This Article asks what we can learn from the vast amount of information generated by modern civil litigation. One answer lies in the practices of a small but growing number of law enforcement agencies that pay careful attention to suits brought against them and their officers. These departments gather information from initial complaints, discovery, and case resolutions and use that information to identify personnel and policy weaknesses. Lawsuit data has proven valuable to these departments’ performance improvement efforts: Suits have alerted departments to incidents of misconduct, and the information developed during the course of discovery and trial has been found to be more comprehensive than that generated through internal channels. Although information generated by litigation has filled gaps in internal reporting systems it is also, undeniably, flawed. The adversarial process produces biased and sometimes irrelevant information about a relatively small number of misconduct allegations, and the slow pace of litigation means that a case may not be resolved until several years after the underlying event. Departments in my study mitigate these flaws by gathering information from each stage of the litigation process, reviewing data in context with other available information, and using independent auditors to consider what the data may show. Department practices take advantage of the strengths – while minimizing the weaknesses – of lawsuit data and thereby suggest a promising way to learn from litigation.

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* Acting Professor of Law, UCLA School of Law. For helpful conversations and comments I thank Asli Bâli, Merrick Bobb, Devon Carbado, Ann Carlson, Sharon Dolovich, Ingrid Eagly, Allison Hoffman, Jerry Kang, Sung Hui Kim, Jerry López, Jon Michaels, Hiroshi Motomura, Seana Shiffrin, Eugene Volokh, Steve Yeazell, Noah Zatz, participants in the October 2010 Southern California Junior Faculty Workshop and participants in the Lewis & Clark School of Law workshop in December 2010. Thanks also to those law enforcement officials and auditors who shared their insights and experiences. This Article benefited from excellent research assistance from Daniel Matusov, Douglas Souza, and CT Turney.
INTRODUCTION

Contemporary civil litigation produces massive amounts of highly imperfect information. The complaint that initiates each lawsuit will describe why the plaintiff believes she has been wronged and the people and events that caused those legal violations. Assuming the plaintiff prevails against any motion to

1 Although each lawsuit produces a large amount of information, most aggrieved people never sue. For a discussion of low filing rates’ impact on the usefulness of lawsuit data to performance improvement efforts, see infra note 178 and accompanying text.

2 Although Rule 8 requires only a “short and plain” statement of facts and claims, the Supreme Court’s recent decisions in Bell Atlantic Corp. v. Twombly and Ashcroft v. Iqbal—which require plaintiffs to present a “plausible” claim for relief in their complaint—lead prudent plaintiffs’ attorneys to submit detailed initial pleadings. For a description of pleading’s evolving standards, see Kevin M. Clermont & Stephen C. Yeazell, Inventing Tests, Destabilizing Systems, 95 IOWA L. REV. 821 (2010); Arthur R. Miller, From Conley to Twombly to Iqbal: A Double Play on the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure, 60 DUKE L. J. 1 (2010). For a discussion of the effects of Twombly and Iqbal on pleading practice, see Elizabeth M. Schneider, The Changing Shape of Federal Civil Pretrial Practice: The
dismiss, the pre-trial litigation process is dominated by the production and exchange of information. In federal court and the majority of states that follow the federal rules of civil procedure, parties must disclose witnesses and documents that support their claims and defenses. Each side can demand any document from the opposing party – emails, bills, memos, medical records, diaries, personnel manuals, and the like – that "appears reasonably calculated to lead to the discovery of admissible evidence." Each side can demand written answers to interrogatories and requests for admission. Each side can depose witnesses, subject to minimal objections or limitations on the scope of questioning. And attorneys, if they are zealously representing their clients, use these discovery tools to squeeze all the plausibly relevant information they can from the opposing side’s file cabinets, computer hard drives, and witnesses’ memories. Although the vast majority of cases are resolved through settlement or motion practice, trial can produce yet more information, as attorneys introduce evidence and question witnesses about the merits of legal claims.


Fed. R. Civ. P. 33, 36. For a survey of various state procedural requirements for interrogatories and requests for admission, see Koppel, supra note 4 at 1216-21.


See Clermont, supra note 3 at 1954-55 (2009) (finding that, of the federal cases terminated in 2005, 67.7% were settled, 20.7% were adjudicated by motion, and just 1.3% were adjudicated at trial – the remaining 10.3% were generally transferred or remanded).
Weisselberg have studied how legal rules are disseminated in companies’ personnel offices and police department station houses, respectively. Margo Schlanger recently studied the ways that claims management systems, developed in response to the threat of litigation, can be used to improve organizational behavior in hospitals, retailers, and prisons. But we know almost nothing about how complex organizations gather and analyze information from lawsuits that have been filed against them and their employees.

My research of law enforcement uses of litigation data aims to fill this gap. In a previous study, I found that few police departments learn from lawsuits brought against them. Officials may pay attention to lawsuits that lead to large judgments or political repercussions. But most departments ignore lawsuits that do not inspire front-page newspaper stories, candlelight vigils, or angry meetings with the mayor. The city attorney will defend these suits, any settlement or judgment will be paid out of the city’s coffers, and the department will not keep track of which officers were named, what claims were alleged, what evidence was amassed, what resolution was reached, or what amount was paid.

This Article examines the practices of a small group of police departments that do consistently gather and analyze information from lawsuits filed against them and their officers. I have studied five departments – the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department and police departments in Seattle, Portland, Denver, and Chicago – that gather and analyze legal claims, information generated during discovery, and litigation outcomes. These departments use lawsuit data – with other information – to identify problem officers, units, and practices. They

10 For representative work by Lauren Edelman and her colleagues regarding the dissemination of legal rules through personnel offices, see, e.g., Lauren B. Edelman, Sally Riggs Fuller & Iona Mara-Drita, Diversity Rhetoric and the Managerialization of Law, 106 Am. J. Soc. 1589 (2001); Lauren B. Edelman & Mark C. Suchman, When the “Haves” Hold Court: Speculations on the Organizational Internalization of Law, 33 LAW & SOC’Y REV. 941 (1999). For work regarding the dissemination of legal rules in police departments, see Charles Weisselberg, In the Stationhouse After Dickerson, 99 MICH. L. REV. 1121 (2001).


12 Apart from my research, see GEORGE EADS & PETER REUTER, DESIGNING SAFER PRODUCTS: CORPORATE RESPONSES TO PRODUCT LIABILITY LAW AND REGULATION 105-06 (1983).


14 For a description of these findings, see Schwartz, supra note 13.

15 See infra Part I.A for a description of the data and methodology of this study.

16 For further description of department practices, see infra Part I.C.
explore personnel, training, and policy issues that may have led to the claims. And they craft interventions aimed at remedying those underlying problems.

For these departments, lawsuits are a valuable source of information about police misconduct allegations. Departments that do not gather lawsuit data rely on civilian complaints and use-of-force reports to alert them to possible misconduct. In the litigation-attentive departments in my study, lawsuits have notified officials of misconduct allegations that did not surface through these other reporting systems. For example, the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department’s review of lawsuit claims revealed clusters of improper vehicle pursuits, illegal searches, and warrantless home entries. These vehicle pursuits, searches, and home entries did not appear in officers’ use-of-force reports because the events – while potentially serious constitutional violations – did not involve the application of force as defined by department policies and so did not trigger reporting requirements. The civilians involved in these lawsuits could have chosen to file civilian complaints but did not; people rarely file civilian complaints and may be particularly unlikely to do so if they are planning to sue.

Even when a civilian complaint or use-of-force report is filed, the litigation process can unearth details that did not surface during the internal investigation. When, for example, a man died of blunt force chest trauma two hours after being taken into Portland police custody, a critical question was how much force the involved deputies had used to bring him to the ground. The night of the man’s death, the involved officer and deputy were videotaped at the Portland jail describing their confrontation. The audio portion of the tape was very scratchy, but Portland’s internal affairs investigators did nothing to improve the sound. Only during litigation did plaintiff’s counsel enhance the audio, at which point the involved officer’s statements were found to contradict his statement to internal affairs.

Although lawsuits have filled critical gaps in police department internal reporting systems, lawsuits are themselves flawed sources of information. Aggrieved parties rarely file lawsuits and, when they do, plaintiffs win and lose for reasons – and are compensated at amounts – divorced from the merits of their claims. Cases drag on for years and are often brought against individual bad actors instead of the institutional players best positioned to address systemic harms. This Article does not contest these critiques. Instead, it shows that

17 See infra note 148 and accompanying text.
18 See infra note 149 and accompanying text.
19 See infra note 127 and accompanying text.
20 See OIR Group, Michael Gennaco, Robert Miller & Julie Ruhlin, Report to the City of Portland Regarding the In-Custody Death of James Chasse 8 (2010) [hereinafter Chasse Report].
21 See id. at 27.
22 See id.
23 See id. at 27-28.
departments mitigate lawsuits’ flaws by gathering information from each stage of the litigation process, reviewing data in context with other available information, and using independent auditors to consider what the data may show.

This Article not only describes how a group of police departments process information from lawsuits; it also enriches our understanding of the relationship between lawsuits and performance improvement. Courts and scholars expect that negative litigation outcomes deter misbehavior. Scholars who think about the deterrent effects of lawsuits against the police disagree about whether police officials will be deterred by lawsuits’ financial, political, administrative, or emotional effects. But all expect that it is lawsuits’ punitive nature that inspires performance improvement.

Although high-profile cases and large damages awards may inspire behavior change, my research reveals that deterrence does not function as expected when it comes to run-of-the-mill damages actions. My prior study showed that most departments collect so little information about lawsuits brought against them that they cannot weigh the costs and benefits of future misconduct as deterrence theory assumes. This Article shows that when departments pay attention to lawsuits they do so in ways also distinct from prevailing theories of deterrence. Departments mine lawsuits for data about misconduct allegations and the details of those allegations. Lawsuits promote performance improvement not because they have political or financial ramifications, but because the information


26 See Schwartz, supra note 13.
generated by litigation offers valuable insights about police practices. These five departments have found an original, productive, and promising way to learn from litigation.

The remainder of the Article proceeds as follows. In Part I, I describe my study and findings. In Part II, I show that lawsuits offer departments otherwise unavailable information about the occurrence of alleged misconduct and details of those events. In Part III, I examine the weaknesses of lawsuit data and show how department practices mitigate these flaws. And, in Part IV, I show how department practices complicate and enrich our understanding of the role of lawsuits in performance improvement efforts and explore how other institutions might adopt their approach.

I. STUDY

A. Overview

Most police departments ignore lawsuits, but a small but growing number of departments have begun to review lawsuit claims and evidence for possible lessons.27 Some began doing so as conditions of settlements of cases alleging department-wide failures brought by the Department of Justice, state attorneys general, and individuals.28 Other cities have hired independent auditors who analyze litigation data as part of their efforts to improve police accountability.29 Technological problems, human error, and intentional efforts to obfuscate can frustrate data collection and analysis.30 But when departments with policies to gather information from lawsuits overcome these implementation problems, lawsuits inform training and policy decisions that, in turn, appear to improve performance and decrease misconduct.31

In this study, I focus on five departments – in Los Angeles County, Portland, Denver, Seattle, and Chicago – that systematically integrate information from lawsuits into decisions aimed at improving officer and department performance. These departments are in no way typical; I make no claims that their practices are representative of departments more generally. Indeed, I contend that these departments are outliers. These five departments review litigation data most extensively as a matter of policy32 and most consistently as a matter of practice.33

27 For a description of these findings, see generally Schwartz, supra note 13.
28 See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1057-58.
29 See id. at 1057-58.
30 See id. at 1060-64.
31 See id. at 1068-71.
32 Although there has been no national study of the extent to which police departments use litigation data, experts estimate that the number is quite small. Two-thirds of large police departments do not have early intervention systems that track information
Each of these five departments has an independent auditor that evaluates department policies and practices, and reviews lawsuit data for possible lessons. I read reports by these auditors about the inner-workings of their departments. I then used those reports as a backdrop for semi-structured interviews with past and current auditors, their staff members, and department officials. In this Article, I about officers. See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1059. And even departments with early intervention systems may not necessarily track civil claims. See id. Even fewer departments appear to use lawsuit data for other purposes. In 2007, the Police Assessment Resource Center, which regularly evaluates police departments’ practices, commended a small department for “being among the vanguard of departments nationwide that routinely conduct an Internal Affairs investigation when the municipality receives a claim or lawsuit that alleges wrongdoing by a member of its police department.” RICHARD JEROME, POLICE ASSESSMENT RES. CTR., PROMOTING POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS IN FARMINGTON: STRENGTHENING THE CITIZEN POLICE ADVISORY COMMITTEE 76 (2007). Beyond those departments that have been subject to consent decrees, or have a police auditor, most departments do not seem to engage in this analysis. See Correspondence with Oren Root, Deputy Dir., PARC (Dec. 17, 2008) (on file with author). And only a very small number of jurisdictions – a subset of the two dozen or so departments with police auditors or under court supervision – appear to review closed litigation files or the results of cases for any purpose. See id.

Twenty of the twenty-six departments in my prior study had policies to integrate information from lawsuits into their personnel and policy decisions. See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1052-56; see also id. at 1057-58 (explaining why a disproportionately large number of departments in my study have these types of policies). Reports about these twenty departments revealed several recurring impediments that have delayed, compromised, and defeated efforts to gather, analyze, store, and communicate information from lawsuits. For descriptions of these implementation problems, see Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1060-66. The five departments in this study have also struggled to follow their own policies. See id. Yet, I also found evidence that these five departments’ policies are, relatively speaking, in working order: These departments input information into relevant systems, analyze that information, and craft interventions based on their analysis.


See Telephone Interview With Mary-Beth Baptista, Director, Portland Independent Police Review (December 3, 2010); Telephone Interview With Merrick Bobb, Founding Director, PARC, and Special Counsel, L.A. Sheriff’s Dep’t, and Oren Root, Deputy Dir., PARC (Oct. 24, 2007); Telephone Interview With John Fowler, Associate
describe and analyze what I learned from this research and open a speculative inquiry about how my findings might apply to other institutions.

B. Departments

Following are descriptions of the five departments in this study, listed in the order in which they instituted policies to gather and analyze litigation data.

Los Angeles County. The Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department (LASD) is the largest sheriff’s department and the fourth largest law enforcement agency in the country. Its almost 8300 sworn officers patrol over 3,000 square miles of Los Angeles County and run the country’s largest jail system. Although the LASD has among the most extensive systems of accountability, and pays the most attention to the lessons that lawsuits might offer, it did not establish these policies on its own initiative. Instead, in 1991, following a series of high profile events and costly legal settlements and judgments, the Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors called for an independent investigation of the department under the leadership of retired Superior Court Judge James Kolts (“Kolts Commission”).

In July 1992, the Kolts Commission issued a “damning” report with recommendations aimed at improving reporting and review of lawsuits and other misconduct allegations, and making more effective policy, training, and discipline decisions. Following the Kolts Commission’s recommendations, the LASD created three new entities to identify and manage information and to audit internal practices. First, the Board of Supervisors appointed Merrick Bobb to succeed Judge Kolts as Special Counsel to the Board, and charged him with overseeing the...
implementation of the Kolts Commission’s recommendations. Bobb reviews department policies and practices, reviews the department’s litigation trends and costs, reviews closed litigation files for policy implications, and provides semi-annual reports to the Board about the LASD. Bobb’s original contract was for three years, but the contract has been successively renewed and he has been reporting to the Board of Supervisors ever since. His reports, each of which regularly is more than 100 pages, may be the most extensive and detailed analysis available of a police department’s efforts at creating systems of accountability.

Second, following the Kolts Commission’s recommendations, the LASD created a risk management bureau, the first law enforcement bureau in the country dedicated to reducing preventable accidents and liability costs. The bureau directs administrative investigations of claims when they are filed, identifies trends across claims, and reviews closed case files for possible lessons. The bureau also maintains an early intervention system that tracks information, including lawsuits, in an effort to identify problem officers. Third, at the recommendation of the Sheriff’s Department, the Board of Supervisors created the Office of Independent Review (OIR); a civilian body separate from the department’s internal affairs division that is charged with overseeing and participating in the LASD’s internal investigations.

Seattle. Seattle has a population of 560,000 with 1,240 sworn officers. In 1999, after a high-profile scandal, a civilian panel was appointed to study the police department’s internal investigation processes. Based on the panel’s recommendations, the department appointed a civilian director of the internal affairs unit, called the Office of Professional Accountability (OPA). The OPA director reviews civilian complaints and lawsuits and investigates the most serious claims. The OPA director additionally tracks lawsuit data in an early intervention system, reviews suits for trends across cases, and reviews closed case files.

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39 Id. at 55-56.
41 See OFFICE OF INDEP. REVIEW, COUNTY OF L.A., FIRST REPORT ii (2002) [hereinafter OIR FIRST REPORT].
42 SAMUEL WALKER, REVIEW OF NATIONAL POLICE OVERSIGHT MODELS 19 (2005) [hereinafter NATIONAL POLICE OVERSIGHT MODELS].
43 See Jim Brunner, New System in Place for Policing the Police, SEATTLE TIMES (May 7, 2002) (describing the scandal, in which a homicide detective stole $10,000 from the home of a dead man, and at least eighteen police officials knew of the incident but no internal investigation ever took place).
44 See id.
45 See NATIONAL POLICE OVERSIGHT MODELS, supra note 42 at 19.
46 See Telephone Interview with John Fowler, supra note 35.
The department has two additional forms of oversight; an auditor who reviews complaints and OPA investigations and a three-member citizen panel that reviews closed OPA investigations.47

**Portland.** Portland has a population of approximately 537,000, and a police force of 1,050. In 2001, the Portland City Council approved the creation of an independent auditor, the Independent Police Review Division (IPR), to receive civilian complaints, refer complaints to internal affairs for investigation, review internal affairs’ investigations, and conduct independent and joint investigations.48

In 2004, the IPR director, Richard Rosenthal, recommended that the IPR begin reviewing and investigating lawsuits in the same manner that it reviewed civilian complaints.49 The mayor opposed the proposal, arguing that internal investigations would be “a violation of . . . fiduciary responsibility” to the city’s taxpayers because the findings of these investigations might lead to higher payouts.50 The chief of police argued it was the job of the city attorney, not the police auditor, to investigate lawsuits.51 The Portland City Council agreed with Rosenthal and allowed him to investigate lawsuit claims.52 Portland’s auditor reviews legal claims when filed, identifies those claims that have not previously been brought as civilian complaints, and internally investigates the most serious claims.53 The auditor looks for trends across claims and reviews closed case files after the litigation is complete.54

**Denver.** Denver has a population of 566,000, and a police force of 1,405. Denver’s City Council created the Office of the Independent Monitor (OIM) in

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49 Prior to 2004, the Portland Police Bureau “generally did not review or investigate tort and civil rights claims for disciplinary action unless the complaining party also filed a citizen complaint.” Portland actually had a city ordinance preventing internal investigations while a lawsuit was pending. *See id.* at 3.
52 See Telephone Interview With Richard Rosenthal, *supra* note 35; Portland, Or. City Code ch.3.21 § 110(B) (codification of ordinance allowing the IPR to investigate tort claims).
53 See Telephone Interview with Mary-Beth Baptista, *supra* note 35.
2004, and, in 2005, Richard Rosenthal left his post as Portland’s auditor to become Denver’s OIM Director. The OIM, an entity independent of internal affairs, oversees internal affairs investigations and makes personnel recommendations to the chief of police. When Richard Rosenthal joined Denver’s OIM, he began reviewing all tort claims and investigating the underlying allegations when appropriate. Rosenthal additionally reviews claims for trends.

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**C. Policies**

The Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department and the police departments in Seattle, Portland, Denver, and Chicago gather information from lawsuits brought against them and their officers at each stage of the litigation process. Departments use this data to understand individual incidents of alleged misconduct and to identify trends across cases that suggest widespread personnel and policy failings. I describe these policies here; in Part II I will consider the extent to which lawsuit data adds value to department performance improvement efforts and in Part III I will describe how these departments minimize the data’s flaws.

1. Trend Analysis

All five departments review legal claims in the aggregate to identify

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56 Id.
57 Id.; Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, *supra* note 35.
58 Libby Sander, *Chicago Revamps Investigation of Police Abuse, but Privacy Fight Continues*, *N.Y. Times* (July 20, 2007) (describing the “string of scandals” as follows: “An off-duty officer was caught on videotape beating a female bartender. In another incident, also captured on videotape, a group of off-duty officers was seen beating four businessmen at a downtown bar. In addition, several officers in an elite unit are awaiting trial on charges that include home invasion, theft and armed violence, as county prosecutors continue to investigate the unit.”)
59 See Telephone Interview With Ilana Rosenzweig, *supra* note 35.
60 See id.
trends that suggest problem units and types of behavior.\(^6^1\) Departments’ trend analysis varies in its depth and rigor. Some departments maintain a computerized database of lawsuits and perform sophisticated analyses of the data;\(^6^2\) others identify trends by “trying to pay attention.”\(^6^3\) In each department, police auditors and officials periodically review the legal claims pending against the department and its officers and consider whether a cluster of similar cases merit closer scrutiny and, possibly, intervention.\(^6^4\)

By reviewing lawsuits as a group, departments can identify problems that would not have been apparent had they reviewed each case individually. As the director of the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department’s risk management bureau explained:

There’s times when [the station] thinks it’s a single incident but when we get it we know that we’ve had two or three or whatever number there are. . . . An example of that is one that we have from our jails where inmates would go to the doctor and for some medical reason the doctors would hand them a note to have a bot-

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\(^6^1\) There is no national data about the prevalence of this type of trend analysis. The statistics about the prevalence of early intervention systems can offer some guidance, given that trends are sometimes identified through early intervention systems. See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1059. Yet, statistics about national use of early intervention systems should not be relied heavily upon. Departments may not use their early intervention systems for this purpose. And other departments – including Chicago, Seattle, Denver, and Portland – conduct some manner of trend analysis without a computerized system. See Telephone Interview with Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35; Telephone Interview with John Fowler, supra note 35; Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, supra note 35. Finally, departments with policies to review lawsuits for trends may not do so in practice. Those departments reliant upon early intervention systems for their trend analyses will suffer from the same technological problems, errors, and incomplete information described infra notes 93-94 and accompanying text. And department officials that look for trends without computerized assistance may experience difficulties identifying trends, see Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1063.


\(^6^3\) See Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, supra note 35.

\(^6^4\) See Telephone Interview with Shaun Mathers, supra note 35 (describing that, when a claim is filed against the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department, the risk management bureau has the involved station investigate the allegations. The risk management bureau then reviews the completed claim file in conjunction with other claims to determine whether the incident is part of a trend); Maxine Bernstein, Portland Officials Call for Overhaul of Police Oversight, The Oregonian (Mar. 10, 2010) (describing Portland’s Tort Claim Review Board, a group of city risk managers, police personnel, and city attorneys who meet monthly to review tort claims against the city); Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, supra note 35; Telephone Interview with Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35; Telephone Interview with John Fowler, supra note 35.
tom bunk in the jail. They would then go to an outlying custody facility and . . . [t]he outlying custody facility had no access to those records and so when the inmate got there they would say “get on the top bunk,” you know, “that’s where you’re assigned,” and you know something would happen, they would fall and get hurt. Well, each unit, from two or three units we got claims individually. They couldn’t see the problem but by having it centralized in our operation we were able to say “we’re seeing a pattern here, a problem across all the units and it’s a communication issue,” and had our custody division work on that. . . . [Y]ou know a station sees a tree . . . I get the benefit of the forest.65

Departments have repeatedly found clusters of troublesome incidents by reviewing groups of legal claims. In addition to the claims brought by inmates who had fallen off their top bunks, the LASD has found clusters of claims relating to the transporting and searching of inmates,66 vehicle pursuits,67 and deputies’ failure to go to the correct address in response to a call.68

Once these departments identify a trend, officials diagnose and correct the underlying problem. LASD’s auditor recommended policy changes to address the problems transporting and searching inmates,69 and enhanced supervision to improve vehicle pursuits and accuracy when responding to calls.70 When the Portland auditor observed a cluster of claims suggesting that officers did not understand their authority to enter a home without a warrant, the City Attorney’s office made a training video on this issue, and it “nearly disappeared as a problem.”71

Just as clusters of initial filings suggest troublesome practices, settlement and judgment trends can identify underperforming stations in the department. The Los Angeles Sheriff Department’s special counsel semi-annually reviews trends in department settlements and judgments.72 In one review, the special counsel found

65 Telephone Interview with Captain Mathers, supra note 35.
66 See LASD SEVENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 62 at 55-56.
67 See id.
69 See id.
70 See id.
71 Luna-Firebaugh, supra note 54 at 86.
72 Other departments in this study do not conduct this type of analysis. Richard Rosenthal, Denver’s auditor, recently requested that the department begin to collect “how much money has been paid out by the Police and Sheriff’s Departments, based on allegations of misconduct, over the course of the past few years,” and despaired of the fact that “the Department of Safety has no data information in this regard and has no tools to identify trends in litigation which could be used to identify, on a systemic basis, where
that two of the department’s twenty-three stations—Century and Lenox—were responsible for 70% of the police misconduct litigation and 60% of the settlement dollars paid over a six-month period. He then investigated Century station, which the auditor considered to be “LASD’s most troubled station.” Special counsel’s team spent several weeks stretched over five months at the station, reviewing documents, interviewing station management, speaking with deputies, learning about the community, and gathering facts. We also rode along with deputies on patrol and “flew along” with a helicopter crew that provides air support to LASD patrol operations. We engaged a police officer, who had worked in the two south Los Angeles Police Department stations adjoining Century, to work with three of our team members and help us interpret what we saw.

Special counsel found that the station—one of the most active in the department—had too many rookies, used inexperienced deputies as trainers, had too few senior administrators, and had too few African-American and Spanish-speaking deputies. The auditor recommended that the station employ fewer rookies at any given time, encourage training officers to stay in their positions so that they could become more experienced, encourage senior personnel to remain at Century.

See Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department, LASD Family, available at http://sheriff.lacounty.gov/wps/portal/lasd/family; Los Angeles County Sheriff’s Department General Phone numbers, available at http://www.lasdhq.org/lasd_services/lasd_gnrlphone_no.html

LASD SEVENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 62 at 52-53. The auditor also observed that these stations were responsible for a disproportionate number of “significant force events,” shootings, and civilian complaints, and that “stations in equally tough neighborhoods have a much better record on controlling shootings, force, and litigation.” Id. at 53.


LASD NINTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 9.

Id. at 8.
station, decrease the sergeant-to-patrol deputy ratio, and increase staff diversity. The auditor also recommended additional training and policy changes to reduce shootings by Century station deputies. When the auditor reviewed Century Station two years later, he found that the number of shootings at the station had dropped dramatically, even as the crime statistics and arrests remained stable.

2. Investigations of Claims

The five departments in this study view each lawsuit as a “civilian complaint plus a demand for money.” In other words, departments review and investigate misconduct claims in a lawsuit the same way they would were the claims alleged in a civilian complaint. Parties sometimes refuse to participate in an internal investigation while a lawsuit is pending. As a matter of policy, however, the internal investigation is meant to proceed simultaneous with, but independent of, the litigation.

When a lawsuit is filed, department officials compare the allegations in the complaint with incidents reported through civilian complaints, use of force reports, and other reporting systems. If the incident was not previously brought to the attention of department officials, officials will decide what type of review

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78 Id. at 9.
79 Id. at 17-26.
80 While Century Station was, in 1997, responsible for 60% of the shootings by deputies, two years later it was responsible for only 10% of the shootings. See LASD THIRTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 11. Two years later, Bobb found that these downward trends had reversed themselves as the Department was less committed to its risk management efforts: uses of force and shootings increased throughout the Department, but particularly at Century Station. LASD FOURTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 38 at 89-90.
81 Telephone Interview With Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35; Interview with Michael Gennaco, supra note 35.
82 See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1065-66.
83 See Telephone Interview with Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35; Interview with Michael Gennaco, supra note 35; PORTLAND TORT CLAIMS REPORT, supra note 48; Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, supra note 35; Telephone Interview with Kathryn Olson, supra note 35.
84 There has been no study of the number of departments that internally investigate litigation claims, but police practices experts recently described this type of policy as rare. In most departments, legal claims are investigated and defended with no effort to incorporate findings into personnel and policy decisions. See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1059.
85 For a discussion of the likelihood that departments will be notified of misconduct allegations through lawsuits, see Part II.A.
should be conducted. As with civilian complaints, internal affairs investigates the most serious allegations and department supervisors review the less serious claims. If an internal investigation substantiates the allegations in the lawsuit, the departments discipline, retrain, or terminate the involved officers.

3. Early Intervention Systems

Two of the departments in this study – the LASD and the Seattle police department – enter lawsuit claims information into their early intervention systems, which are computerized systems that track various pieces of information in an effort to identify at-risk officers and improve their performance before officers engage in significant misconduct. Once an officer accumulates a certain number of incidents, a supervisor decides whether some sort of intervention is necessary based on the totality of the circumstances. Following intervention, the

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86 See, e.g., Interview with Michael Gennaco, supra note 35 (noting that the Office of Independent Review will “ensure that when claims come in we get them, we review them, and if there are issues that suggest that an internal affairs investigation or an administrative investigation is needed, we will push to have that happen.”)

87 See SAMUEL WALKER, THE NEW WORLD OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY 62-63 (2005) [hereinafter POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY].

88 National data suggests that early intervention systems are the most frequently used system to track and analyze data about officer performance. See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1058-59. Of the five departments in my study, the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department and the Seattle Police Department track litigation data in their early intervention system. Portland and Denver have early intervention systems, though litigation data is not included. And the Chicago Police Department’s system is still being developed.


91 Interventions generally involve counseling or retraining of selected officers. See THE NEW WORLD OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 at 115. Counseling can range “from the very informal, such as a discussion of the indicating event with a supervisor, to the more formal, such as a referral to psychological counseling, stress management, or substance abuse programs through a department’s employee assistance program.” See Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 65. Interventions are not, however, generally disciplinary in nature. The goal is to intervene before discipline is
department monitors the officer’s performance, paying particular attention to the
types of incidents that initially triggered intervention.92

Early intervention systems can fail or stall at each stage of development
and implementation. Departments can take years to design their early intervention
systems, and then, once designed, software and hardware malfunctions can further
delay systems’ operability.93 Even when an early intervention system is in place,
officials may input inaccurate and incomplete information into the systems,
 misuse their systems when extracting information, and make biased decisions
about the need for intervention and the type of intervention required.94

Although we do not know the incremental value of lawsuit data to early
intervention systems, there is evidence that functioning early intervention systems
can reduce misconduct.95 A study of the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department found
that officers’ shootings, uses of force, and civilian complaints declined after
intervention.96 After their two-year monitoring period ended, their performance
improvements continued.97 Anecdotal evidence from other departments supports
the notion that early intervention systems help identify problem behaviors and
improve officer performance.98

4. Reviews of Closed Case Files

Four of the departments in this study – Chicago, Seattle, Portland, and the
Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department – compare information in closed litigation files
with information in closed internal affairs investigation files. Through this
comparison, departments double-check the accuracy and completeness of their
internal investigations. In Chicago, the auditor can reopen an internal investiga-
tion closed without a finding of wrongdoing if the litigation file identifies new

necessary. For a description of the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department’s Personnel Review
Committee meetings and decisionmaking process, see LASD FIFTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL
REPORT, supra note 75 at 45-48.

92 Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 65.
93 See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1061-62.
94 See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1062.
95 Available evidence does not measure the effect of lawsuits on these perfor-

mance improvements; some departments with successful early intervention systems do not
track lawsuit data. See Samuel Walker, Geoffrey P. Alpert, and Dennis J. Kenney, Early
Warning Systems: Responding to the Problem Police Officer (2001), available at
http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/188565.pdf (finding officers were named in one-half or
one-third as many civilian complaints after intervention, but none of the departments
studied track legal claims in their early intervention systems). For the difficulty of
measuring the effects of lawsuits on behavior, see infra II.D.

96 See LASD FIFTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 3.
97 See id.
98 See infra note 188 and accompanying text (describing positive effects of early
interventions in two large police departments).
witnesses or previously unavailable testimony or evidence.99

Seattle’s auditor uses closed litigation files to reveal inadequacies in their internal investigations. By comparing closed litigation files and internal investigation files, Seattle’s auditor has identified weaknesses in interviewing techniques and evidence-gathering efforts.100 Seattle’s auditor looks particularly closely at cases where there was a large payout in the court case but an internal investigation exonerated the officer. In some cases, the auditor will conclude that the officers’
conduct was “lawful but awful”: The officer harmed the plaintiff, justifying the litigation payout, but he did not violate department policy, justifying internal affairs’ decision to exonerate the officer.101 The auditor may, instead, find an unwarranted disconnect between the results of the lawsuit and the internal investigation, suggesting that the exoneration was improper. Similarly, Portland reviews closed cases to see “whether the bureau or the independent review missed anything.”102

The LASD reviews closed litigation files not only to audit internal investigations,103 but also to evaluate department training and policies. The LASD’s special counsel conducts “biopsies” of closed lawsuits “to assess how new training plays out on the street, or to determine whether new training is needed.”104 The L.A. County Board of Supervisors – responsible for paying settlements and judgments on behalf of the department – separately requires the LASD to submit a corrective action plan for each case ending in a settlement or judgment of more than $20,000. The plan must set out any policy or training issues raised by the case and steps the department will take to reduce the likelihood of future similar incidents.105

99 See Telephone Interview with Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35.
100 See Telephone Interview with Kathryn Olson, supra note 35.
101 See Telephone Interview with John Fowler, supra note 35.
102 Bernstein, supra note 64.
103 When the LASD auditor reviewed 29 cases of police misconduct that settled for over $100,000 and found that only eight found any disciplinary action, the auditor questioned the strength of the department’s internal investigatory procedures. MERRICK J. BOBB ET AL., L.A. COUNTY SHERIFF’S DEP’T, NINETEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT 30 (2005) [hereinafter LASD NINETEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT]. And the LASD auditor found it “ironic and somewhat puzzling that the County’s lawyers and the Board of Supervisors can judge the risk of loss to be sufficiently great to believe it to be in the best interest of the County to settle for $500,000 and incur $200,000 in attorney’s fees but the LASD, on the other hand, is paralyzed from taking any disciplinary action against the deputy because it cannot figure out who to believe, the deputy or the plaintiff.” LASD FIFTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 72.
104 LASD THIRD SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 40 at 12.
105 For a description of one such corrective action report, see MERRICK J. BOBB ET AL., L.A. COUNTY SHERIFF’S DEP’T, ELEVENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT 64 (Dec. 1999) [hereinafter LASD ELEVENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT].
D. The Effect of Lawsuit Data on Behavior

It is difficult to measure the effects of litigation data on behavior in these departments. Departments are engaged in a variety of efforts aimed at reducing misconduct, only some of which involve lawsuits. And when departments do use litigation data, they view that data in connection with multiple other pieces of information. Moreover, departments cannot always weigh complete information, and cannot always evaluate the information in sound ways. Although auditors identify and help correct these implementation problems, they too have been criticized for insufficiently rigorous review. For all of these reasons, it is difficult to pinpoint the role of lawsuits in department decisions.

It is also difficult to measure the effect of department decisions on line officer behavior. There is no national data about how much misconduct exists in individual police departments, and no agreed upon metric to compare the quality of departments. Departments in this study continue to employ officers that engage in high-profile incidents of apparent police misconduct. One could conclude, based on these continuing instances of misconduct, that department policies are having little effect. On the other hand, departments might be even more dysfunctional without policies to review lawsuits and other data and auditors to oversee department practices.

One way to evaluate the impact of department policies would be to compare the costs of suits against the department before and after implementation of

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106 Departments may attempt to reduce misconduct through any number of strategies, including mediating complaints, improving use of force policies and reporting requirements, improving civilian complaint policies, improving internal investigations, and reviewing of shootings and other incidents.
107 See supra Part I.D for descriptions of this contextual analysis.
109 See, e.g., P.J. Huffstutter, This Police Watchdog is Walking a Tough Beat, L.A. TIMES (Feb. 11, 2008) (describing criticism of Chicago’s police auditor); Bernstein, supra note 64 (describing efforts to give Portland auditor subpoena and disciplinary authority).
111 See, e.g., Mike Carter, Justice Department Begins Preliminary Review of Seattle Police, SEATTLE TIMES (Jan. 24, 2011) (reporting that the Department of Justice is investigating a possible pattern of civil rights violations after “highly publicized incidents in which officers have resorted to force, often against people of color”); Chasse Report, supra note 20; Robert Faturechi & Andrew Blankstein, L.A. County Sheriff’s Department Fosters ‘Gang-Like Activity’ Among Jail Deputies, Suit Alleges, L.A. TIMES (May 5, 2011); Sara Burnett, Two Denver Officers Caught on Tape Beating a Man Are Fired, THE DENVER POST (Mar. 26, 2011).
relevant policies. By this metric, the LASD’s efforts appear to be having a positive effect. During the first five years of the LASD’s special counsel’s tenure, the county’s litigation costs decreased by $30 million.112 And there is no evidence that officers’ crime fighting efforts were chilled during this period.113 But an auditor might be having a positive effect even if litigation costs did not drop so precipitously. As Denver’s auditor explained, even if his work led to higher payouts in the short run, “it would be part of an overall risk-management strategy that would reduce liability in the long run.”114

Another way to evaluate the impact of department policies is to examine the role of lawsuits in individual decisions. This study has revealed several instances in which departments have used lawsuit data to inform personnel and policy decisions, and those decisions improved behavior in a variety of ways. The litigation process revealed evidence proving an officer to have lied during his interview with internal affairs.115 Trends in claims have caused department officials to realize that officers did not understand the scope of their legal authority, and resulting interventions have ended the problem.116 Trends in payouts have also caused a department to identify a troubled station for further investigation and review; the subsequent recommendations improved the station’s performance.117 Although I cannot quantify the power of the information gathered from lawsuits on behavior, my close examination of these decisions allows me to be reasonably certain that lawsuit data has helped identify problems and craft interventions.118

112 See LASD SEVENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 62 at 51 (describing drop in litigation costs); Correspondence with Merrick Bobb (June 14, 2009) (reporting that the LASD auditor charges the County of Los Angeles $200,000 per year for his services). This $30 million reduction in legal fees is not solely attributable to the LASD’s review of litigation data, but rather to the LASD’s policies as a whole. For a description of the LASD’s other strategies to reduce litigation costs, see LASD FIRST SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 35 (noting LASD reduces litigation costs through “participation in the management of litigation to shape strategy and control costs, active involvement by the LASD in decisions to settle or try individual cases, and deployment of LASD investigatory resources so that the Department and counsel are better able to defend the LASD in litigation against it and win meritorious cases”).

113 See LASD NINTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 83.


115 See infra notes 170-176 and accompanying text.

116 See supra notes 65-68 and accompanying text.

117 See supra notes 72-80 and accompanying text.

118 A focus on decisionmaking practices can, in fact, better control for unrelated factors. Imagine a police department that experiences a precipitous jump in the number of lawsuits alleging chokeholds by its officers. If there is a subsequent decline in these chokehold cases, but the department does not keep track of lawsuits brought against it, those suits did not likely play a role in the decline. On the other hand, if there is no
II. CONSIDERING THE VALUE OF LAWSUIT DATA TO PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT EFFORTS

I have, thus far, shown that these five departments view lawsuits as sources of information about police department practices. I now offer reason to believe that these suits offer valuable and otherwise unavailable information to law enforcement agencies seeking to improve performance. Police departments primarily learn of possible misconduct through civilian complaints and use-of-force reports.119 Yet, for a variety of reasons, misconduct incidents may not appear in these reports. And, even when incidents do surface, internal investigations may be incomplete or biased. Lawsuits are flawed sources of information, as well.120 But in departments that pay attention to lawsuits, suits have filled some gaps in internal information systems. Lawsuits have alerted police officials to misconduct allegations unreported through internal systems, and the evidence developed during litigation has been found to be more detailed than that generated in internal investigations.

A. Identifying Misconduct Allegations

1. Civilian Complaints v. Lawsuits

Although almost every police department has a policy to accept and investigate civilian complaints against police personnel,121 there are four reasons to believe that misconduct allegations fall through the cracks of police department civilian complaint processes. First, a very small percentage of aggrieved people file civilian complaints. A Bureau of Justice survey estimated that police used or threatened force against 664,500 people nationwide in 2002.122 Of the people marked decline in the number of chokehold cases filed against the department but there is good evidence that the department gathered and evaluated lawsuit data, identified chokeholds as a potential problem, and trained officers in new techniques, then there is reason to believe that the suits may have influenced department decisionmaking, but those decisions were counteracted by other events.

119 See generally POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 (describing use of force and civilian complaint policies).

120 In Part III, I describe the imperfections of litigation data and the ways departments consider lawsuits in light of these imperfections.

121 See Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 85 (2006) (reporting that “three in four municipal departments with four or fewer full-time officers had [a civilian complaint] policy,” and “all state police agencies, all county police agencies, and all regional police agencies had civilian complaint policy directives”).

122 U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, Contacts between Police and the Public: Findings from the 2002 National Survey v (2005) [hereinafter BJS 2002 Study]. The BJS surveyed over 75,000 people about their contacts with the police, and estimated national numbers based on their survey results. The Bureau of Justice has conducted several similar surveys, and has reached findings with some variation in each.
surveyed who had been involved in a police use of force, over 75% believed the force was excessive and approximately 87% believed officers had acted improperly, yet less than 13% filed a civilian complaint. Accordingly, the civilian complaint process did not capture approximately 578,115 allegations of improper force and related misbehavior in a single year. Another approximately 3.7 million people believed that police acted improperly in contacts that did not involve the use of force. Given low filing rates for civilian complaints alleging excessive force, it seems likely that a significant percentage of these 3.7 million people did not file civilian complaints, either.

Lawsuits also under-represent the universe of misconduct allegations. The same 2002 Bureau of Justice survey found that people who believed the police mistreated them sued infrequently – approximately one percent of the time. People harmed by the police may not sue for any number of reasons, including “ignorance of their rights, poverty, fear of police reprisals, or the burdens of incarceration.” But the same people who decide not to file civilian complaints may choose instead to file lawsuits. Plaintiffs’ attorneys have been


123 BJS 2002 Study, supra note 122. The other BJS studies found a similar percentage of those surveyed believed that the force used against them was improper. See U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, Contacts Between Police and the Public, 2005 (2007) (finding that 83% of those who had force used against them believed the force was excessive) [hereinafter BJS 2005 Study]; U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, Police Use of Force: Collection of National Data; U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, Contacts between Police and the Public: Findings from the 1999 National Survey (2001) (finding that 76.1% of those who had force used against them believed the force was excessive). None of the other surveys estimate the percentage of people who filed civilian complaints regarding those incidents.

124 The BJS’s 2005 survey reported that 10% of the 43.5 million people who had contact with the police in 2005 believed the police had acted improperly. See BJS 2005 Study, supra note 123. There is no comparable number in the BJS’s 2002 study, but given the consistency in other aspects of the two stories, one can assume that the figures would be comparable had they been collected in 2002.

125 See BJS 2002 Study, supra note 122 at 20 (finding that the police had used force against 664,500 people, 87.3% of whom (580,108) believed that the police acted improperly, and just 1.1% of whom (7,416) filed a lawsuit regarding the alleged misconduct.

known to discourage their clients from filing civilian complaints for fear that information in the internal investigation will be used against them in litigation.  

Portland and the LASD have compared lawsuit and civilian complaint filings, and both found that many lawsuit claims had not previously been filed as civilian complaints. In 2004, Portland’s police auditor found that between two-thirds and ninety percent of claims in lawsuits brought against the department and its officers were not separately brought as civilian complaints. When the Kolts Commission reviewed 124 excessive force lawsuits that had resulted in judgments or settlements against the LASD, it found that plaintiffs in fewer than half of the cases had filed civilian complaints. Even as Portland and the LASD have improved their civilian complaint collection and review processes, both departments continue to learn about misconduct allegations through lawsuits. 

127 See Human Rights Watch, Shielded from Justice: Police Brutality and Accountability in the United States 306 (1998) ("Lawyers bringing civil lawsuits against police officers [in New York] told Human Rights Watch that they often do not recommend that their clients file a complaint with [Internal Affairs] because the information provided is often used against the client.") The police auditor in Chicago has found that plaintiffs’ attorneys regularly prevent plaintiffs and witnesses from cooperating with investigators, “effectively shutting off the IPRA’s access to information.” See Ilana B.R. Rosenzweig, Indep. Police Review Auth., Annual Report 2007–08, at 8 (2008). See also Bernstein, supra note 64 (“If the lawyer doesn’t respond [to the Portland police auditor’s request for information], ‘that pretty much stymies us, unless the police reports themselves raise serious issues of misconduct’").

128 See Portland Tort Claims Report, supra note 48 (finding that two-thirds of people who filed lawsuits did not file separate civilian complaints). Moreover, claims in lawsuits against the department involved more serious allegations than those in civilian complaints: 50 percent of lawsuits alleged excessive force compared to just fifteen percent of civilian complaints filed during the same period. See id. at 21.

129 Kolts Commission Report, supra note 36 at 60 (noting that just 57 of the 124 lawsuits reviewed had been internally investigated). The Kolts Commission study of excessive force cases does not answer whether similar disparities exist for lawsuits alleging other types of claims.

130 See, e.g., Interview with Michael Gennaco, supra note 35 (estimating that the LASD learns of misconduct allegations through lawsuits “a significant number” though “not a majority” of the time). The Portland Auditor has continued to find that many lawsuits concern claims not previously submitted as civilian complaints. See LaVonne Griffin-Valade & Mary-Beth Baptista, Office of the City Auditor, Portland, Or., Independent Police Review Division Annual Report 2009, at 19 (2009) (finding that of 165 civil claims filed, only 29 had been previously submitted as civilian complaints); Gary Blackner & Mary-Beth Baptista, Office of the City Auditor, Portland, Or., Independent Police Review Division Annual Report 2008, at 23 (2008) (finding that of 163 civil claims reviewed in 2008, only 30 had been previously submitted as civilian complaints); Gary Blackner & Mary-Beth Baptista, Office of the City Auditor, Portland, Or., Independent Police Review Division Annual Report 2007, at 23 (2007) (finding that of 184 claims reviewed by the Portland auditor in
Second, civilian complaints capture misconduct allegations only when complainants describe their claims completely and clearly. People registering a civilian complaint generally do so orally (over the phone or in person at the station) or by filling out a form. The informality of these methods of communication may dilute complainants’ allegations. Lawyers, not always known for the clarity of their prose, may nevertheless better articulate all dimensions of the alleged violations. As Seattle’s auditor explained:

someone comes in and says “this happened to me” – and it gets treated as a use of force [uof] complaint. But when a lawsuit is filed, a number of allegations may be raised that might be different from a simple uof. People will talk in terms of being a victim of biased policing. But unless they are able to articulate it expressly – I’m African American, he’s white – it’s not going to come into the civilian complaint.

Well-drafted legal complaints will include every involved party, every relevant fact, and each plausible cause of action. This level of detail can help police officials understand the full scope of the allegations. As the LASD’s risk manager explained, “by the time it gets actually to be a government claim, it’s at least pretty well defined into what areas it captures, and I think we’re able to sort through those a little better.”

Third, departments may discourage people from filing complaints. The Department of Justice (DOJ) has investigated civilian complaint processes in over two-dozen law enforcement agencies, and found fault with each of the departments’ systems for receiving complaints of officer misconduct. The DOJ found

2007, only 42 had already been alleged in civilian complaints); GARY BLACKNER & LESLIE STEVENS, OFFICE OF THE CITY AUDITOR, PORTLAND, OR., INDEPENDENT POLICE REVIEW DIVISION ANNUAL REPORT 2005–2006, at 22 (2006) (finding that only 10 percent of civil claimants filed separate civilian complaints). Portland’s auditor does not open internal investigations for many of these lawsuit claims. For example, in 2009, the auditor opened only seven internal investigations from the 136 lawsuits alleging new claims. See LA VONNE GRIFFIN-VALADE & MARY-BETH BAPTISTA, OFFICE OF THE CITY AUDITOR, PORTLAND, OR., INDEPENDENT POLICE REVIEW DIVISION ANNUAL REPORT 2009, at 19 (2009).

131 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, PRINCIPLES FOR PROMOTING POLICE INTEGRITY 7 (2001) (describing that police departments should allow civilians to “file complaints in-person, by mail, by telephone, by facsimile transmission, or, where possible, by email”).
132 Telephone Interview with Kathryn Olson, supra note 35.
133 See Telephone Interview with Captain Mathers, supra note 35.
134 For the precise provisions in the settlement agreements and consent judgments entered into between the Department of Justice and law enforcement agencies, and for the technical assistance letters provided to over a dozen additional law enforcement agencies, see www.usdoj.gov.
some departments were not doing enough to solicit complaints; their forms were unclear or written only in English, or the department did not disseminate information about the complaint process. In other departments, officers discouraged or hassled civilians attempting to file complaints, or refused to accept complaints altogether.

The Christopher Commission, convened to investigate the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) in 1991, found that one-third of people who filed civilian complaints were harassed or intimidated in the process. Twelve years

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135 See, e.g., Technical Assistance Letter to the Inglewood Police Department at 18-19 (recommending that “[t]he IPD should change elements of its citizen complaint process that have the potential to discourage the filing of complaints, and to impair effective tracking of complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to Yonkers Police Department at 18-19 (recommending that the Yonkers police department “increase public awareness of how to use the citizen complaint process” and increase access to civilian complaint forms by distributing them at public facilities and printing forms in Spanish); Technical Assistance to the Austin Police Department at 28 (recommending that the department “better disseminate information to the public about its complaint process” by making complaint forms available online and in public offices, and in multiple languages); Technical Assistance Letter to Virgin Islands Police Department at 15 (finding that the department’s civilian complaint forms “are inadequate and inconsistent with generally accepted police practices”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Beacon Police Department at 15 (finding that the department has no “formalized system for the intake and tracking of complaints,” and only allows a civilian to file a complaint if he has first discussed the matter with the Sergeant); Technical Assistance Letter to the Schenectady Police Department at 16-17 (recommending that it be made easier for citizens to file complaints).

136 See Technical Assistance Letter to the Austin Police Department at 28 (reporting that “communications personnel, i.e., 911 operators, on many occasions may have discouraged complainants from filing complaints, failed to contact supervisors regarding complaints, and failed to document the calls and the complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Warren Police Department at 10 (reporting that some citizens “have not been permitted to submit a Complaint Form to anyone other than” one single Lieutenant appointed to handle internal investigations, and only during “limited working hours”); Technical Assistance Letter to Portland Police Department at 10 (recommending that the department “change aspects of its complaint process that have the potential to discourage the filing of complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Schenectady Police Department at 16 (observing that the internal affairs division “receives approximately 5 to 10 complaints each year from citizens reporting that a SPD supervisor refused to accept their complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Miami Police Department at 17 (identifying several policies and practices “that appear to discourage the filing of complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Columbus Police Department (finding “a complaint process that discourages complainants at intake”).

137 See, e.g., INDEP. COMM’N ON THE L.A. POLICE DEP’T, REPORT OF THE INDEPENDENT COMMISSION ON THE LOS ANGELES POLICE DEPARTMENT 158 (1991) [hereinafter CHRISTOPHER COMMISSION REPORT] (finding that one-third of the people who filed complaints against the LAPD reported that officers discouraged complaint filing by not providing Spanish-speaking officers in heavily Latino divisions, requiring complai-
later – after the LAPD had again been reviewed by an independent commission, had been investigated by the Department of Justice for civil rights violations, had entered into a Memorandum of Agreement with the DOJ, and had been placed under the supervision of a court-appointed monitor – the monitor found that department officials continued to harass and intimidate people who tried to file civilian complaints.138

Fourth, officials may mislabel or misfile civilian complaints so they are not investigated. Police departments generally have two levels of review; higher-ranked officers within the precinct review less serious allegations and the internal affairs division investigates more serious allegations.139 The Christopher Commission that investigated the Los Angeles Police Department found that “complaints of officer misconduct made by the public were often noted in daily activity logs rather than recorded in the official Personnel Complaint Form 1.81 that triggers a formal complaint investigation and IAD review.”140 Department of Justice investigations have revealed the same tactics used in other departments: officers improperly classify misconduct claims so that they will not be investigated by internal affairs.141

138 “In one sting operation, an undercover police officer, posing as a juvenile, complained of misconduct. The Sergeant then took an inordinate amount of time to take the details of the complaint, stretching the process beyond 10:00 p.m., at which point the sergeant detained the ostensible juvenile for curfew violation.” REPORT OF THE INDEPENDENT MONITOR FOR THE LOS ANGELES POLICE DEPARTMENT FOR THE QUARTER ENDING JUNE 30, 2003, at 3 (2003), available at: http://www.kroll.com/library/lapd/lapd_report_081503.pdf (emphasis in original). At that time, officers were found to follow department procedures only 43% of the time. See id. In a later audit, the monitor found that officers were complying with procedures 78% of the time. See REPORT OF THE INDEPENDENT MONITOR FOR THE LOS ANGELES POLICE DEPARTMENT FOR THE QUARTER ENDING DECEMBER 31, 2003, at 26 (2003), available at http://www.kroll.com/library/lapd/LAPD_Q10_Report.pdf. A subsequent audit found 84% compliance. See REPORT OF THE INDEPENDENT MONITOR FOR THE LOS ANGELES POLICE DEPARTMENT FOR THE QUARTER ENDING DECEMBER 30, 2004, at 19 (2004).

139 See POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 at 62-63 (describing administrative and internal affairs investigations).

140 CHRISTOPHER COMMISSION REPORT, supra note 137 at 159.

141 See Technical Assistance Letter to Inglewood Police Department at 20 (finding that some excessive force complaints were routed to division level reviews – instead of internal investigations – and were routed to “supervisors who were on the scene and completed the original use of force report . . . present[ing] an apparent conflict of interest”); Technical Assistance Letter to Austin Police Department (finding that the department’s “process of complaint classification raises concerns because the classification categories are broad, subject to different interpretations, lack uniformity, and lack consistency,” amounting to “escape valves’ that can minimize officers’ misconduct”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Columbus Police Department (finding that the complaint process “transforms about half of the complaints that were filed into ‘inquiries’
A plaintiff filing a lawsuit against the police does not face the same hurdles as a person trying to file a civilian complaint. Lawsuits against the police have their own challenges. Plaintiffs’ attorneys in civil rights cases are generally paid on contingency, out of the proceeds won by the plaintiff.142 As a result, a plaintiff may have trouble finding an attorney to take her case if the recoverable damages are low or there is a small likelihood of prevailing.143 Once a case is filed, it may be dismissed for failure to state a plausible claim in the complaint or on qualified immunity grounds.144 But there is very little chance that a court clerk will harass or discourage a person attempting to file a lawsuit. And a lawsuit alleging police misconduct will not be mislabeled as a securities matter or improperly sent to probate.

2. Use of Force Reports v. Lawsuits

Incidents of possible misconduct can also come to a department’s attention through officers’ use-of-force reports.145 Yet there are three reasons to believe that these reports will not capture all instances of alleged police misconduct. First, despite their name, use-of-force reporting policies do not require officers to document many types of uses of force. A national survey of use-of-force reporting requirements found that almost twenty percent of the departments did not require officers to submit a report after striking a civilian with a flashlight, approximately forty percent of the departments did not require an officer to submit a report after their police dog attacked a civilian, and over seventy percent of the departments did not require an officer to submit a report after using handcuffs.146 In its investigations of law enforcement agencies, the Department of Justice similarly found that departments had ambiguous reporting requirements or

that are not properly investigated”). See also SAN JOSE INDEPENDENT POLICE AUDITOR, YEAR END REPORT, 1993-1994 (1995).


143 See Patton, supra note 142 at 757-58 (noting that, because most attorneys take police misconduct cases on contingency, “an attorney takes an enormous financial risk when filing a Section 1983 suit” and “will therefore be hesitant to accept a weak case or a case without significant damages”).


145 Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 136.

146 See Anthony M. Pate & Lorie A. Fridell, Toward the Uniform Reporting of Police Use of Force: Results of a National Survey, 20 CRIM. JUST. REV. 123 (1995).
required officers only to document the most serious uses of force. 147

Second, use-of-force reporting systems do not capture claims related to verbal abuse, sexual harassment, improper searches, and other incidents that do not involve force. In the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department, which has rigorous internal use-of-force reporting systems, the auditor noted that several types of allegations tend to be identified only through legal claims, including “Fourth Amendment allegations, allegations of inappropriate entry, bad warrant or things that happen in the warrant, allegations that money was taken . . . discourtesy,

147 See, e.g., Detroit Consent Judgment (finding that Detroit police officers “are not required to report uses of force other than uses of firearms and chemical spray, unless the use of force results in visible injury or complaint or injury”); Inglewood Technical Assistance Letter at 16-17 (finding that the Inglewood Police Department “current practices of documenting uses of force within arrest or incident reports and policy have been under-inclusive in what the IPD has considered force, and, in turn, it appears that the reporting of force by officers has been underinclusive”); Yonkers Technical Assistance Letter at 17-18 (finding that use of force forms were required when an officer uses a firearm, but not when she uses a baton or deploys a K-9 unit, and recommending that a form be filled out whenever force is used); Technical Assistance Letter to the Austin Police Department at 18-22 (describing inadequacies with department use of force reporting protocols); Technical Assistance Letter to the Easton Police Department at 6 (finding that the department does not have a form dedicated to use of force reporting, “making it extremely difficult to extract information to adequately track and analyze uses of force”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Warren Police Department at 6 (finding that the department requires officers to fill out a use of force form “any time their actions alleged result in injury or death, any time they utilize a non-lethal weapon, and any time they discharge their firearm” and recommending, instead, that the department require a form be completed “for all uses of force beyond unresisted handcuffing”); Technical Assistance Letter to Virgin Islands Police Department at 11 (noting that a use of force report is required “only when there is an injury, medical treatment is required or requested, or the force used related to a criminal charge (i.e., resisting arrest, assault, endangering or harassment”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Beacon Police Department (finding that the department’s policies “do not clearly indicate the manner in which uses of force are to be reported”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Bakersfield Police Department at 5 (finding the department’s requirement that a use of force form be filled out “when an officer uses a level of force higher than ‘standard searching and handcuffing techniques’” to be overly ambiguous); Technical Assistance Letter to Portland Police Department at 5-6 (finding that “officers are not required to report ‘restraining force’ or certain other types of physical contacts with citizens,” and that use of force forms are unclear); Technical Assistance Letter to the Schenectady Police Department at 9 (finding, despite a “very broad reporting requirement, command level and line officers acknowledge that officers rarely document uses of force and that supervisors do not enforce the reporting policy”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Miami Police Department (finding that the department’s use of force reporting requirements “are likely to lead to an under-reporting of the use of force”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Columbus Police Department (finding an “overly restrictive definition of what constitutes a use of force”).
cases in which there may be constitutional violations or violations of policy but they don’t result in injury.” If a lawsuit does not involve a use of force, department officials likely will not learn about the incident through internal reporting channels. Fittingly, many of the trends identified through lawsuits by the departments in this study concern incidents that would not prompt use of force reports: falls from upper bunks; vehicle pursuits; improper searches of inmates; responses to the wrong address; and warrantless home entries.149

Third, officers do not always follow use-of-force reporting policies. An investigation of use of force reports in Philadelphia found that descriptions of incidents “were routinely sparse, vague, inaccurate, or incomprehensible.”150 Descriptions of injuries similarly lacked detail: “A ‘head injury’ could refer to a scratch, sutures, a concussion, or a broken skull.”151 The Kolts Commission, which examined the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department, found that uses of force described in deputies’ arrest reports “almost always [were] at wide variance with the allegations made by the plaintiff in a lawsuit” such that “a deputy’s report alone could not have alerted a supervisor to a problem.”152 Even after several years of oversight, the auditor for the LASD continued to find widespread underreporting.153 A well-crafted complaint is unlikely to suffer from similar vagueness or lack of detail.

B. Details of the Incidents

Even when a police department already knows about a misconduct allegation, lawsuits can reveal critical details about the event. Police department internal affairs divisions investigate serious uses of force and allegations of misconduct. Yet internal affairs investigations have long been found to be inadequate and incomplete.154 In their study of fourteen police departments, Human Rights Watch found that,

[In each city we examined, internal affairs units conducted substandard investigations, sustained few allegations of excessive force, and failed to identify, or deal appropriately with, problem officers against whom repeated complaints had been filed. In

148 See Interview with Michael Gennaco, supra note 35.
149 See supra notes 65-68 and accompanying text.
150 INTEGRITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY OFFICE, PHILADELPHIA POLICE DEPARTMENT, THIRD REPORT 28 (July 1999).
151 Id.
152 KOLTS COMMISSION REPORT, supra note 36 at 56.
153 LASD THIRD SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 40 at 42-43. For problems with the reports, see id. at 42-49.
154 For an overview of the problems with civilian complaint processes, see POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 at 71-99.
In many cases, sloppy procedures and an apparent bias in favor of fellow officers combine to guarantee that even the most brutal police avoid punishment for serious violations until committing an abuse that is so flagrant, so unavoidably embarrassing, that it cannot be ignored.155

Indeed, no outside reviewer has “found the operations of internal affairs divisions in any of the major U.S. cities satisfactory.”156

The Department of Justice found fault with internal investigation procedures in each of the over two-dozen departments it investigated. The DOJ found that many departments had no standard procedures for documenting or investigating complaints.157 When departments did investigate misconduct allegations, many did not follow the types of standard investigative procedures they would use to solve crimes: Investigators did not look for witnesses, collect evidence, interview police personnel, or reconcile inconsistent statements.158

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155 Human Rights Watch, supra note 127 at 63.
156 Id.
157 For descriptions of the inadequacies of the civilian complaint investigation procedures in the departments that have been investigated but not sued by the DOJ see, e.g., Technical Assistance Letter to the Inglewood Police Department at 22-23 (describing the “lack of a formal, structured, and consistent investigative process” in the department); Technical Assistance Letter to the Yonkers Police Department at 22-23 (recommending that the department “develop and implement a centralized, formal, structured, and consistent system for resolving complaints without discouraging the filing of complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Austin Police Department (finding evidence that the department’s internal investigatory process is “erratic and irregular” and that “IA did not always investigate their complaints”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Easton Police Department at 9-10 (finding that the department did not keep civilian complaints and investigations organized in a single file or office, making personnel and trend review impossible, and that the department “has no formal policies governing investigative training, evidence collection and storage, victim and witness interviews, or case file documentation and retention”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Bakersfield Police Department at 14 (finding that internal investigations are inconsistent and incomplete).
158 REPORT OF THE INDEPENDENT MONITOR FOR THE LOS ANGELES POLICE DEPARTMENT FOR THE QUARTER ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 2003 at 25 (2003), available at http://www.kroll.com/library/lapd/LAPD.Q9.%20Final%20Report.11-17-03.pdf (finding that the internal affairs division for the LAPD failed to tape review witness interviews, did not canvas the area for witnesses, allowed group interviews, failed to collect or preserve evidence, and failed to identify inconsistent statements); Technical Assistance Letter to Warren Police Department at 17-18 (expressing concern that department policy does not “require basic investigative techniques, including questioning WPD personnel through personal interviews or gathering extrinsic evidence – e.g., third party witness accounts, or photographs of alleged injuries”); Technical Assistance Letter to the Cleveland Division of Police at 9 (finding that internal investigators “inject opinions and speculation that may call into question the objectivity of the investigation” and raising concerns about the
A study of the Chicago Police Department’s internal investigations found that the investigations were consistently shoddy and incomplete, “violat[ing] virtually every canon of professional investigation.”\textsuperscript{159} The officer accused of misconduct was interviewed in less than 15% of the cases. When the officer was interviewed, often months after the incident, the “questioning” was in the form of a brief questionnaire that the officer had seven to ten days to complete in writing. It was “not uncommon” to find a complaint unsubstantiated even though several officers submitted virtually verbatim questionnaire responses.\textsuperscript{160} Investigators rarely interviewed civilians and witnesses in person. And while the investigators ran background checks on the complainants and witnesses who corroborated allegations of misconduct, the investigators did not review complaint histories of the police officers involved.

Approximately twenty percent of large police departments have some form of civilian review, and a quarter of these departments’ civilian review boards have independent investigatory authority.\textsuperscript{161} There has been little examination of the quality of these investigations. Because the investigators are independent, there should be less bias and capture. These boards can, however, suffer from a lack of funding, leadership, and political will.\textsuperscript{162}

Attorneys engaged in police misconduct litigation will rarely be accused of foot-dragging when investigating their cases. Whether motivated by their ethical obligations or the promise of a percentage of any recovery, plaintiffs’ civil thoroughness of internal investigations); Technical Assistance Letter to Portland Police Department (finding investigators to be inadequately trained); Technical Assistance Letter to the Schenectady Police Department at 20-21 (recommending that investigators be trained in standard investigative policies and practices); Technical Assistance Letter to the Columbus Police Department (finding “a process for investigating complaints, uses of force (lethal and non-lethal), and injuries to prisoners that is biased in favor of the involved officers”).\textsuperscript{159} Craig B. Futterman, H. Melissa Mather & Melanie Miles, The Use of Statistical Evidence to Address Police Supervisory and Disciplinary Practices: The Chicago Police Department’s Broken System, 1 DePaul J. Soc. J. 251, 274 (2008). These investigations were conducted before Chicago’s Independent Police Review Authority was instituted.

\textsuperscript{160} Id. at 275.

\textsuperscript{161} There are several forms of civilian review, including police auditors, independent commissions, and civilian review boards. A 2003 study found that some form of civilian review is in place in approximately nineteen percent of municipal law enforcement agencies with more than 100 sworn officers, 25 percent of county police departments, six percent of sheriffs’ departments, and none of the 49 state agencies surveyed. See Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 94. One in four of the civilian review boards had independent investigatory authority. See id.

\textsuperscript{162} See POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 at 165-67 (discussing failed police auditors); Stephen Clarke, Arrested Oversight: A Comparative Analysis and Case Study, 43 Columbia J. of Law and Social Problems 1 (2009) (studying different models of civilian oversight, and finding underfunding).
rights attorneys have strong incentives to uncover all evidence that might support their client’s claims. They will depose the involved officers under oath, seek out additional witnesses, and request documents about the incident and the officers. Attorneys representing the defendants will protect their client’s interests by digging for evidence that rebuts plaintiffs’ claims and supports their clients.

Those who have examined evidence developed during litigation and internal investigations have found litigation files to be far more comprehensive. Seattle’s auditor has found that litigation produces valuable information: “Just by function of depositions and someone else taking a new look at it, chances of getting new information [through the litigation process] are likely.” Special Counsel for the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department regularly compares closed litigation files with closed internal investigation files and finds that litigation files offer “the fullest record” of claims of police misconduct. When misconduct allegations are investigated internally, he has found, “inertia weighs heavily on the side of disposing of a matter quickly and moving on; otherwise, time and resources and effort will have to be expended.” Even after a lawsuit is filed, those representing government defendants have little reason to identify or explore evidence of policy and personnel failures, particularly given that such evidence would likely be discoverable. In contrast, plaintiffs have a “strong incentive . . . to dig deeply and generate more detailed and critical information” supporting their cases. “If information exists, litigation is the likeliest vehicle to ferret it out.”

Richard Rosenthal — the police auditor in Denver and former auditor in Portland — has compared files of unsubstantiated internal investigations with closed litigation files for the same case and found that the outcome of the internal investigations might well have been different had investigators accessed the information uncovered during litigation. In one notable Portland case, a man named James Chasse died of blunt force chest trauma after two transit division officers forced him to the ground. His family brought suit against the involved
officers. An outside expert reviewed the internal investigation of the incident and found that internal affairs’ investigation had neglected several critical leads. Internal affairs did not interview all of the officers who had reported to the scene, did not interview nurses who had observed Chasse at the jail, and did little to investigate allegations that officers had been “laughing and joking at the scene.”

The most “glaring deficiency” of the internal investigation was the failure to enhance a video taken the night of Chasse’s death in which the involved officer and deputy were describing and reenacting their confrontation with Chasse. Although the audio portion of the recording was “mostly unintelligible,” Portland’s internal affairs investigators did nothing to improve the sound. Only during litigation did plaintiff’s counsel improve the audio, at which point it became clear that the officer said he “tackled” Chasse, contradicting his statement to internal affairs that he had pushed Chasse to the ground. As an expert’s report concluded, “plaintiffs’ attorney was the driving force behind [the Portland Police Bureau’s] ultimate recognition of the importance of the video as evidence.”

Given what we know about law enforcement agencies’ civilian complaint and use-of-force reporting protocols and internal investigations, it should be no surprise that information about police misconduct falls through the cracks. Although lawsuit data also has its flaws, suits have revealed valuable information about the incidence and details of police misconduct allegations. The gaps in civilian complaints, use-of-force reports, and internal investigations appear to be filled, at least in part, by information revealed in litigation.

### III. MITIGATING THE WEAKNESSES OF LAWSUITS

I have, thus far, described the practices of a group of police departments that pay close attention to lawsuit data and shown that suits offer information unavailable through other sources. I do not, however, intend to idealize the information generated by damages actions. Many people never sue and lawsuit payouts can distort the extent of a defendant’s responsibility. Lawsuits are resolved long after the underlying incident occurred and are generally focused on individual bad actors instead of the policy makers that could affect organizational change. And litigation can inhibit the type of information exchange necessary to

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171 See Chasse Report, supra note 20 at 8 (The officers thought Chasse was “either urinating or possibly injecting drugs into his hand”).
173 Id. at 27.
174 Id. at 27.
175 Id. at 27.
176 Id. at 27-28.
understand and correct problem behavior.

Some departments have used these imperfections in litigation data to justify their decision to ignore lawsuits. Yet these information flaws are not fatal. Departments in this study compensate for the imperfections in lawsuits – and the imperfections in civilian complaints and use-of-force reports – by reviewing data from each source in context with other available information and using independent auditors to consider what the data may show.

A. The Inaccuracies of Claims and Evidence

The adversarial nature of litigation may produce biased and skewed information. Most people who believe their rights have been violated never sue.  

Mayor Bloomberg recently opposed the New York city council’s efforts to gather information about pending lawsuits and settlements against the New York Police Department because, his spokesman testified, “the mere fact of a settlement in any litigation is not an acknowledgement of wrongdoing, or of the truth of the facts alleged. . . . While some settlements seem unfair or even outrageous to us, and to the public, the Law Department’s decision to settle a matter is largely separate from the merits of the litigation.” Statement of William Heinzen, Deputy Counselor to the Mayor, New York City Council Committee on Governmental Operations (Dec. 11, 2009), on file with author. Police department officials in other jurisdictions have similarly argued that settlements are often strategic decisions – not admissions of wrongdoing – and so should not be probative of misconduct. See, e.g., Lee Baca, Nicholas Riccardi, Lawsuits Question Actions of Sheriff’s Deputies in 3 Cases, L.A. Times, Jan. 23, 2002 at B1; Rachel Gordon, The Use of Force San Francisco: Tracking Makes Police Accountable, Panel Told, S.F. CHRON., Feb. 5, 2006 at A10 (citing the San Francisco Police Department’s risk manager as stating that legal settlements can be granted by City Attorney for various reasons and are not proof of officer misconduct); Robert Becker and Todd Lightly, Deputies’ abuse cases cost county, CHICAGO TRIBUNE, Feb. 10, 2002 at C1 (same); HUMAN RIGHTS WATCH, supra note 127 at 81 (noting that internal affairs staff interviewed by Human Rights Watch in fourteen police departments “made statements such as ‘civil cases are not our problem,’ or asserted that the settled suits do not indicate the ‘guilt’ of an officer, disregarding the important information that citizen-initiated lawsuits could provide”).

Police officials also contend that delays in the filing and adjudication of lawsuits make lawsuits arguably inferior to internal information sources. See Telephone Interview with Richard Rosenthal, supra note 35 (referring to lawsuits as “late warning systems”); Statement of William Heinzen, Deputy Counselor to the Mayor, New York City Council Committee on Governmental Operations (Dec. 11, 2009), on file with author (opposing legislation to gather lawsuit data because more timely information about alleged misconduct is available through the civilian complaints filed with the city’s Civilian Complaint Review Board.)

There are low filing rates for police misconduct claims, see infra note 125 and accompanying text (noting that 1% of people sue who believe they have been mistreated by the police). For studies of filing rates of medical malpractice claims, see, e.g., Leon S. Pocincki et al., THE INCIDENCE OF IATROGENIC INJURIES 101 (1973) (finding that 6% of
And those cases plaintiffs’ attorneys choose to take are not necessarily the strongest on the merits. Lawyers retained on contingency receive a portion of plaintiff’s award and, therefore, will be attracted to high damages cases – even when there is middling evidence of liability.\textsuperscript{179} Lawyers may also decline to take a case with strong evidence of liability but low recoverable damages; the plaintiff may be unemployed, incarcerated, or unsympathetic, or the claims may be too difficult to prove.\textsuperscript{180}

Once a plaintiff retains a lawyer or decides to proceed pro se, she will present her very strongest case in her complaint.\textsuperscript{181} A savvy defense attorney will negligently injured people filed lawsuits); Patricia M. Danzon, \textit{MEDICAL MALPRACTICE: THEORY, EVIDENCE, AND PUBLIC POLICY} 23-24 (1985) (finding that about 10\% of victims of medical malpractice filed claims); Troyen A. Brennan et al., \textit{Incidence of Adverse Events and Negligence in Hospitalized Patients: Result of the Harvard Medical Practice Study I}, 324 \textit{NEW ENG. J. MED.} 370, 370 (1991) (finding approximately 2\% of those negligently injured ultimately sued); David M. Studdert et al., \textit{Negligent Care and Malpractice Claiming Behavior in Utah and Colorado}, 38 \textit{MED. CARE} 250 (2000); (finding 2.5\% of those injured brought claims); Eric J. Thomas et al., \textit{Incidence and Types of Adverse Events and Negligent Care in Utah and Colorado}, 38 \textit{MED. CARE} 261-71 (2000) (same). For other studies of civil litigation filing rates, see, e.g., Richard E. Miller \& Austin Sarat, \textit{Grievances, Claims, and Disputes: Assessing the Adversary Culture}, 15 \textit{LAW \& SOC’Y REV.} 525, 544 (1980-81) (finding that five percent of grievances became filed lawsuits); Marc Galanter, \textit{Real World Torts: An Antidote to Anecdote}, 55 \textit{Md. L. REV.} 1093 (1996) (describing common disputes pyramids for tort claims, discrimination claims, and claims post-divorce); Deborah R. Hensler et al., \textit{RAND Inst. for Civil Justice, Compensation for Accidental Injuries in the United States: Executive Summary} 19 (1991) (finding that lawsuits were filed for 44\% of vehicle injuries, 7\% of work injuries, and 3\% of other injuries).

\textsuperscript{179} Plaintiff’s attorneys in civil rights cases will also be entitled to attorneys’ fees if they prevail. \textit{See Section 1988}. Many cases are resolved through settlement agreements, however, which do not necessarily include a provision for attorneys’ fees. In those cases, the attorney will take a portion of the plaintiff’s recovery.

\textsuperscript{180} \textit{See Rudovsky, supra} note 142 at 467 (“Because police abuse is most often directed against those without political power or social status, their claims are often dismissed or ignored); Meltzer, \textit{supra} note 126 (observing that people mistreated by the police often do not bring claims because of “ignorance of their rights, poverty, fear of police reprisals, and burdens of incarceration”); Miller, \textit{supra} note 2 at 68 (noting that, given heightened pleading standards in \textit{Twombly} and \textit{Iqbal}, meritorious but hard to prove cases may not be brought “because prospective litigants or their counsel may not have – or be willing to risk – the resources needed to investigate sufficiently prior to institution to survive a motion to dismiss”).

\textsuperscript{181} This is not to suggest that plaintiffs regularly lie in their complaints. Although some complaints will overstate the plaintiffs’ case, there are strong incentives for a plaintiff to be judicious but thorough in her complaint. An attorney will not recover attorneys’ fees for time spent on frivolous claims. In fact, a defendant can recover fees for time spent defending against frivolous claims. \textit{See Christiansburg Garment Co. v. EEOC}, 434 U.S. 412 (1978); \textit{Harris v. Maricopa County Superior Court}, 631 F.3d 963, 971-72
deny her contentions to the hilt. During discovery, both sides will use interrogatories, requests for admission, document requests, and depositions to generate a great deal of information. The nature of discovery practice means that at least some of the information generated will be irrelevant, prejudicial, and inadmissible.\textsuperscript{182} Not every discovery request or deposition question, even when asked in good faith, will uncover valuable evidence. And each witness may tell a version of the facts influenced by faulty memory or a preference for one side.\textsuperscript{183}

The information generated by litigation will be further distorted if the parties do not have comparably resourced and capable counsel. Scholars have recognized that unequally matched counsel make it more difficult for neutral fact-finders to reach a just verdict.\textsuperscript{184} Unequal litigators also affect the quality of the evidence generated.

182 Although some evidence generated during discovery will be prejudicial and irrelevant, the general consensus among attorneys is that discovery produces the correct amount of information needed properly to litigate the case. Thomas E. Willging, Donna Stienstra, John Shard, Dean Miletich, \textit{An Empirical Study of Discovery and Disclosure Practice Under the 1993 Federal Rule Amendments}, 39 B.C. L. REV. 525, 531 (1998).

183 See, e.g., JEROME FRANK, COURTS ON TRIAL: MYTH AND REALITY IN AMERICAN JUSTICE 86 (1949) (“[T]he witness often detects what the lawyer hopes to prove at the trial. If the witness desires to have the lawyer’s client win the case, he will often, unconsciously, mold his story accordingly. Telling and re-telling it to the lawyer, he will honestly believe that his story, as he narrates it in court, is true, although it importantly deviates from what he originally believed”); Ellen E. Sward, \textit{Values, Ideology, and the Evolution of the Adversary System}, 64 I ND. L.J. 301, 304 (1988-89) (observing that “[w]itnesses may differ in what they think they saw; or there may be no witnesses on a significant issue so that the past must be reconstructed from circumstantial evidence; or, in some cases, witnesses may deliberately lie”).

184 See William B. Rubenstein, \textit{The Concept of Equality in Civil Procedure}, 23 CARDOZO L. REV. 1865, 1873-74 (2002) (“If one side in adversarial adjudication is ill-equipped – it cannot afford access to the system, or has less time and money to pursue evidence, or less skill in developing legal claims – then what emerges as the stronger case might not necessarily be the better case”); John H. Langbein, \textit{The German Advantage in Civil Procedure}, 52 U. CHI. L. REV. 823, 843 (1985) (“It is a rare litigator in the United States who has not witnessed the spectacle of a bumbling adversary whose poor discovery work or inability to present evidence at trial caused his client to lose a case that should have been won”); Issachar Rosen-Zvi & Talia Fisher, \textit{Overcoming Procedural Boundaries}, 94 VA. L. REV. 79, 91 (2008) (“Because the adversarial system relies upon the parties to produce the facts, examine and cross-examine the witnesses, and present legal
information generated by litigation. The lion’s share of evidence may support plaintiff’s claim not because the claim is meritorious, but because defense counsel overlooked critical areas of inquiry in his document requests and deposition questions.

Departments that pay attention to litigation data do not assume the data to be accurate or complete. Instead, they view the data skeptically, supporting or rebutting allegations with other available information. When departments investigate lawsuit claims, their investigations are parallel to and independent of the litigation discovery process. Only after the internal investigation is complete does the department review the litigation file to determine whether any additional information was uncovered in discovery. In this way, departments cross-check the quality and thoroughness of the internal investigation and litigation discovery process. Similarly, when a department is looking for problem officers, units, and practices, a single meritless legal claim or an isolated civilian complaint will have little impact; the department will intervene only if it sees a cluster of incidents within a limited period of time.

Departments also look beyond lawsuit data when crafting solutions to the problems they identify. When a cluster of incidents trigger early intervention, officials consider not only the officer’s job performance but also his personal situation and family circumstances before deciding what course of action might prevent future problems. Two case studies described by police practices expert Samuel Walker illustrate the personalized nature of these interventions.

In one large police department, a police officer was flagged by the EI system because of a high number of use of force incidents. The counseling session with the officer revealed that she had a great fear of being struck in the face, and as a consequence was not properly taking control of encounters with citizens. After losing control with the person or persons, she would then have to use force to reassert control. Her supervisor referred her to the training unit, where she was instructed in tactics that would allow her to protect herself while maintaining control of encounters with the arguments on their own behalf, the parties must be at least somewhat equally capable of making their cases . . . If, due to a lack of resources, one party is unable to uncover evidence or is less skilled in developing legal arguments, the outcome might be skewed in favor of her better-equipped adversary").

See Telephone Interview with Ilana Rosenzweig, supra note 35 (Chicago auditor reviews but does not blindly rely on information developed during the course of litigation in her independent reviews).

See supra Parts I.C.1, 3 (describing trend analysis and early intervention systems).

See Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 62 (“Understanding the critical factors, both on and off the job, will help supervisors decide when to intervene and to tailor needed interventions to individual officers’ needs.”)
potential for conflict. As a result, her use of force incidents declined dramatically.

In another large department, a patrol officer was identified by the EI system because of a series of use of force incidents. During the intervention session the officer’s supervisor discovered that he was having severe personal financial problems. The supervisors recommended professional financial consulting, the officer followed this advice, and his performance improved significantly.188

As these descriptions show, a supervisor’s expansive view of officers’ problems may lead him to conclude that an officer needs training in self-defense tactics or financial counseling instead of discipline to reduce his uses of force. Departments demonstrate similar circumspection when reviewing trends across cases. When the LASD’s special counsel found one station was responsible for a disproportionate number of shootings and lawsuits, he spent several weeks at the station reviewing records, speaking with personnel, riding along with officers, and considering several possible reasons for the concentration of payouts.189 Ultimately, many of his recommendations did not address the particular behaviors that prompted the lawsuits, but instead addressed hiring, management and training decisions at the station.190

Although departments’ holistic review of information from multiple data sources mitigates the flaws of available data, it raises the costs of information gathering and analysis.191 Reviewers bear the responsibility of separating the wheat from the chaff, the “good” from the “bad” information. Given cognitive limitations and heuristics, and the effects of information overload, we should expect analytical errors.192 Officials may have trouble deciding what information

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188 POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY, supra note 87 at 102.
189 See infra notes 73-76 and accompanying text for a description of the investigation of the Century City Unit by the LASD auditor.
190 See supra notes 77-79 and accompanying text for a description of the auditor’s recommendations.
191 There are not only information costs but also financial costs associated with departments’ contextual analyses. Auditors charge cities and counties hundreds of thousands of dollars each year. See Correspondence with Merrick Bobb (June 14, 2009) (reporting that the LASD auditor charges the County of Los Angeles $200,000 per year for his services); Joel Warner, supra note 114 (reporting that Denver’s auditor’s budget is $636,000). Of course, not all of this money is spent reviewing lawsuit data. Police auditors are involved in multiple different efforts to improve police accountability, and do not charge piecemeal for their litigation review services.
192 See, e.g., HERBERT A. SIMON, ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR: A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONS (1947); Daniel G. Goldstein & Gerd Gigerenzer, Models of Ecological Rationality: The Recognition
is relevant. Although the astute supervisor described by Samuel Walker thought to ask the officer with multiple uses of force about his financial situation, finances might seem irrelevant to another competent supervisor trying to understand an officer’s use of force statistics.

Officials may also assess available information in a biased manner. When supervisors use early intervention systems to design appropriate interventions, for example, they are instructed to look to the particular characteristics of the officer and the problems he faces. Supervisors have broad authority to decide whether an officer should be counseled informally in the supervisor’s office or reassigned to another station. The supervisor’s personal dislike of that officer, or, conversely, his desire to protect one of his own may impact his decision about what course to take.

Departments attempt to limit error and bias by having both department personnel and external auditors evaluate available information. Department personnel may run the early intervention system, for example, but the department’s auditor will periodically review the department’s collection and analysis of early intervention system data and the effectiveness of intervention decisions. With this dual review, departments reap the benefits of internal and external


As James March observed, decisionmakers “often have relevant information but fail to see its relevance. They make unwarranted inferences from information, or fail to connect different parts of the information available to them to form a coherent interpretation.” JAMES G. MARCH, A PRIMER ON DECISION MAKING 10 (1994). See also Diane Vaughn, Rational Choice, Situated Action, and the Social Control of Organizations, 32 LAW & SOCIETY REV. 23 (1998) (noting that “decisionmakers do not weigh all possible outcomes but instead rely on a few key values; the magnitude of possible bad outcomes is more salient, so that there is less risk taking when greater stakes are involved; in practice quantifying costs and benefits of a line of action is not easy”).

See infra note 188 and accompanying text.

As sociologist Diane Vaughn has observed, “An extensive body of research and theory on decisionmaking in organizations shows that the weighing of costs and benefits does occur, but individual choice is constrained by institutional and organizational forces: decision practices and outcomes are products of compromise, limited information, external contingencies, retrospective sensemaking, unacknowledged cultural beliefs, political battles, and bureaucratic pathologies that undercut both the determination of goals and their achievement.” Vaughn, supra note 193.

See generally Protecting Civil Rights, supra note 89 at 44-78.

perspectives. Departments preserve the input of police officials, who have a deep understanding of the department and staff but may be biased by their relationship with the involved officers and stations.198 Departments also benefit from the insights of external auditors, who know less about the inner-workings of the department but may be more objective.199

B. The Inaccuracies of Litigation Outcomes

Like claims and facts developed during litigation, litigation outcomes can be inaccurate. Plaintiffs with strong claims may lose at trial or have their case dismissed by the court.200 Plaintiffs with weak claims may prevail. The amount awarded to a prevailing plaintiff can have little to do with the merits of the claim or the severity of the defendant’s misconduct. Juries may award damages based on the severity of the plaintiff’s injury201 and characteristics of the plaintiff including how much she earns, where she lives, and whether she has depen-

198 For the potential for biased information in a variety of institutional contexts see, e.g., Barbara E. Armacost, Organizational Culture and Police Misconduct, 72 GEO. WASH. L. REV. 453 (2004); Jane E. Dutton et al., Reading the Wind: How Middle Managers Assess the Context for Selling Issues to Top Managers, 18 STRATEGIC MGMT. J. 407 (1997); R. Joseph Monsen Jr. & Anthony Downs, A Theory of Large Managerial Firms, 73 J. POL. ECON. 221 (1965).

199 Although auditors may be more objective than department personnel, they are still human; auditors’ decisions will be impacted by errors and biases, including possible biases toward their department employers. See generally Robert A. Prentice, The Case of the Irrational Auditor: A Behavioral Insight into Securities Fraud Litigation, 95 NORTHWESTERN U. L. REV. 133 (2000).

200 See Carl B. Klockars, A Theory of Excessive Force and Its Control, in POLICE VIOLENCE (William A. Geller & Hans Toch) (1996) at 6-7 (describing legal requirements in civil rights actions and observing that “police can engage in all sorts of objectionable behavior without transgressing criminal or civil definitions of excessive force”). See also Levinson, supra note 25 at 372-73 (noting that, even if a plaintiff’s constitutional rights have been violated, they cannot be awarded damages absent injury).

201 See, e.g., David A. Hyman, Medical Malpractice: What Do We Know and What (If Anything) Should We Do About It?, 80 TEX. L. REV. 1639, 1642 (2002) (describing studies in multiple contexts that have found that “the best predictor of the size of an award is the severity of disability, not whether there was negligence, or an adverse event”); Troyen A. Brennan, Colin M. Sox, Helen R. Burstin, Relation between negligent adverse events and the outcomes of medical-malpractice litigation, 335 N.E. J. MED. 1963 (1999); Randall R. Bovbjerg et al., Juries and Justice: Are Malpractice and Other Personal Injuries Created Equal, 54 LAW & CONTEMP. PROBS., Winter 1991 at 5 (showing that malpractice damage awards correlate to severity and duration of injury); Janet Cooper Alexander, Do the Merits Matter? A Study of Settlements in Securities Class Actions, 43 STAN. L. REV. 497 (1991) (finding that awards are based more on the extent of plaintiff’s injury than defendants’ wrongdoing).
Jury verdicts may be skewed by negative public sentiment about a party to the litigation, the depth of the defendants’ pockets, and trial participants’ courtroom demeanor. Settlement awards may also be inaccurate reflections of defendants’ misconduct. Even if a defendant is not at fault, he may nonetheless settle the claim for nuisance value to avoid the costs and risks of trial. In other cases, settlement awards may be reached for amounts below the cost of the anticipated verdict.

A department interested in reducing the costs of litigation should collect and assess litigation data regardless of the accuracy of the outcomes. After all, to reduce the costs of suits, one must understand what types of cases are brought and how all payouts – not just payouts in meritorious cases – can be reduced.

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202 It is, for example, more expensive for a defendant to harm an executive than it is to harm a factory worker. See Richard J. Pierce, Jr., Encouraging Safety: The Limits of Tort Law and Government Regulation, 33 VAND. L. REV. 1281, 1292 (1980). It is more expensive for a defendant to harm a parent than it is to harm a child or person without dependents. Id. at 1293. It is more expensive to harm a person who lives in a city than it is to harm a person who lives in the country. Paula Danzon, The Frequency and Severity of Medical Malpractice Claims, 27 J.L. & ECON. 115, 143 (1984).


204 See, e.g., Audrey Chin & Mark Peterson, Deep Pockets, Empty Pockets: Who Wins in Cook County Jury Trials? (RAND 1985) (studying Chicago jury verdicts from 1960-1980 and finding that plaintiffs who had fallen in a corporate owned building recovered higher damages than those who had fallen in government owned and privately owned buildings).


207 For discounts in settlements, see James Chelius, Workplace Safety and Health: The Role of Workers’ Compensation 61 (1977); Donald Harris, Compensation and Support for Illness and Injury 318-19 (1984); Patricia M. Danzon, The Medical Malpractice System: Facts and Reforms, in The Effects of Litigation on Health Care Costs 28, 30 (1985). But see James K. Hammit, Automobile Accident Compensation: Payments by Auto Insurers 74 (1985) (automobile cases settled for approximately the same amounts that were recovered after trial, without a discount); Elizabeth M. King & James P. Smith, Economic Loss and Compensation in Aviation Accidents 75 (1988) (finding that air crash cases that settled after a lawsuit was filed recovered 50% of actual losses, but cases that went to trial recovered only 44% of actual losses).
The imperfections of lawsuit outcomes do, however, warp the deterrent signal of damages actions. Deterrence theory, in its strongest form, relies on the assumption that threatened or actual penalties will discourage future misbehavior so long as the costs of harm avoidance are lower than the costs of liability. And, generally speaking – though not always – the costs of liability are viewed in terms of the dollars spent to satisfy settlements and judgments. So, the logic goes, the higher the expected or exacted damages, the greater the care that will be taken to prevent those sorts of injuries in the future. The lower the damages, the lower the care.

In order for tort law appropriately to incentivize actors, defendants’ liability exposure must be equivalent to the value of the harms they cause. Only with this type of equity can lawsuits carry the appropriately calibrated deterrent signal:

If injurers pay less than for the harm they cause, underdeterrence may result – that is, precautions may be inadequate, product prices may be too low, and risk-producing activities may be excessive. Conversely, if injurers are made to pay more than for the harm they cause, wasteful precautions may be taken, product prices may be inappropriately high, and risky but socially beneficial activities may be undesirably curtailed.

Given what we know about litigation outcomes, litigation payouts are highly unlikely to equal the nature and severity of underlying harms. And the deterrent signal is further skewed in police misconduct cases, where officers are almost certain to be indemnified and judgments against departments come from city budgets, not police coffers.

The departments in this study minimize concerns about the imperfections of litigation outcomes by not focusing exclusively – or primarily – on payouts.

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208 For other critiques of lawsuits’ deterrent effects see Schwartz supra note 13 at 1026-27.
209 But see supra note 25 (describing possible non-financial “costs” of civil rights lawsuits).
210 A. Mitchell Polinsky & Steven Shavell, Punitive Damages: An Economic Analysis, 111 HARV. L. REV. 869, 873 (1998). See also Gary T. Schwartz, Does Tort Law Deter?, supra note 11 at 423 (noting that torts-and-economics scholarship “assume[s], at least implicitly, a one-to-one relationship between the incentives afforded by tort liability rules and the resulting conduct of real-world actors”); Margo Schlanger, Second Best Damages Deterrence, 55 DEPAUL L. REV. 517, 520 (2005-2006) (referring to this equity as the “identity principle”). See also Ciracolo v. City of New York, 216 F.3d 236, 243 (2d Cir. 2000) (Calabresi, J., concurring) (“unless approximately all the costs of the activity are borne by the actor . . . the actor will not be adequately deterred from undesirable activities”).
211 See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1032-33.
Departments do track litigation payouts, and may pay particular attention to cases with high settlements and judgments.\textsuperscript{212} But departments also pay attention to allegations of misconduct in claims and lawsuits when they are first filed, and the information developed during the course of litigation. Departments enter lawsuit allegations into early intervention systems used to track problem officers.\textsuperscript{213} Departments identify trends by looking at clusters of legal claims.\textsuperscript{214} Departments investigate lawsuit claims when they are filed.\textsuperscript{215} And departments review the evidence developed during the course of litigation for personnel, policy, and training implications.\textsuperscript{216}

Because departments review lawsuits at the time they are filed, claims that are dismissed can still be the basis for personnel action. And because these departments are not guided solely by the size of payouts, a case settled for a small amount can still inspire policy change. A lawsuit will be included in a department’s early intervention system and trend analysis whether the case was dismissed or went to trial, whether it settled for $5,000, or $500,000. Departments have, in fact, made policy changes even when the underlying claim settled for an insignificant amount. In one instance, a deputy from the K9 unit of the Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department took his dog to a park for a walk and the dog bit a man. The department paid the man’s medical costs and an additional small settlement. Even though the bite was accidental and the settlement was small, the K9 unit reviewed and changed its policies department-wide to prevent future similar events.\textsuperscript{217} Conversely, lawsuits resulting in large judgments or settlements will not necessarily lead to personnel or policy changes if the department concludes that none are merited.\textsuperscript{218}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{212} See supra note 73, 106 and accompanying text.
\item \textsuperscript{213} See supra Part II.C.3 for a description of early intervention systems.
\item \textsuperscript{214} See supra Part II.C.1 for a description of trend analysis.
\item \textsuperscript{215} See supra Part II.C.2 for a description of investigations of legal claims.
\item \textsuperscript{216} See supra Part II.C.4 for a description of closed case reviews.
\item \textsuperscript{218} See, e.g. Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors, Information on Proposed Settlement of Litigation, Montoya v. County of Los Angeles (Nov. 28, 2005) (finding no personnel or policy failures in lawsuit, settled for $150,000, in which plaintiff was shot in the abdomen after a struggle with sheriff’s deputy), available at http://file.lacounty.gov/bos/supdocs/36736.pdf; Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors, Information on Proposed Settlement of Litigation, Eichenlaub v. County of Los Angeles (Jan. 21, 2009) (finding no personnel or policy failures in lawsuit, settled for $450,000, claiming excessive force and wrongful death).
\end{itemize}
C. The Slow Pace of Litigation

Some contend that lawsuits should play no role in performance improvement efforts because litigation travels at such a slow pace. 219 Given generous statute of limitations periods and extensive pretrial litigation practices, a settlement or judgment may not be entered until several years after the underlying incident.

Officials in the departments in this study recognize that lawsuits are a “‘trailing’ rather than a leading indicator” that “may not be concluded until several years after the conduct that gave rise to the lawsuit.” 220 However, departments do not wait until cases are resolved to evaluate the claims for possible lessons. Instead, departments track and analyze lawsuits from the time that the suits are filed. 221 As the Portland police departments’ safety and risk officer reported, “We’re watching these claims from Day One. We don’t want to wait until after a large settlement.” 222 By paying attention to lawsuits when they are first filed, departments lessen the inevitable delays of litigation, although they of course cannot eliminate some of the delay, including delays in filing.

Moreover, closed litigation files can be a source of valuable information even though the underlying events have occurred years before. Lawsuits have revealed information about misconduct allegations that did not arise during the internal investigation of the same incident. It was plaintiff’s attorney – not internal investigators – who enhanced the audio portion of a videotape taken of the involved Portland transit division officers on the night of James Chasse’s death. 223 By comparing closed litigation files with internal investigations, auditors

[219] See supra note 177. The effects of the delay on the impact of litigation have been recognized in other contexts as well. See, e.g., Paul C. Weiler, A Measure of Malpractice 81 (1993) (“Consider, for example, and anesthetist who is momentarily distracted from indicators of oxygen deprivation to the patient and omits the necessary emergency response. The prospect of a tort suit arising years later as a result of a problem the doctor is too distracted even to be thinking about during the treatment in question will not likely provide him with motivation to adopt the proper precautions”); John Siliciano, Corporate Behavior and the Social Efficiency of Tort Law, 85 Mich. L. Rev. 1821, 1830-31 (1986) (“In the products liability context, “some risks from a product may not be discovered until long after it has entered the marketplace. These ‘remote’ risks pose a particularly difficult dilemma for the manufacturer. The manufacturer could engage in an extensive research and testing program aimed at uncovering all such risks, but at some point the costs and delay involved in such a program become prohibitive”).


[221] See supra Part II.C.3 (describing early intervention systems and trend analyses).

[222] Bernstein, supra note 64.

[223] See supra notes 170-176 and accompanying text (describing Chasse case and investigation).
have identified weaknesses, flaws, biases, and gaps in internal investigation processes and ways that those internal processes can be improved. Given the documented inadequacies of internal investigations and the vigorous nature of discovery, it should be no surprise that litigation files – when reviewed – have supplemented departments’ knowledge and understanding of incidents and department practices despite the passage of time.

D. The Individualistic Focus of Litigation

A fourth critique of lawsuits’ role in performance improvement – raised by scholars, not police executives – is that damages actions are generally focused on individual bad actors instead of systemic causes of harm. Organizational theory literature posits that organizational culture influences the behavior of individuals in that organization. And those who study the police have long observed that police organizational culture influences the actions of individual officers. Scholars including Barbara Armacost, David Rudovsky, and Peter Schuck argue that lawsuits brought against individual officers focus too narrowly on officer error instead of the systemic causes of police misconduct. They recommend bringing suits against the department to incentivize change at the organizational level.

Although these scholars may correctly suggest that lawsuits are largely focused on individual behavior, litigation analysis nevertheless can uncover systemic problems. Departments address concerns about the overly individualistic nature of damages actions by reviewing individual cases for large-scale lessons. As a result, a single case brought against the LASD’s K9 unit and settled for a modest sum can nonetheless lead to institution-wide policy reforms.

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224 See supra Part II.B (describing benefits of closed claim reviews).
227 See, e.g., Armacost, supra note 198; Rudovsky, supra note 142; Schuck, supra note 25.
228 See id. For similar arguments in the medical malpractice context, see Weiler, supra note 219; Mello & Brennan, supra note 203 at 1623-24.
229 See supra note 217 and accompanying text.
ments also mitigate the individualistic focus of litigation by consolidating information from individual suits. Take, for example, the cluster of claims against the LASD by inmates who fell off their top bunks.230 A supervisor reviewing a single claim might see a simple fall. By reviewing claims in the aggregate, LASD’s risk manager could see that the department was improperly maintaining and communicating medical information – a systemic problem – even though the suits were focused on individual officers and events.

E. The Blaming Culture Created by Litigation

Some level criticism not at lawsuits themselves, but instead at the defensive culture created by the threat of being sued. In multiple industries, including aviation, manufacturing, nuclear power, and medical care, information about past performance is gathered and analyzed as a way of identifying the types of problems that lead to accidents.231 Reporting systems collect information about accidents and “near misses,” and officials analyze the data to identify system-wide problems that could cause future harms. And when accidents do occur, in-depth reviews are conducted to understand the root causes of error. The departments in this study – much like airliners, hospitals, and nuclear power plants – review information from a variety of sources to identify weaknesses and possible ways to improve. Police department early intervention systems – like near-miss reporting systems – gather information from multiple sources as a way of identifying problem officers, units, and practices. Police department closed claims reviews – like root cause analyses – sift through all available information about an incident as a way of diagnosing what went wrong.

Although lawsuits play an important role in police department policies, scholars generally view suits to be counter-productive to error reducing efforts. The concern, most frequently articulated in the health care context, is that safety improvements require “an organizational culture of openness to discovery and discussion of problems” that will be stifled by the threat of discipline and

\[230\] See supra note 65 and accompanying text.

liability.\textsuperscript{232} 

My research supports the concern that litigation can undermine efforts to understand error. In my research, I found that the threat of litigation and discipline caused government personnel – including, at times, personnel in the five departments in this study – to hide or misrepresent the kinds of information crucial to performance improvement efforts.\textsuperscript{233} Department officials have written reports that omit information harmful to their officers.\textsuperscript{234} City attorneys have refused to disclose information about pending claims.\textsuperscript{235} And internal affairs bureaus have suspended investigations while lawsuits are pending for fear that internal findings will compromise the defense of the case.\textsuperscript{236} Indeed, the internal investigation of James Chasse’s death was delayed by twenty-two months because the lawyer representing the county deputy did not allow department investigators to interview the deputy or others involved until they were deposed in the lawsuit.\textsuperscript{237} The attorney was afraid that statements made in the internal investigation could compromise the defense of the civil case.\textsuperscript{238}

Although the fear of litigation can inhibit data collection, the departments in this study show that lawsuits are also an important source of information about error. Suits have revealed incidents of misconduct, and evidence generated during litigation has offered critical details about those misconduct allegations. How have departments learned from lawsuits even as suits inhibit disclosure of error


\textsuperscript{233} See Schwartz, supra note 13 at Part II.D for a description of these types of implementation problems.

\textsuperscript{234} See LASD FIFTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 53.

\textsuperscript{235} See Schwartz, supra note 13 at 1065-66.

\textsuperscript{236} See id. at 1064.


\textsuperscript{238} See id.
and open dialogue? Key to these departments’ success appears to be the independent auditors who review department practices. In each of these departments, auditors have unfettered access to department documents and personnel. This access has allowed auditors to learn that officials were not complying with their obligations to disclose or investigate. Auditors are also able to evaluate, in subsequent reports, whether those problems have been remedied. Although auditors do not eliminate problems in the collection and analysis of data, they have been able to point out and assist in the correction of data collection problems that would have gone unidentified but for the auditor’s review.

IV. LEARNING FROM LAWSUITS: A DESCRIPTIVE THEORY

Lawsuits are widely recognized to compensate and deter; this Article shows suits can also inform. In the departments in this study, lawsuits reveal allegations of misconduct that officials investigate and consider with other data for possible trends. The evidence developed in discovery and trial offers a detailed picture of underlying events that can help identify personnel and policy failures. Closed case files, compared with internal investigations, reveal weaknesses in internal procedures. And trends in settlements and judgments, like initial claim trends, highlight units that officials should more carefully review. Viewed in isolation or in conjunction with other data, lawsuits offer insights about the incidence and causes of individual and organizational failings. And armed with these insights, departments find ways to improve.

This view of litigation – as a source of information that can be used to identify and reduce harm and error – parts company with prevailing understandings of lawsuits’ role in organizational performance improvement. In the standard story, lawsuits’ financial costs are expected to deter misbehavior. Others

239 See supra note 197.
240 See generally Schwartz supra note 13 at Part II.D.
241 For examples, see id. at 1063-64.
242 See, e.g., City of Monterey v. Del Monte Dunes, 526 U.S. 687, 727 (1999) (Scalia, J., concurring) (writing that Section 1983 “is designed to provide compensation for injuries arising from the violation of legal duties and thereby, of course, to deter future violations” (citation omitted); City of Riverside v. Rivera, 477 U.S. 561, 575 (1986) (“[T]he damages a plaintiff recovers contributes significantly to the deterrence of civil rights violations . . . .”); Memphis Cmty. Sch. Dist. v. Stachura, 477 U.S. 299, 307 (1986) (“[D]eterrence . . . operates through the mechanism of damages that are compensatory”). For scholarly discussions of lawsuits as a financial deterrent, see, e.g., Fallon & Meltzer, supra note 25. Some have, however, noted that other types of pressures associated with lawsuits can influence behavior. Myriam Gilles has pointed out that information revealed during litigation, press attention, and the symbolic power of judgment can have a deterrent
contend that police officials will be deterred by lawsuits only when the suits jeopardize political capital, bureaucratic and administrative needs, or crime control efforts. But all expect that it is lawsuits’ punitive effects that inspire performance improvement.

High profile and costly cases can, most certainly, affect change in law enforcement. Indeed, several of the departments in this study began reviewing lawsuit data as a response to significant political and financial pressures. But these departments do not limit their attention to cases that garner high payouts or press attention. Instead, they gather information about legal claims, evidence, and dispositions of all cases, even those without financial and political ramifications.

Deterrence theory also imagines that officials deciding which course of action to take weigh the costs of litigation against the benefits of the underlying conduct. But the policies in place in the departments in this study do not facilitate this sort of weighing. Departments would not, for example, track lawsuits alleging chokeholds and then decide whether to retrain their officers about the impropriety of chokeholds based on the costs of these suits. Instead, departments in this study would use lawsuits, with other data, to identify

effect. See Gilles, supra note 25. Several have also pointed out that individual officers may be deterred by the stresses of defending oneself, see, e.g., Bogan v. Scott-Harris, 523 U.S. 44, 54 (1998); Gilles, supra note 25854-55 (2001); John. C. Jeffries, Jr., In Praise of the Eleventh Amendment and Section 1983, 84 VA. L. REV. 47, 50-51 (1998).

See SCHUCK, supra note 25 at 125 (arguing that government officials may tolerate officer misconduct to further “goals such as crime control, intelligence-gathering, or preservation of neighborhood schools,” “[b]ureaucratic needs,” and “[a]dministrative imperatives”); Armacost, supra note 198 at 475 (arguing that officials may tolerate police misconduct that reduces crime); Levinson, supra note 25 (arguing that “[g]overnment actors respond to political incentives, not financial ones”).

See KOLTS COMMISSION REPORT, supra note 36 at 1 (noting that the Kolts Commission investigation of the LASD was prompted by “an increase over the past years in the number of officer-involved shootings,” “four controversial shootings of minorities by LASD deputies in August 1991,” and a front-page L.A. Times story that “Los Angeles County had paid $32 million in claims arising from the operation of the LASD over the last four years.”); Jim Brunner, New System in Place for Policing the Police, SEATTLE TIMES (May 7, 2002) (describing the scandal, in which a homicide detective stole $10,000 from the home of a dead man, and at least eighteen police officials knew of the incident but no internal investigation ever took place); Libby Sander, Chicago Revamps Investigation of Police Abuse, but Privacy Fight Continues, N.Y. TIMES (July 20, 2007) (describing the “string of scandals” as follows: “An off-duty officer was caught on videotape beating a female bartender. In another incident, also captured on videotape, a group of off-duty officers was seen beating four businessmen at a downtown bar. In addition, several officers in an elite unit are awaiting trial on charges that include home invasion, theft and armed violence, as county prosecutors continue to investigate the unit.”)

See supra notes 24-25 for representative scholarship in this area.

This is the type of weighing assumed in many accounts of law enforcement decisionmaking, even as scholars differ about the precise incentives that guide those decisions. See, e.g., Levinson, supra note 25.
chokeholds as behavior that triggered a concentration of suits, civilian complaints, and/or use-of-force reports. The department then would conduct an investigation and identify ways to address the underlying policy, training, or personnel problems. And when a department looks for trends in payouts, officials do not weigh those judgments and settlements against the costs of potential policy changes. Instead, the concentration of settlements and judgments is treated as an indication of an underlying problem that is then investigated and analyzed.

In differentiating department practices from deterrence models, I do not mean to suggest that these departments never engage in cost-benefit analysis. Indeed, department officials likely weigh the costs and benefits of their actions at multiple points during information gathering, analysis, and decisionmaking. When LASD’s Century Station was identified as having a high concentration of payouts, department officials likely considered the bureaucratic and administrative costs of focusing public attention on that station when deciding what course of action to pursue.247 When Portland’s auditor identified a number of incidents suggesting that officers did not understand their authority to enter a home without a warrant, department officials likely weighed the financial costs of various interventions before deciding to make a training video that clarified officers’ legal obligations.248 This type of cost-benefit analysis is far more nuanced and complex than is suggested by formal models of deterrence. And lawsuits’ role in this cost-benefit analysis is not as a “cost” but, instead, as one of many sources of information.

Others have recognized that information generated by litigation can serve a regulatory function. Lawsuits challenging the gun industry, clergy sexual abuse, tobacco, and breast implant manufacturers have generated information that supplemented regulatory efforts.249 The revelation of damaging information can also pressure police departments to change their behavior.250 In these contexts, the public disclosure of litigation data caused third parties to influence organizations to improve. The departments in this study reveal that litigation can also generate information previously unavailable to the very entity that is sued.

Although these departments view lawsuits as a valuable source of information, they recognize that the information is flawed.251 Information produced internally – through civilian complaints and use of force reports – is flawed as

\[\text{Draft: Please do not Copy or Cite}\]

\textit{What Police Can Learn From Lawsuits}

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247 See supra note 74 and accompanying text.
248 See supra note 71 and accompanying text.
250 See, e.g., Gilles, supra note 25.
251 See supra Part III.
The approach of the departments in this study is not to ignore information because of its imperfections, but instead to review data from multiple sources with the hopes that imperfections will be minimized by a holistic approach. The Los Angeles Sheriff’s Department’s policies “consciously were fashioned to create multiple, new, and even redundant sources of information.”

The same force incident that gave rise to a citizen’s complaint might also give rise to a claim, a lawsuit, an IA rollout, a determination by a Commander’s Panel on use of force, an administrative inquiry, and possibly even a criminal investigation. Each of the foregoing would give the Department an independent opportunity to bring facts about a particular incident to light, albeit at different times and at different stages of various proceedings and from different perspectives.

By collecting information generated through multiple avenues, at different times, and from different perspectives, officials can account for imperfections in the data and thereby better understand department practices.

What can be learned from litigation – and how best to use the data – are questions that can be asked not only in police departments but also in other institutional settings. Although lawsuit data fill significant gaps in the information available to police departments, the value of lawsuit data to other organizations will depend on the quality and availability of alternative sources of information. Lawsuits may, for example, be less helpful in efforts to understand and improve aviation safety. The Federal Aviation Administration’s reporting system captures thousands of errors and “near misses,” events that could have but did not result in an airplane crash. Granted, employees may decide not to report incidents for any number of reasons. But lawsuits will not fill these reporting gaps. People are unlikely to file lawsuits regarding near misses – airplanes flying too close together or approaching a runway too quickly – as they do not result in injury. The kinds of error that typically lead to lawsuits – airplane crashes – are catastrophic and highly visible, and will come to the attention of officials whether or not an internal report is filed.

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252 See supra Part II.
253 LASD FIFTEENTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 75 at 81.
254 LASD FIFTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT, supra note 220 at 84.
255 See Alan Levin, FAA Error-Reporting Program Reveals Hazards, Yields Fixes, USA TODAY (Apr. 5, 2010).
256 See, e.g., Investigation Reveals Underrerporting of Airplane Near Misses at Dallas Fort Worth, ASSOCIATED PRESS (Jan. 12, 2011).
257 People sue for less serious accidents and injuries, as well. See, e.g., Jennifer Sullivan, Alaska Airlines Flight Attendants File Claim over Air Turbulence Injuries, Seattle Times (Dec. 18, 2009); Jessica Ravitz, Toxic Plane Air Sickens Flight Attendant,
Discovery also likely reveals little about the details of aviation accidents. When a plane crashes, the National Transportation Safety Board investigates the circumstances of the crash. Despite its sterling reputation, the NTSB has its flaws. In a recent study, the RAND Corporation found that the NTSB’s investigations are compromised by underfunding, understaffing, and outdated investigatory techniques. Airplane staff, air traffic controllers, and other potential defendants participate in these investigations but the victims and their families do not, raising the appearance of – and potential for – bias. Litigation may not, however, fill the gaps in NTSB investigations because their final accident reports “figure prominently in litigation” and are considered by all parties to be “road maps to liability.”

The value of lawsuits to hospitals’ patient safety efforts may fall somewhere between law enforcement and aviation. Hospitals have developed sophisticated error-reporting systems similar to those used in aviation. Doctors, nurses, and other hospital staff are encouraged to input information about errors and near misses when they occur. Hospital employees, like airline employees, under-report error. Yet malpractice cases, unlike aviation suits, appear to fill

*Suit Says*, CNN (July 10, 2009). This Article is not meant definitively to account for the types of claims brought in lawsuits – more study is necessary to understand the types of claims brought in lawsuits and reported internally. See the Conclusion for this and other research questions prompted by this Article.

259 See id.
260 See id. at xiv (noting that the reliability of NTSB investigations are compromised by the fact that “the parties most likely to be named to assist in the investigation are also likely to be named defendants in related civil litigation. This inherent conflict of interest may jeopardize, or be perceived to jeopardize, the integrity of the NTSB investigation.”)
261 Id. at 30.
263 For studies of the incidence and causes of patient error underreporting see, e.g., Donna Beth Jeffe, William C. Dunagan, Jane M. Garbutt & Victoria J. Fraser, *Using Focus Groups to Understand Physicians’ and Nurses’ Perspectives on Error Reporting in Hospitals*, 30 JOINT COMM’N J. ON QUALITY AND SAFETY 471 (2004); C.L. Uribe, S.B. Schweikhart, D.S. Pathak, G.B. Marsh & R.R. Fraley, *Perceived Barriers to Medical-
gaps in hospital reporting systems. This distinction may be explained by differences in the types of error that occur in each setting. An airplane crash is highly visible and requires no internal report to prompt the NTSB’s investigation. In contrast, if a doctor has improperly diagnosed a patient, neither the doctor nor the patient will know to report the error. The patient may only learn of the improper diagnosis after many years and consultations with many doctors. And the doctor may first learn of the incident when he is served with a summons and complaint.

The discovery process may also offer insight about the nature and causes of medical error. Although hospitals extensively document patient procedures, the litigation process has nonetheless been found to offer more detailed information than charts and medical reports. Researchers prefer medical malpractice claims files over medical files when studying error because, “by drawing together documentation from both formal legal documents, such as depositions and interrogatories, and confidential internal investigations, claim files present a substantially richer body of information about the antecedents of medical injury than the medical record alone.”

Every organization receives information from a combination of internal and external sources. What role lawsuits can play in performance improvement efforts will depend on the characteristics of error, alternative available information, and litigation practice in that industry. It is safe to assume that, in every institutional setting, all information sources will be flawed in some manner. Yet this Article reveals that collecting information from multiple complimentary sources can mitigate flaws in the data and enhance understanding. As Seattle’s police auditor described, lawsuits – like civilian complaints, use-of-force reports, and other internally generated data – are a “foggy lens through which to view


In a recent study, researchers collected data from different avenues; “an incident reporting system, reports to hospital risk management, a patient complaints database, executive walk rounds, and malpractice claims.” Researchers found that each information source produced different data: “[w]ith a few exceptions, there was little correlation between the findings of the individual systems.” See Osnat Levitzion-Korac, et al., Integrating Incident Data from Five Reporting Systems to Assess Patient Safety: Making Sense of the Elephant, 36 JOINT COMM’N J. ON Q. & PATIENT SAFETY 402 (2010).

Id.


agency improvement.\textsuperscript{268} The departments in this study have shown that several foggy lenses, viewed together, can reveal a clearer picture of institutional performance.

**CONCLUSION**

Despite widespread reluctance to pay attention to litigation data, law enforcement agencies can – and do – learn from lawsuits. Department practices take advantage of information in lawsuits that is unavailable through other sources. And although lawsuit data is imperfect, practices in these departments minimize decisionmakers’ reliance on those aspects of the data most prone to error. In illuminating police department practices and recognizing lawsuits’ role in and value to performance improvement efforts, this Article ventures into largely unchartered territory. More study could refine thoughts about how best to learn from litigation and the ideal role of litigation data in organizational decisionmaking. So I end with a familiar call for further research.

First, more can be done to understand the value of lawsuit data to police departments. I have shown that lawsuits – while flawed sources of information – may fill gaps in civilian complaint and use-of-force reporting systems. Further research could quantify the degree of overlap between these information sources by evaluating the types of information departments receive through civilian complaints, use-of-force reports, notices of claim, and lawsuits. Research could also compare the comprehensiveness of internal investigations and lawsuit files. Further information about the uniqueness (or redundancy) of lawsuit data would assist those thinking seriously about the role that lawsuits should play in early intervention systems, trend analyses, internal investigations, and policy reviews.

More can also be learned about the relationship between the merits of civil rights lawsuits and their dispositions. Scholars have studied the volume of civil rights cases and the frequency with which plaintiffs prevail in court and cases settle.\textsuperscript{269} Some scholars have also reviewed civil rights case descriptions and files,  

\textsuperscript{268} See Telephone Interview with Kathryn Olson, supra note 35 (referencing a paper given by an official in the Eugene, Oregon police department).

concluding that assertions of widespread frivolous claims are overblown. But there have been no studies of the frequency with which victims of civil rights violations bring lawsuits, the merits of civil rights cases that are brought, or the correlation between findings of liability, damages awarded, and actual harms suffered by plaintiffs. Medical malpractice cases and other types of tort claims have been scrutinized to determine the frequency with which wrongfully injured people sue, the frequency with which meritorious and frivolous claims succeed, and the amount of damages awarded. This same research can be conducted.

Courts, 92 HARV. L. REV. 610 (1979). These studies are generally focused on examining the extent to which civil rights actions have imposed a burden on the courts, as opposed to the underlying merits of the claims.

270 See, e.g., Eisenberg, Section 1983, supra note 269 at 538 (concluding, following a review of cases brought in Los Angeles, that “section 1983 cases usually involve important constitutional claims” and, “[a]s true of nonprisoner cases, most prisoner section 1983 complaints were not plainly trivial assertions implicating little or no federal interest,” but observing that “[t]he ultimate truth or falsity of allegations in section 1983 cases . . . is not yet a debated issue”); Margo Schlanger, Inmate Litigation, 116 HARV. L. REV. 1555, 1572 (2003) (concluding that the ten most often litigated issues “mostly concern real hardships inherent in prison life, not peanut butter”); Henry F. Fradella, In Search of Meritorious Claims: A Study of the Processing of Prisoner Cases in a Federal District Court, 21 JUST. SYS. J. 23 (1999) (finding that only 6 of 290 claims in 200 randomly selected cases were “factually absurd”).

271 BJS 2002 Study, supra note 122, estimated that less than one percent of people sue who believe police mistreated them. But we do not know how frequently people sue who, objective reviewers confirm, had their rights violated. There is no reliable data about the incidence of police misconduct that could be compared to lawsuits filed. For a description of the many gaps in our information about police uses of force, see Michael R. Smith, Toward a National Use-Of-Force Data Collection System: One Small (and Focused) Step Is Better Than a Giant Leap, 7 CRIMINOLOGY & PUB. POL’Y 619 (2008).

272 Although the studies cited supra note 269 examine the frequency with which civil rights cases are dismissed, these studies do not evaluate whether the “right” outcome was reached – as do the medical malpractice claims studies described infra note 274.

273 See, e.g., Schlanger, supra note 270 at 1613-14 (2003) (observing that inmates with attorneys have a higher success rate than pro se inmates, but concluding that “without data there is really no way to know which effect dominates – the depression of success rates because lawyers are not available, or the absence of lawyers because the cases are not very good cases”). See also Victor E. Kappeler, Stephen F. Kappeler & Rolando V. del Carmen, A Content Analysis of Police Civil Liability Cases: Decisions of the Federal District Courts, 1978-1990, 21 J. CRIM. JUST. 325, 333 (1993)(finding that procedural safeguards cause defendants to win Section 1983 cases more often than they would if plaintiffs and defendants were on “equal footing” procedurally).

274 For the frequency with which wrongfully injured people sue, see supra note 178. For the correlation between damages awarded and underlying harms, see supra note 201. For the frequency with which the “right” result occurs in medical malpractice cases, see, e.g., David M. Studdert et al., Claims, Errors and Compensation Payments in Medical Malpractice Litigation, 354 NEW ENG. J. MED. 2024 (2006) (study of closed claim files found that the “right” result was reached about 73% of the time and finding that false
regarding civil rights claims.

Studying the accuracy of civil rights lawsuits could further inform the ways that police departments should use litigation data. Currently, law enforcement agencies’ evaluations of litigation data accommodate critiques that lawsuits both over-estimate and under-estimate the universe of harms. If, however, studies showed that outcomes in these cases closely tracked objective evaluations of liability and harm, settlements could be considered more conclusive evidence of wrongdoing. And, of course, the opposite conclusion could be reached if study revealed little correlation between outcomes and the merits of the underlying claims.

Research can also tackle these same questions as they apply to other types of organizations. Lawsuits should now be understood as potential sources of information, but how useful is that information to other complex organizations? I have offered preliminary thoughts about the value of lawsuit data to aviation and hospital performance improvement efforts. Further study can reveal the ways that these and other types of organizations actually gather and analyze information from lawsuits and the influence of their practices on our understanding of the relationship between litigation and performance improvement.

Finally, research could explore how procedural and evidentiary rules could be structured to encourage organizations to pay attention to lawsuits. Some reforms would ease the punitive effects of litigation and encourage freer discussion of error. Steps have been taken to protect quality improvement efforts from disclosure in health care and aviation. Perhaps similar efforts should be made to protect law enforcement quality improvement efforts, as well. Other possible reforms – including limits on confidentiality provisions in settlement agreements – would make it easier for plaintiffs and advocates to gather and analyze information from lawsuits, and thereby pressure departments to pay attention. Reimagining the rules of evidence and procedure to prioritize the generation of information

negatives were 1.6 times more likely than false positives); Frank A. Sloan et al, SUING FOR MEDICAL MALPRACTICE 166-68 (1993) (finding correlation between actual outcomes of cases and independent evaluations of medical liability); Mark I. Taragin et al., The Influence of Standard of Care and Severity of Injury on the Resolution of Medical Malpractice Claims, 117 ANNALS INTERNAL MED. 780 (1992) (finding that payments in unmeritorious medical malpractice cases are rare); Henry S. Farber & Michelle White, Medical Malpractice: An Empirical Examination of the Litigation Process, 22 RAND. J. ECON. 199 (1991) (finding that negligence is an “extremely important determinant of defendants’ medical malpractice liability”).

275 See supra notes 255-67 and accompanying text.

276 See Steven Suydam, Bryan A. Liang, Storm Anderson & Matthew B. Weinger, Patient Safety Data Sharing and Protection from Legal Discovery in ADVANCES IN PATIENT SAFETY: FROM RESEARCH TO IMPLEMENTATION (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality 2005) (describing existing discovery protections for patient safety efforts); Alan Levin, FAA Error-Reporting Program Reveals Hazards, Yields Fixes, USA TODAY (Apr. 5, 2010) (describing new FAA reporting program that provides immunity to reporters for all but the most serious lapses).
will likely result in perceived gains and losses for all sides. If re-imagined correctly, however, such changes could lead to overall reductions in claims and improvements in care.

This Article is one important step toward a better understanding of the relationship between lawsuits and organizational behavior. The policies used by the five departments in my study are promising and provocative ways to learn from lawsuits. And we, in turn, should learn more from and about them.