestorm of protest. They did. Rule 68 was studied again in the 1990s in response to an elegant "capped benefit-of-the-judgment" proposal advanced by Judge Schwarzer. The FJC undertook a study of Rule 68 practice to support the work. That undertaking led to an increasingly complicated draft and eventually to abandonment of the project without publishing any proposal. Last year the Second Circuit published an opinion explicitly inviting revision of Rule 68 to address the problems presented by cases that involve specific relief. Recent empirical work investigating the use of Rule 68 offers in fee-shifting cases involving employment discrimination and civil rights has been undertaken by Professors Thomas A. Eaton and Harold S. Lewis, Jr.. Specific proposals will emerge from their work.

It was noted that Pennsylvania state courts use added interest awards as an incentive to accept an offer of judgment. It may be possible to rely on enhanced costs or interest awards to make Rule 68 more effective without intruding on the traditional attorney-fee rules that apply outside the realm of statutory fee shifting.

It was agreed that Rule 68 can remain on the agenda for possible future consideration.

#### Other Topics

The major topics on the current agenda are those discussed at this meeting — expert-witness discovery and summary judgment. They are well advanced in the Committee's initial process. There soon will be room in the agenda for active consideration of new topics. That does not mean that something must be found to occupy all available energies. Recent years have been the occasion for many important projects, and it is useful to give the bar a rest. Concern with the wave of changes led to an explicit decision to not publish any proposals in August 2006; barring some emergency, no new amendments are in the pipeline to take effect on December 1, 2008, apart from a minor technical revision of Supplemental Rule C(6). It is not essential to have something to take effect on December 1, 2011. But most projects require at least three years from start to effective date, and many require more. It is not too early to be asking about possible new topics.

One possibility might be to revisit the simplified procedure project that was opened and then put aside a few years ago. The proposal was not shaped as a distinctive practice for pro se cases. Although the procedure would be simplified for cases brought within the rules, understanding would not be easier — the simplified procedures could be understood only as simplification of the general procedures. Various concerns led to the decision to defer further work. One was reports of experience in courts that have established multiple "tracks" by local rules. Few if any lawyers seem willing to believe that their "federal cases" really are simple cases calling for simplified procedures. And some observers were worried that judges might somehow direct attention away from more complex cases in order to tend to the simplified cases.

An observer reported that the ABA has a task force examining the great variations in pretrial order forms used across the country. Some forms exact such great detail as to amount almost to a first trial on paper, a true ordeal. Great expense may be entailed. At the same time, settlement may be promoted because the preparation requires the lawyers to take a close look at the cases.

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It was reported that the new privacy rules are about to take effect, spurring a review of
Administrative Office forms for consistency. Some forms call for filing information that is
inconsistent with the privacy rules — requirements for social security numbers are the most common
problems. Various privacy issues may come back to the rules committees.

Respectfully submitted,

Edward H. Cooper Reporter