Foreign Solutions to the U.S. Pro Se Phenomenon

Tiffany Buxton

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FOREIGN SOLUTIONS TO THE U.S. PRO SE PHENOMENON

Tiffany Buxton*

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INTRODUCTION

Access to justice as an overriding theme rose to the forefront of legal scholarship in the 1960s and continues to present issues of global concern even today. The predominating concern is the effect on a nation’s perception of its judiciary when people are precluded from pursuing claims through existing judicial mechanisms simply because of factors like cost, delay, and corruption. In particular, scholars have focused in considerable detail on the prohibitive effects of cost and the means of addressing the role cost ultimately plays in determining whether a party can find adequate representation. As a result, access to justice often presents itself as synonymous with a concern regarding access to representation.

Many countries, including the United States, initially addressed this problem by providing a mechanism within the judicial system that allows a party to proceed with his claim without retaining the services of a trained attorney. The party acts as his own representative, and is often referred to as pro se, meaning a litigating party who proceeds in an action without the aid of counsel. Pro se status has also traditionally referenced as in forma pauperis, which means to proceed in the character or manner of a pauper.

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1 See generally Mauro Cappelletti, Foreword to ACCESS TO JUSTICE vii (Mauro Cappelletti & Bryant Garth, eds., Dott. A Guiffre, Editore 1978) (discussing the history of the access to justice movement).
2 Id. at vii.
While these mechanisms for accommodating the pro se litigant appear in several contrasting forms, each form ultimately seeks to provide what is often missing for the poor or impoverished sections of society – access to justice.

In the United States, the Constitution and its Sixth Amendment guarantees led immediately to a strong focus on, and increased protection of, the pro se rights of criminal defendants. To ensure that the constitutional rights of this select group remained squarely within the focus of the judiciary, courtroom procedures were modified at both the federal and state levels without concern for the time and expense that might be required to maintain these safeguards. In comparison, although civil litigation has experienced a considerable growth in the appearance of pro se parties over the last decade, protections for pro se litigants involved in civil litigation have developed very slowly. Although small claims courts were initially created to deal with traditional pro se issues at the state level, the categories of claims pressed by self-represented litigants have mushroomed from small claims and personal injuries to more serious issues, such as domestic relations issues of divorce and child custody. The recent surge in pro se litigation is not limited to the state court arena. The federal court system has witnessed its own surge in pro se plaintiffs, particularly in the areas of civil rights claims such as employment discrimination and fair housing issues. Unlike the state court system, however, the federal court system has no existing mechanism comparable to small claims court, a venue that is specifically designed to meet the needs of un-represented parties.

The prohibitive cost of obtaining counsel remains the primary reason for the increased number of litigants appearing pro se, a fact supported by the American Bar Association's report on non-lawyer activity in law-related situations.3 The report noted that no legal action was taken with regard to thirty-eight percent of the legal needs for low-income families, and twenty-six percent of the legal needs for moderate-income families.4 Twenty-four percent of the low-income families and twenty-three percent of the moderate-income families attempted to resolve the problem on their own, however, with no outside legal assistance or advice.5 Factors contributing to the problem of inadequate representation include the meager government assistance offered to people of limited means who need

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4 Id. at 35.
5 Id.
representation in a civil case. Indeed, until the 1960's, there was very little government assistance for representation in civil litigation at all.

The primary problem faced by pro se litigants is the complexity of our domestic judicial system, not only at the state level but also particularly at the federal level. Litigation, even before the trial phase, involves pleadings and motions that a layman is hard pressed to produce accurately. Studies confirm that a large number of pro se claims never reach trial solely because the pro se party fails to survive a procedural motion. As a result, the pro se litigant loses their case due to technicalities instead of a meaningful review of the merit of their claim. Yet, even in the face of the unique concerns and problems that pro se litigants face, their increasing presence before the judiciary, as well as the dismal failure rate of their claims, did not receive the same level of scrutiny as criminal pro se defendants until very recently.

While the origins of pro se representation are found in a court history of modifying the procedural rules for these parties, the current system disfavors implementing any sort of procedural flexibility that could be used at the judge’s discretion. Instead, the judiciary - at both the state and federal level - has endorsed educational programs for pro se litigants. This narrow focus on educating the layman litigant has resulted in a system that recognizes the need for access to justice through the courts yet simultaneously preempts any opportunity for a meaningful review of the pro se claims placed before it. This is largely due to the system’s rigid adherence to the procedural motions and process of traditional litigation. As a result, although the procedural mechanism of proceeding pro se technically allows a large portion of our population to proceed with their claims, the net effect of this mechanism denies those choosing to proceed pro se a truly meaningful review of their claims.

In contrast to the U.S.’s educational paradigm for handling pro se litigants, other countries have successfully combined institutional, procedural, and educational reforms to broaden the methods in which their judiciaries successfully accommodate the complex needs of the pro se party. This paper surveys the traditional problems associated with the appearance of pro se litigants and the domestic countermeasures currently in place to assist pro se parties. Specifically, Sections II and III discuss the origins of the right to proceed in litigation pro se and the current justifications for its continued use respectively. Section IV discusses the primary problems presented by pro se parties. Section V’s outlines the educational remedies sponsored by the judiciary and the limited scope of assistance these programs provide the pro se litigant.

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7 Id.
Section VI looks at comparative methods for accommodating pro se litigants, with a strong focus on institutional and procedural reform that effectuate a greater access to the courts. In particular, this section looks to England, Norway, Germany, Nigeria and Japan for alternatives that may be easily adaptable to the U.S. context. Section VII suggests that our domestic tools for handling pro se litigants are too limited and surveys the likely success of broadening the U.S. approach by considering multiple foreign approaches as possibly effective within the framework of our multi-level judiciary. These possible foreign approaches include the advent of court-sponsored petition drafting and mandatory mediation procedures. This paper argues ultimately that the pro se phenomenon would be best served by a broadening of U.S. methods beyond the purely educational approach currently utilized, to include institutional and procedural reforms for the handling of pro se litigants.

I. ORIGINS OF THE RIGHT TO PROCEED IN FORMA PAUPERIS

The American judicial system derived its roots from the common-law system of Great Britain. Thus the right to proceed as a litigant without professional representation similarly finds its beginnings in British common law. Early in the thirteenth century, the Magna Carta proclaimed, “To no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse, or delay, right or justice.” This passage is now recognized by the Supreme Court as one of the bases for the United States constitutional guarantees of due process and equal protection. Although the wording of the Magna Charta seems clear, legal relief for paupers in Great Britain was not given effect by a subsequent statutory scheme. Instead, legal relief for the indigent was largely court created, thereby making “justice” the functional equivalent of access to the courts.

The courts in Great Britain focused primarily on removing court-imposed fees that might function as financial barriers to litigants. This court-fashioned relief continued until late in the fifteenth century, when the Statute of 11 Henry VIII formally recognized paupers’ rights to the waiving of court fees and assignment of legal counsel. A subsequent Act of Parliament in 1535 buttressed the rights of pauper plaintiffs by exempting them from payment of a defendant’s court costs even where they failed to prove their cases. These broad rights, however, were strictly interpreted

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8 SIDNEY L. MOORE, JR., INSTITUTE FOR RESEARCH ON POVERTY, RELIEF OF INDIGENTS FROM FINANCIAL BARRIERS TO EQUAL JUSTICE IN AMERICAN CIVIL COURTS 1 (1971).
9 Id.
10 Id.
11 Id.
12 Id. at 1-2 (citing Statute of 11 Henry VII, 1495, 11 Hen 7, c. 12).
13 Id. at 2 (citing 23 Hen. 8, c.15 (1535)).
by the courts, resulting in stringent requirements regarding a pauper’s net
worth and requiring a professional’s voucher that the claim had merit
before access to the judicial system in forma pauperis was granted.14 These
strict regulations, combined with the fact that there was no administrative
machinery established to execute the provisions mentioned above, resulted
in a rather conservative treatment of litigants who sought to proceed in
forma pauperis.15 As a result, the use of the cost-exempt status was limited.

A. U.S. Relief at the State Level

The conservative court treatment in England provided the precedent
for the American colonies,16 most of which chose to similarly relieve the
poor litigant of court fees or costs and provide the court with the option of
assigning counsel. Most colonies effectuated pauper relief by direct
adoption of the Statutes of Henry VII and Henry VIII, as did South Carolina
in 1712.17 Other colonies enacted legislation that contained similar wording
and effect, such as New Jersey, which granted the trial court “at [its]
discretion,” the right to “issue writs and process, assign counsel and waive
the payment of costs for ‘every poor person, as shall have cause of action
against any person in this state....’”18 Finally, colonies like Georgia and
Pennsylvania effectuated the English practice regarding in forma pauperis
litigants by their general adoption of the common law.19

Of the original colonies, only Connecticut and Delaware made no
provision for poor plaintiffs or defendants,20 contrary to the majority trend
toward equal court treatment for all. Unlike Connecticut and Delaware,
most of the new states or territories arising from the westward expansion
followed the majority trend. As a result, by the late 1800’s, twenty or more
states and territories provided some measure of relief for the pauper
litigant.21 These provisions generally waived or modified the court’s
traditional financial processes, so that an individual’s financial status did
not function as a bar to any claim.

The English precedent, however, was not controlling upon the
colonies. Consequently, most colonies could have refused to adopt the
English practice of in forma pauperis, choosing instead to strictly enforce
the already existing statutes that generally imposed costs and fees upon

14 Id.
15 See id. at 2, 3.
16 Id. at 3.
17 Id. at 3, 4 (citing 1712 S.C. Acts 321; 1837 S.C. Stats. at Large 456-62).
18 Id. at 3 (citing 1800 N.J. Laws 339).
19 Id. at 4.
20 Id. at 7.
21 See id.
As a result, the creation in the United States of paupers' rights has also been attributed alternately to the doctrines of fairness and just treatment. These doctrines rely on the general theory that financial status should not have a substantial impact on the outcome of litigation. In one of its early decisions, the Texas Supreme Court formalized these notions when it stated: "'[N]o man should be prevented from prosecuting a suit, seeking redress for an outrage upon his person, on the ground of his poverty.'" These doctrines, however, highlight one of the major faults of the English common law practice and early American efforts to imitate it: namely that the *in forma pauperis* provisions generally applied only to plaintiffs, excluding those who might have been called as defendants.

Although the pauper defendant was not traditionally affected by filing fees, services costs, and securing of judgments (since these costs were generally imposed on the plaintiff), his need for adequate representation faced a similar limitation - his financial inability to retain counsel. Although the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendment guarantees of "due process" were generally construed to protect a defendant's right to notice and opportunity to be heard, the impact of court-imposed financial obligations on a pauper's rights to due process was not considered until 1897. In *Hovey v. Elliott*, the United States Supreme Court determined that denial of a hearing for a defendant's failure to pay court-imposed costs during a civil suit violated the defendant's right to due process. Subsequent Supreme Court cases clarified the scope of this right by declaring that due process is violated only when a defendant is unable to pay and not when a defendant refuses or merely fails to pay court-required costs. In the end, these decisions placed the constitutional right to defend in a civil case and a criminal case on an equal footing, formally extending pauper's rights to defendants as well as plaintiffs through the due process guarantee of the Constitution.

**B. U.S. Relief at the Federal Level**

At the federal level, the right to proceed as a self-represented litigant in a civil case first presented itself in the Judiciary Act of 1789. Congress

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22 *See id.* at 8.
23 *See id.* at 8-9.
24 *Id.* at 9 (citing *Hickey v. Rhine*, 16 Tex. 577 (1856)).
25 *Id.* at 13.
26 *Id.*
27 *Id.* at 13, 14.
28 167 U.S. 409 (1897).
29 *See Moore, supra* note 8, at 15.
30 *Id.*
31 Judiciary Act of 1789, ch. 20, §§35, 1 Stat. 73, 92 (1789).
enacted a revised version of this Act in 1948, granting parties the right to "plead and conduct their own case personally" in any court of the United States. Because the self-represented litigant is often an impoverished party as well, Congress codified the right to proceed in forma pauperis at the same time. Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1915, enacted in 1948, "any court of the United States" has the discretion to authorize the commencement, prosecution or defense of any civil or criminal action or proceeding without prepayment of fees or security, provided that the party seeking to proceed in forma pauperis submits a personal affidavit that includes a statement of all assets and a statement specifically indicating that the party is unable to pay the required fees. The code contains no specific requirements for a party to meet in order to be considered indigent. Affidavits following the language of § 1915, however, should ordinarily be accepted for trial purposes where: the party personally makes the statement; there is no question of misrepresentation; and the affidavit states the affiant’s poverty with some particularity, definiteness, and certainty. It is important to note that financial standing is the sole characteristic upon which the leave to proceed in forma pauperis is measured; the merit of the claim bears no impact on the determination.

Section 1915 also grants the court the right to "request" an attorney represent any person unable to afford counsel and provides that court officers shall issue and serve process where required. Finally, in accordance with its overall purpose of providing access to justice and preventing discrimination against the impoverished applicants, the statute reminds the court that its officers shall perform all their duties, thereby ensuring that "the same remedies shall be available as are provided by law in other cases." In sum, the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries’ progress towards pauper’s rights was achieved primarily by the passage of legislation establishing in forma pauperis procedures. In comparison, the last 100

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36 Jefferson v. United States, 277 F.2d 723 (9th Cir. 1960). Note also that a showing of complete destitution is not required to support an application for leave to proceed in forma pauperis. Adkins, 335 U.S. at 339; in re Smith, 600 F.2d 714, 716 (8th Cir. 1979); Ward v. Werner, 61 F.R.D. 639, 640 (M.D. Pa. 1974).
37 See Ragan v. Cox, 305 F.2d 58, 60 (10th Cir. 1962).
39 Id. at § 1915(d).
40 Id.
41 Moore, supra note 8, at 57.
years shows that relief at the state level for an impoverished litigant emanated primarily from the courts’ waiver of its mandatory fees and costs. Federal rights similar to those found at the state level were codified in the mid-twentieth century. Although the rationales behind the rights to press suit pro se or in forma pauperis may differ, ranging from common law practice to due process to equity principles, they are bound together by the courts’ attempt to reach the fairest result for the litigant under the circumstances.42

II. CURRENT JUSTIFICATIONS FOR THE PRO SE RULE

Traditionally, the high cost of litigation, with regard to both finances and time, comprised the primary barrier that excluded private parties in lower income brackets from participating in the judicial process. The focus on cost as the prohibitive factor is best evidenced by the origins of the in forma pauperis provisions in the waiver of prepayment of court-imposed fees and costs. Although access to the courts was a prevalent concern in the past, a family in the low or moderate-income ranges often faced very few problems that required legal intervention. Thus, these families had less need for access to the legal system. This disparity of need justified the courts’ more strict interpretation of in forma pauperis status. In today’s world, however, even the judiciary recognizes that most people will need the courts at some point in order to accomplish the ordinary things in life, including family issues such as adoption and divorce or personal issues such as civil damages and disputes.43

Largely because of the technological and financial innovations of the last sixty years, legal services have become more of a necessity and less of a luxury when compared to the past. It has become apparent that our increasingly mobile society, where even familial relations are more transitory, has become less dependent on neighborhood relations and community trust and resorts much more to the legal system for resolution of conflicts than in previous decades.44 Yet, the cost of legal services remains, even today, so prohibitive that even the middle class cannot afford to retain counsel for the smallest legal matters.45

A recent report by the ABA Commission on Non-Lawyer Activity in Law Related Services indicated that “there are currently insufficient sources of affordable legal help for all low- and moderate-income persons,” citing

42 Id.
45 Id. at 10.
nation ally unmet needs for legal help in nineteen million cases. This may
seem like a small number of cases, yet it is all the more alarming because
the low and moderate-income group is so large. Further, assistance from
legal services programs has become a scarce resource, largely due to the
dramatic reductions in government funding. Even where government
subsidies exist, it is often difficult, if not impossible, for these programs to
provide equal protection to the financially disadvantaged, again due to the
high cost of litigation. The net result, then, of imposing the financial
burdens of litigation upon low-income persons is to deny those litigants the
ability to obtain a remedy or present a defense.

This lack of access to justice through the traditional attorney-client
relationship has become the critical motivating factor, especially in civil
cases, for the recent surge in the number of pro se litigants. The American
Bar Association’s Comprehensive Legal Needs Study reported that fewer
than three in ten of the legal problems of low-income households were
brought to the justice system. Moderate-income households suffered at a
similar rate, bringing only four in ten of their legal problems to the courts.
Significantly, the study also found that “in seventy-nine percent of the low-
income households having legal problems, no lawyer was involved.”
A study by the Federal Judicial Center of ten U.S. district courts found that
non-prisoner pro se cases constituted thirty-seven percent of all cases filed
over the course of a three-year period. Data from the Administrative
Office of the U.S. Courts shows the number of pro se litigants in federal
appeals courts increased by forty-nine percent within two years.

A recent statistical analysis of non-prisoner pro se litigation at the
district court level in the Northern District of California discovered 683
actions that involved at least one pro se party over a time frame of one
year. Of the 227 cases analyzed from the sample, seventy percent of the

46 Id. at 11.
47 Id.
48 Helen B. Kim, Legal Education for the Pro Se Litigant: A Step Towards a Meaningful
49 Nuffer, supra note 44, at 13.
50 Moore, supra note 8, at 74.
51 Margaret Martin Barry, Accessing Justice: Are Pro Se Clinics a Reasonable Response
to the Lack of Pro Bono Legal Services and Should Law School Clinics Conduct Them?, 67
52 Id.
53 Id. at 1884 (emphasis added).
54 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 14 (studying the time frame from 1991 to 1994).
55 Id. ( studying the time frame from 1991 to 1993).
56 Spencer G. Park, Providing Equal Access to Equal Justice: A Statistical Study of Non-
Prisoner Pro Se Litigation in the United States District Court for the Northern District of
parties never applied for leave to proceed in forma pauperis under 28 U.S.C. § 1915. Although one explanation may be the lack of information regarding the in forma pauperis application, the low application rate could also be the result of the traditionally stringent standards created by the courts for attaining indigent status under 28 U.S.C. § 1915. Further, this surge in pro se litigation crosses not only regional boundaries, but boundaries that might be imposed by types of claims. For example, in 1994, thirty percent of the general civil actions filed in Chicago with damages worth less than $10,000 were filed pro se. One year later, twenty-five percent of all new civil suits were filed pro se.

Recent cases demonstrate how the courts' restrictions on the indigent status required to petition for court-appointed counsel may make the pro se status more attractive to lower income parties. This is because restrictive court interpretations generally refuse to grant in forma pauperis status to plaintiffs with enough assets to be sold to raise required court fees. For instance, in a California case, a plaintiff was permitted to proceed in forma pauperis where he was employed on a part-time basis; had no money in his private checking and saving accounts; owned no real estate, automobiles, or property of value; and had debts totaling three thousand dollars. This treatment is representative of judicial determinations across the circuits.


57 Id. at 823, 824.
58 Id. at 830.
59 28 U.S.C. § 1915(a)(1)(b) (providing any court of the United States with the ability to authorize "commencement, prosecution or defense of any suit, action or proceeding - civil or criminal - or appeal without prepayment of fees or security therefore by a person who submits an affidavit that includes a statement of all assets, that the person is unable to pay, and states the nature of the action, defense or appeal, and the affiant's belief that the person is entitled to redress.") (emphasis added). [See footnotes 63 and 64 for a sampling of case precedent interpreting this provision.]
61 Id.
63 See In re Broady, 96 B.R. 221, 223 (Bankr. W.D. Mo. 1998) (debtor did not establish poverty where she had a monthly income of $495, but had detailed monthly expenses of $448, food stamps may have diluted his enumerated monthly grocery expenses and she owned unencumbered vehicles with a value of at least $1500); c.f. Potnick v. Eastern State Hospital, 701 F.2d 243, 244 (2d Cir. 1983) (plaintiff with monthly income of $181 in welfare benefits, $41 in food stamps, checking account balance of less than $60 and an automobile on which he owed $3,600 as well as other debts totaling $10,000 met the pauper status under 28 U.S.C. § 1915); Mertz v. United States Custom Serv., 746 F. Supp. 1107, 1108 (Ct. Int’l. Trade 1990) (litigant did not demonstrate degree of poverty required for in
which show that it is not unusual for courts to deny *in forma pauperis* status to a party who can raise the required funds by offloading valuable assets.\(^\text{64}\)

The ability to dispose of assets in order to fund litigation costs, however, should be balanced against the primary legal concerns that demonstrate the surge in *pro se* participation—divorce, child custody, paternity, landlord-tenant, fair housing, and employment discrimination. These areas represent a large group of our population who may be unwilling or unable to part with assets such as homes or automobiles as a prerequisite to having their claims heard. As a result, these families view the time and filing costs associated with proceeding *pro se* as minimal inconvenience when compared to proceeding *in forma pauperis*.

III. PRIMARY PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE *PRO SE* LITIGANT

A. Judicial Detriments: Efficiency and Neutrality

*Pro se* litigants are most often attacked for the judicial inefficiencies many judges, attorneys, and observers believe they create. *Pro se* litigants are more likely to neglect time limits, miss court deadlines, and have problems understanding and applying the procedural and substantive law pertaining to their claim.\(^\text{65}\) Although *pro se* pleadings are viewed with tolerance, a *pro se* litigant is generally held to the same standard of conduct and compliance with court rules, procedures, and orders as are members of the bar.\(^\text{66}\)

When a *pro se* case succeeds in reaching trial on the merits, the process is often complicated by the *pro se* party’s unfamiliarity with evidentiary rules, which many judges have noted often leads to a failure to meet the burden of proof and “an embittered *pro se* litigant.”\(^\text{67}\) These same judges also noted that a *pro se* litigant’s lack of knowledge of legal

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\(^\text{64}\) See Failor v. Califano, 79 FRD 12, 13 (1978) (although plaintiff had low monthly income, plaintiff has asset of home that was too substantial to grant proceeding in *forma pauperis* in light of minimal costs of litigation).

\(^\text{65}\) Park, *supra* note 56, at 821.

\(^\text{66}\) Newsome v. Farer, 708 P.2d 327, 331 (N.M. 1985). See also DAVID G. KNIBB, *FEDERAL COURT OF APPEALS MANUAL: A MANUAL ON PRACTICE IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS OF APPEALS* §24.2, at 437 (4th ed. 2000) (specifying that all *pro se* parties are “required to comply with all relevant rules of procedure and substantive law”) (emphasis added).

terminology and trial tactics typically results in the opposing attorney "taking control" of the process, as well as additional time spent by the judge explaining the terms and their import to the pro se litigant. Represented parties may also bear greater burdens, such as procedural delays, increased court time, and the costs associated with it when pro se parties are involved.

Finally, the needs of a pro se party present a significant threat to the notion of a neutral, third party adjudicator that governs our judicial system. Judges bear the responsibility of acting to prevent an injustice arising solely from procedural errors that substantially impinge upon the substantive legal rights of any party. These prevention tactics range from teaching courtroom procedures and conducting research for the parties to dealing with the emotions that can arise in both the pro se litigant and the professional attorney. The net result is that judges are often faced with the delicate task of balancing fairness and equal treatment for the pro se litigant against the practical fact that the substance of the complaint may have been couched in the wrong terms. The court itself then takes on the role of litigating the claim on behalf of the pro se party, bearing the burdens of litigation through the costs and time incurred and, perhaps more importantly, threatening the court's neutrality. This neutrality is perhaps most burdened by the sort of proactive judicial assistance many pro se litigants expect the court to exhibit.

B. Party Detriments: Insufficient Knowledge and Waiver of Rights

The costs or detriment incurred by the pro se litigant equal, if not outweigh, the costs incurred by or detriment to the judiciary and its impartiality. One obvious concern is that pro se litigants are denied the knowledge and advice of experienced trial lawyers. Their inability to seek this professional advice contributes to the filing of frivolous or meritless claims, which in turn affects the players in the judicial system and their perception of pro se litigants. Such claims may also lead to case law precedent that makes the pursuit of claims even more difficult for subsequent pro se litigants.

68 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 18.
69 J. Kane, supra note 67, at 16.
71 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 18.
72 KNIBB, supra note 66, at 438.
74 See id. at 22.
In the California study mentioned earlier, fifty-six percent of the pro se claims were unable to survive a preliminary motion to dismiss. Pro se claims also frequently fall in the face of summary judgment motions. These results can be attributed primarily to the complexity of the procedural format and substantive laws the judicial process requires. The pro se litigants' lack of familiarity with means of research, terminology, and pleading forms renders the system virtually unintelligible at times. Consequently, the legal system becomes incomprehensible to its users and is no longer a serviceable means of seeking redress.

Another reason the burdens on pro se parties may outweigh the burden on the judiciary is that the inefficiency feared by critics of pro se litigation may actually be less burdensome than it appears. The fact that the claims of most pro se litigants fail early in the proceedings shortens the actual time spent, so that the perceived delay or inefficiencies these claims may cause the judiciary does not often exist. Because a motion to dismiss or summary judgment motion may preclude a plaintiff from pressing his claim a second time, the nature of such motions work in combination with a pro se party's costs in time away from work and effort to generally preclude the pro se litigant from pursuing his claim, even where permissible. As a result, the plaintiff thus bears an even greater detriment.

The pro se litigant may also fall victim to the judge's reluctance to act in a manner that casts doubt on his impartiality. Many cases involving unrepresented parties settle, usually under pressure from the court. Indeed, the pro se survey of San Francisco's Northern District Court showed a surprisingly high rate of settlement at just over fifteen percent of the sample. These settlements receive a cursory inquiry from the judge and are rarely undone when subsequently challenged. Perhaps more alarming, these settlement agreements routinely involve the waiver of significant rights by pro se parties. Even where cases do not settle, un-represented parties still routinely forfeit important rights due to the absence of counsel.

76 Park, supra note 56, at 835.
77 Nuffer, supra note 44, at 10.
78 See Park, supra note 56, at 836, 837, whose study noted that the average non-prisoner pro se action lasts approximately only six months from the date of filing to termination, requires in general only twenty entries to the docket, and results in an appeal approximately eleven percent of the time.
80 Park, supra note 56, at 823.
82 Id. at 1989.
83 Id.
Finally, despite the extensive time and effort already expended by court clerks and even judges in assisting *pro se* litigants, the self-represented party must be viewed as having made choices about his or her claim based on limited information and advice. This especially is the case when one considers the advice rarely, if ever, continues through the course of the proceedings. The net result is the typical *pro se* litigant is treated as having received trained and expert counseling regarding the existence and merits of his or her potential claims when in fact he or she has not. Consequently, in light of such limited knowledge about both the substance and process of pressing a claim, *pro se* litigants incur a greater amount of self-inflicted damage than the amount of inefficiency pressed upon the courts that handle their claims.

IV. JUDICIAL COUNTERMEASURES TO THE *PRO SE* PHENOMENON

As in the past, many of the changes in today’s handling of *pro se* litigants originate within the judiciary. Judges are perhaps more willing to change than other segments of the legal system because they are not only privy to the unique problems *pro se* litigants experience but also benefit directly in terms of time and responsibility from any attempts to cure the inefficiencies and threats to the court’s neutrality. Demands on staff to explain procedures played a key role in making legal process and substantive counseling available to *pro se* litigants. The essential need for docket control, however, leaves judges and their staff with little incentive to spend substantial amounts of time and resources educating and protecting un-represented litigants. Regardless of the motivating factors, however, programs have been created to make the *pro se* litigant’s journey easier.

The roots of the *pro se* movement are embedded in precedent set by courts that perceived a need for procedural flexibility when dealing with financially impaired litigants. Today’s courts, however, are less willing to cede the procedural integrity of the judicial process to the greater sense of participatory justice that is achieved by the few successful *pro se* litigants. Although the Supreme Court has guaranteed *pro se* litigants the right to have courts liberally construe their pleadings, the Court limited the ruling to the construction of pleadings. This limitation, however, is read differently by each court in terms of how liberally, and to which pleadings the rule applies. This results in inconsistent treatment of *pro se* litigants in

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84 *Id.* at 1998.
85 *Id.* at 2002.
the lower courts. For example, some courts rely upon the Supreme Court’s rationale in *Haines v. Kerner* to fashion a relaxed set of *pro se* standards for procedural conformity, particularly when dealing with summary judgment proceedings, compliance with discovery rules, the imposition of sanctions, and the introduction of evidence. A greater number of courts, however, take a more traditional approach and extend this sort of pleading leniency only to the substantive issues raised, while continuing to strictly enforce compliance with procedural requirements by *pro se* litigants.

As a result of this emphasis on strict procedural compliance, the focus of judicial efforts along *pro se* lines has been on sponsoring a variety of approaches that attempt to educate *pro se* litigants in order to provide access to justice through the courts. In theory, educating *pro se* parties about how the system works also ensures that procedural conformity is not sacrificed due to the court’s desire to provide the *pro se* litigant with a fair and just trial. A national conference held in November of 1999 signaled the rising importance of the *pro se* litigant, as forty-nine states sent teams of judges, bar leaders and administrators to discuss ways of making the court system more accessible to *pro se* litigants. In addition, a survey of judges and court managers conducted by the American Judicature Society and the Justice Management Institute showed that forty-five percent of the responding court administrators indicated their jurisdictions have established some sort of *pro se* assistance program or service. In an unusual move, the New York State Family Court adopted new rules in June of 1997 that expanded public access to proceedings by opening them to the media. The court did so with the express goal of informally educating future participants about the family court format and procedures.

While the *pro se* programs take a variety of forms, these programs consistently represent the desire of the judiciary to educate the *pro se* litigant about the process of proceeding with a suit, as opposed to evaluating the processes themselves. This section explores common

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89 See id. at 671-72.

90 404 U.S. at 520-21 (finding plaintiff prisoner’s *pro se* complaint sufficient enough to call for the opportunity to offer supporting evidence, even though it was inartfully pleaded).

91 J. Kane, supra note 67, at 15.

92 See KNIBB, supra note 66, §24.2, at 438 (stating that “[a] court will search for the substance in a pro se appellant’s mislabeled papers or statements couched in the wrong terminology. If it finds that substance, it may excuse a failure of literal compliance”) (emphasis added).

93 Deborah M. Tate, *If We Build It Will They Come?*, R.I. B.J., Feb. 2000, at 3, 3.


95 Barry, supra note 51, at 1910.

96 Id.
programs adopted to deal with the problems presented by pro se litigants and the degree of success these types of programs have achieved.

A. **Generic Information and Form Pleadings**

Many jurisdictions rely on this general form of assistance to pro se litigants because it is traditionally low in cost to maintain. Efforts in this area vary across the board, ranging from the provision of instructional brochures, to offering kits containing instruction sheets and court forms, to videotaped programs.\(^7\) Informational offices, such as the Denver District Court’s Information and Referral Office, often make these materials available in a bilingual format and offer basic paralegal assistance from its staff in completing the forms when necessary.\(^8\) In comparison, the Self-Help Center founded by the family courts of Ventura, California, does not provide advice to pro se litigants, instead limiting its activities to providing general information on self-representation.\(^9\) The Center does, however, employ a document examiner who reviews documents for the public and ensures that they comply with local court rules before a judge receives them.\(^10\)

1. **Automated Methods**

In 1993, the Arizona Supreme Court implemented an automated form of the general help desk called QuickCourt in order to provide information on a variety of court procedures to individuals seeking assistance.\(^10\) Statewide, twenty-eight kiosks containing touch-screen computer systems use text and graphics to communicate step-by-step instructions to potential pro se litigants.\(^10\) Instructions are available in English or Spanish on case types such as small claims, enforcement of child support judgments, landlord-tenant rights, and alternative dispute resolution.\(^10\) The system also provides information on legal aid agencies within the state.\(^10\) QuickCourt also provides an overview of the Arizona court system,\(^10\) which aids those who eventually end up in the courtroom. QuickCourt is remarkable because it also can produce complete legal documents that are


\(^{8}\) *Id.*

\(^{9}\) Barry, *supra* note 51, at 1905.

\(^{10}\) *Id.*

\(^{10}\) *Id.* at 1893. *See also* Goldschmidt, *supra* note 43, at 20-21.

\(^{10}\) *See* Barry, *supra* note 51, at 1893, 1894.

\(^{10}\) *Id.*

\(^{10}\) *Id.*

\(^{10}\) *Id.* at 1894.
acceptable for use in Arizona court proceedings. Although some services provided by QuickCourt require the assessment of a small fee, the system has completed over 24,000 transactions to date and has significantly reduced the demand for assistance from court staff. Recently, the state courts of Utah and Colorado also implemented a similar kiosk system.

Arizona’s Maricopa County Superior Court took the automated self-help concept one step further in 1995 when it launched its Self-Service Center. Like Denver District Court’s Information and Referral Office, the Self-Service Center familiarizes litigants with procedures by distributing simply written court-approved forms, samples, and instructions. Personalized assistance is also available onsite from pro bono attorneys. Unlike Denver’s system, however, the program is available in two locations and is open to litigants twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week, via its multilevel approach. In addition to the characteristics described above, Maricopa County’s Self-Service Center features a website that contains court forms and instructions, an automated telephone information system, and a computer bulletin board that provides pro se parties with the names of mediators and attorneys who will provide unbundled legal services. As a result, approximately four hundred people per day use the Center to access information. Visitors to the Center may also receive referral information on community service providers, volunteer attorneys and alternative dispute resolution experts who are willing to give pro se parties brief advice on court procedures.

Some courts, like Florida’s Supreme Court, are beginning to follow Arizona’s lead in providing internet-based services. As part of its access initiative, the Florida Supreme Court maintains an Internet Self-Help Center that offers a large number of books, brochures, and forms explaining state

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106 Id.
108 Barry, supra note 51, at 1894.
111 Barry, supra note 51, at 1892.
112 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 22.
113 Barry, supra note 51, at 1893.
114 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 21-22. Goldschmidt defines the unbundling of legal services as assistance with discrete tasks, such as petition drafting or consultation only, provided at a more modest fee than usual. Id.
115 Barry, supra note 51, at 1892-93.
116 Id. at 1893.
law and provides step-by-step instructions for pro se litigants. The next phase of the project will involve implementing an interactive software program that will help pro se litigants fill out legal forms and file them online with the clerk’s office.

2. Dedicated Staff

California and Minnesota offer examples of states implementing similar plans to disseminate generic information through the use of dedicated staff. Since 1997, each California state court employs an attorney as a Family Law Facilitator who assists litigants with the preparation of court documents and supplies information on courtroom procedures. Although some Facilitators also meet with litigants to mediate issues like spousal or child support, the pro se litigants are required to sign a disclosure indicating they understand the Facilitator is not acting in a representative capacity. The King County Superior Court of Seattle, Washington, offers a similar service at two locations. Approximately thirty to fifty pro se litigants are assisted every day. Minnesota’s Hennepin County District Court’s Self-Help Center already offers generic information and trained staff to assist in preparing court documents. Based on the success of the staff in helping pro se parties produce appropriate court documents, the Hennepin County District Court plans to implement a family court facilitator project similar to that in California to supply the missing procedural element. Family Court Facilitators “will provide on-site, non-legal family law procedural assistance to un-represented parties in family law cases, with a particular focus on post-decree motions.”

The success of these general forms of assistance is likely to continue since it provides an un-represented party with a more sure-footed approach to commencing litigation. Because these types of programs are cost-efficient and require low maintenance, these self-help devices are likely to be the first option for courts facing increased numbers of pro se litigants.

B. Pro Se Clinics

While some jurisdictions employ special law clerks or paralegals to provide pro se litigants substantive counseling before their claims are

117 Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 90.
118 Id.
119 Barry, supra note 51, at 1904.
120 Id. at 1904-05.
121 See Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 102-03.
122 Id. at 103.
filed, this type of assistance often becomes too costly to maintain. Aside from the general help desk, the second most common educational tool is the pro se clinic. This assistance also takes many different forms, but it traditionally involves programs or sessions led by pro bono attorneys, law students, paralegals, or court staff, for the purpose of offering instruction to un-represented litigants on court procedures and forms. This type of clinic usually focuses on specific case types. It is essentially the equivalent of a one-day teaching session similar to those sponsored by the Bureau of Motor Vehicles. Clinics may have a variety of sponsors, including the local court system or bar association members, which assists the clinic in drawing the appropriate experts in the field to lead the training sessions.

1. Court-sponsored Clinics

a. Issue-Specific Educational Sessions

The courts in Ventura, California, sponsor the Family Law Pro Per Clinic, which conducts weekly clinics for up to 75 litigants, often as evening sessions. Within a period of six months, the Pro Per Clinic serviced more than seventeen hundred pro se litigants. The Clinic session begins with a mandatory orientation for all participants to explain how the family court works, what forms need to be prepared, what to do when the court calls a party's case, and what happens as a case proceeds through the system. An overhead-aided presentation follows orientation, giving participants the appropriate instructions for filling out forms pertinent to the evening's topic. After the group completes the general information session, the pro se parties who do not exhibit a need for individual assistance are directed to self-help binders and given further assistance if requested. Non-English speaking or bilingual supplicants are given individualized assistance. All assistance originates from volunteer attorneys, law students and paralegals practicing within the

124 Bradlow, supra note 88, at 674.
125 Barry, supra note 51, at 1892.
127 Id.
128 Id.
129 See Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 82.
130 Id. at 81.
131 Id.
132 Id. at 82.
133 See id. at 81.
parameters of family law. Before the parties leave the clinic, a filing clerk examines the pleadings for completeness and then files them for the litigant that evening, eliminating the pro se’s need to return to the court the following day.

b. Bazaar-Style Information Sessions

New Mexico’s District Court in the Eleventh Judicial District also opened a pro se clinic in January of 1998. In comparison to Ventura’s Family Law Pro Per Clinic, this clinic offers a wider range of services available to any litigant before the court. Booths specializing in a variety of legal issues are set up in the courthouse three evenings a week. The clerk’s office booth provides court-approved forms and procedural information on filing documents, in addition to extending filing hours during the clinic to accommodate the pro se parties who wish to file their claims. Notably, the clinic also incorporates other county offices that are essential to most pro se issues such as the Sheriff’s Office, which assists parties in effecting service, and the County Clerk’s Office, which instructs litigants on how to transfer property. This program thus makes a greater attempt, than programs such as Ventura’s Family Law Clinic, to provide pro se litigants with all the tools they may need to participate successfully in the court system.

2. Bar-sponsored Clinics

a. Single-issue Educational Sessions

In Florida, a group composed of legal services offices, bar associations, and private attorneys worked together to form pro se dissolution clinics that now operate out of the Legal Aid and Legal Service Offices in six Florida counties. All instructors are either private or legal aid attorneys and each clinic is designed to instruct the participants on how to proceed in a simplified dissolution case. While the number and length of the sessions varies throughout each county, the average session runs two to three hours in length and is held monthly or bimonthly. In comparison

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134 Id. at 82.
135 Id.
136 Barry, supra note 51, at 1908.
137 Id.
138 Id. at 1908-09.
139 Id. at 1909.
140 Id. at 1894, 1895.
141 Id. at 1895.
142 Id. at 1896.
to the California and New Mexico programs, the local courts in Florida have little to no contact with the clinic operations other than the provision of forms.\footnote{143}

b. Advisory Hotlines

Clinics may also take on the non-traditional form of a hotline, as does Maryland’s Family Law Clinic. Founded by the Women’s Law Center and the State Bar Association, the hotline provides free legal information to Maryland residents who meet income eligibility guidelines and are seeking assistance with family law issues.\footnote{144} Local attorneys provide legal advice to callers from across the state, referring them to social service programs, publications or a lawyer referral service when appropriate.\footnote{145} The Women’s Law Center also operates a Legal Forms Helpline, which may be accessed by any \textit{pro se} litigant without having to meet income eligibility guidelines.\footnote{146} Because the second helpline responds to a high demand for procedural advice, it operates fifteen-and-a-half hours a week, four days a week, assisting three thousand callers annually.\footnote{147}

3. School-sponsored Clinics

a. Student Staffers for On-going Programs

Students are not allowed to give advice through the Women’s Law Center clinic programs; however, Maryland’s Legal Aid Bureau operates a \textit{pro se} divorce project staffed entirely by law students from the University of Baltimore and the University of Maryland law school clinics.\footnote{148} This program originated in 1996 at the request of the Maryland Court of Appeals.\footnote{149} Students from the schools meet with clients in their respective districts, helping them to identify their claims, explaining basic court procedures and making referrals when necessary to pro bono or private attorneys.\footnote{150} Given its success in assisting the Baltimore City Circuit courts with a more efficient handling of pending divorce suits, the project serves as a model for the provision of unbundled legal services.\footnote{151}

\begin{footnotes}
\item[143] Id.
\item[144] Id. at 1901.
\item[145] Id. at 1901-02.
\item[146] Id. at 1902.
\item[147] Id.
\item[148] Id. at 1903, 1904.
\item[149] Id. at 1903-04.
\item[150] Id. at 1904.
\item[151] Id. See Kane, \textit{supra} note 67 (defining unbundled legal services as the provision of services in a piecemeal or disconnected fashion in order to best meet the needs of the client).\
\end{footnotes}
b. In-house Student Services

Finally, law schools themselves often incorporate pro bono clinics into their curricula, where students work with impoverished litigants from the local community under the guidance of skilled attorneys and professors. Although these clinics work to address the lack of access to justice, their means and staff are often limited in the number of litigants they can assist. Some projects, such as the Family and the Law Clinic at the Columbus School of Law in the District of Columbia, recognize this problem and have also begun to offer self-help clinics on family law issues such as dissolution on a limited basis, very similar to those sponsored by the courts. Students from the school teach the program sessions under the guidance of seasoned attorneys who practice in the area of family law.

C. Additional Internet-based Services

As previously mentioned, self-help centers like the one in Arizona’s Maricopa County Courts are beginning to recognize the appeal of the ever-present website and Internet technology as another communication tier in which to distribute materials. Pro se litigants, however, are also establishing their own organizations on the world-wide-web. While some sites are oriented for a wider audience, such as the one maintained by the American Pro Se Association, other sites are state specific, such as the one maintained by Texas’s “Utopia Foundation,” which contains material from Texas law governing domestic relations cases and its own creed for the pro se litigant. Commercial sites offer everything from video libraries on self-litigation, to document services, to legal software ready for home use. Finally, law schools like the University of Maryland School of Law are using the Internet to assist pro se litigants with court forms and other information through their clinic programs.

V. COMPARATIVE METHODS OF ACCOMMODATING PRO SE LITIGANTS

As demonstrated previously, domestic attempts to address the unique system-oriented issues presented by pro se litigants focus primarily on educating the self-represented party about the procedural workings of our judicial system. In comparison, international efforts to address similar self-representation problems follow two primary patterns. Both patterns

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152 See id. at 1912, 1920-21.
153 See id. at 1914.
154 See discussion supra Section III(a).
155 Goldschmidt, supra note 43, at 15.
156 Id.
157 Id.
158 See Nuffer, supra note 44, at 12.
demonstrate a far greater willingness to re-evaluate judicial processes prior to implementing a remedy. The first approach utilizes institutional reforms such as the creation of new adjudicating fora and court officers as a means of effectuating procedural changes for pro se party actions, while the second approach relies upon effectuating procedural changes within the existing judicial systems. This section discusses several unique approaches from the international arena that utilize either institutional or procedural reforms to address the concerns presented by pro se litigants, as well as the degree of success these types of programs have achieved.

A. Institutional Reforms that Implicate Procedural Elements

1. England’s Tribunal System

A private person in England holds the constitutional right of proceeding within the courts as a pro se party. Litigation, however, has remained inconvenient, slow, and expensive since the late 1800’s, with cost being the overriding prohibitive factor. Private tribunals were fashioned as early as the 1880s by local chambers of commerce to serve as a local forum for dispute adjudication in order to address England’s growing business needs. The private tribunals, however, did little to help a poor person, who was further precluded from pursuing a claim by a decision to make the in forma pauperis procedure unavailable to those using the county courts or magistrate courts.

After World War II, the large expansion of governmental activities and responsibilities in England spurred the formal development of a tribunal system. The tribunal system was eventually codified within the Tribunals and Inquiries Act of 1957. An official report conducted by the Committee on Administrative Tribunals and Inquiries preceded the Tribunals Act and addressed each of the issues commonly faced by pro se


160 BRIAN ABEL-SMITH & ROBERT STEVENS, IN SEARCH OF JUSTICE 23 (1968). See also Paul Michalik, Justice in Crisis: England and Wales, in CIVIL JUSTICE IN CRISIS: COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVES OF CIVIL PROCEDURE, supra note 6, at 117, 142, 143 (Adrian A.S. Zuckerman ed., 1999) (stating that more than a year passes in even the fastest county courts; average mean time in a higher court is close to three years).

161 Jacob, supra note 157, at 442.

162 ABEL-SMITH & STEVENS, supra note 158, at 23.

163 Id. at 27.

164 Jacob, supra note 157, at 456.

165 Id.
or lower-income litigants. 166 Specifically, it recommended that each tribunal have its own code of procedure with the characteristics of these procedures being (1) inexpensive costs, (2) accessibility, and (3) freeing the tribunal chairmen from having to maintain a detailed technical and expert knowledge of the claims presented. 167 The Act gave the administrative tribunals a great number of functions that would formerly have been entrusted to the courts, 168 and achieved a breadth of responsibility that was aided by the subsequent reorganization of the social services in England. 169 Today’s tribunals govern areas ranging from national insurance and industrial injuries to matters concerning rent and divorce. 170

The tribunal system has since become “an essential feature of the English judicial process,” with approximately 2000 tribunals providing vast numbers of lower-income people with access to justice that otherwise would remain unavailable. 171 Although the tribunals cover a broad variety of subjects, the system’s outstanding feature has been its accessibility, 172 which is often achieved by its informality. The tribunal members make every effort to be less formidable than their more formal judicial counterparts. 173 Adjudicating members do not wear robes 174 and, in most cases, the witnesses do not take oaths and are not generally bound by strict rules of evidence. 175

The tribunals are subject to the supervisory jurisdiction of the courts. 176 The opportunity for judicial review not only provides the courts with a way to control the application and development of points of law but also provides the tribunal users with a means of making an appeal when necessary. The supervisory role the courts play also works to ensure that litigants, who opt to use the tribunal system, whether due to cost or the appeal of its informality, are not penalized from pursuing their claims solely because of their choice.

166 Id.
167 Id.
168 Abel-Smith & Stevens, supra note 158, at 34.
169 Id.
170 Id.
171 Jacob, supra note 157, at 457.
172 Id.
173 Id.
174 Id.
175 Id.
176 Id.
2. Norway’s Mandatory Pre-Trial Conciliation

In Norway’s judicial system, all civil litigants must submit their disputes to a mandatory mediation process before they can pursue their claims in the county or city court systems.\textsuperscript{177} There are very few exceptions to the requirement of an attempt at conciliation before the Board of Conciliation.\textsuperscript{178}

Known as the “\textit{Forliksråd},” the Conciliation Board finds its roots in Scandinavian colonial treatment of the Danish West Indies as early as 1755.\textsuperscript{179} At that time, \textit{all} civil claims were subject to mediation before Commissions of Conciliation before they could be filed in the courts.\textsuperscript{180} Commissions were generally comprised of the town priest and a well-respected farmer.\textsuperscript{181} Norway was formed as an independent state in 1824 and subsequently formalized the \textit{forliksprocess} in 1863 as a formal court system designed to handle small debt cases.\textsuperscript{182} The Civil Process Reform of 1915, however, expanded the \textit{forliksprocess} to almost all civil cases and implemented a more efficient system across the country.\textsuperscript{183} Today, the \textit{forliksråd} functions as the preliminary step in litigation, requiring mediation of almost all civil suits dealing with real property, monies owed, boundary disputes, and property damage,\textsuperscript{184} with exceptions for suits against the government and cases dealing with marriage, ancestry or landlord-tenant issues.\textsuperscript{185} The \textit{forliksråd}, however, is not limited solely to mediation, as it may also render default judgments.\textsuperscript{186}

There are currently four hundred and fifty-five \textit{forliksrådene} throughout Norway, with at least one Board of Conciliation for each of its four-hundred-and-forty-three municipalities.\textsuperscript{187} While municipality population varies to a great extent,\textsuperscript{188} a \textit{forliksråd} handles an average of fifteen hundred cases annually.\textsuperscript{189} Each \textit{forliksråd} is governed by three Justices of the Peace known as “\textit{forliksmannen},” who are typically

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{Shaughnessy1} \textsc{Edward J. Shaughnessy}, \textit{Conflict Management in Norway: Practical Dispute Resolution} 19 (1992).
\end{thebibliography}
reputable individuals from the community invited to serve by the town council.\(^{190}\) While the position of forliksman is not an elected one, the board’s period of service runs with the municipal government, generally a term of four years.\(^{191}\) As a result, the Board of Conciliation is comprised of laymen rather than trained judges or attorneys; in fact, practicing attorneys are not eligible for appointment.\(^{192}\) In addition, there is no organized training or education required to hold the position of conciliator; the only formal requirement is that the members be older than the age of twenty-five.\(^{193}\) Once the forliksmannen have accepted their positions, the municipal government appoints one of the councilmen as chairperson.\(^{194}\)

Some forliksrådene, usually the ones located in urban areas, operate four days a week, five hours a day,\(^{195}\) while others in rural areas handle ten to twenty cases on a monthly basis.\(^{196}\) The number of cases brought before the forliksrådene, however, continues to rise.\(^{197}\) All forliksrådene assess a small fee for their services that ranges from the equivalent of two to seventeen dollars.\(^{198}\) Based on a sliding scale that accounts for the nature and amount of the case, the fees are used to provide a stipend for the forliksmannen, while an additional fee for the cost of mailing and paperwork supplements the other costs of the board.\(^{199}\) Because the costs of litigating within the forliksrådene are so low when compared to the city courts, the Ministry of Justice does not waive fees incurred by indigent litigants at this level, although they may be waived when these litigants reach the civil courts.\(^{200}\)

A case begins when a party files a complaint with the Board of Conciliation. The complaint must contain the names of the disputing parties and a brief explanation of the dispute.\(^{201}\) The complaint may be written by the party or by an attorney, since it usually contains a definite legal citation referencing the basis of the complaint.\(^{202}\) Once the complaint has been signed and filed, the chairman of the forliksråd reviews it to

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\(^{190}\) ld. at 21, 27.
\(^{191}\) ld. at 27.
\(^{192}\) ld. at 32.
\(^{193}\) Id.
\(^{194}\) ld. at 27.
\(^{195}\) ld. at 26, 30.
\(^{196}\) ld. at 32.
\(^{197}\) ld. at 45.
\(^{198}\) ld. at 27.
\(^{199}\) ld.
\(^{200}\) ld. at 55.
\(^{201}\) ld. at 37.
\(^{202}\) ld.
ensure all the appropriate paperwork has been completed. Then, after setting a date and place for a hearing, the Chairman issues a summons to mediation for all of the parties involved in the claim.  

Both parties must be present at the Conciliation Board meeting. Although a party may bring representation, an attorney may not sit in proxy for either party. A party may, however, designate the forliksråd bailiff or a family member to represent his case before the board, which at times impedes the conciliation process because the interested parties are not all present. When the complaining party fails to appear, the complaint is dismissed. When the defending party fails to appear, the plaintiff may request the case be transferred to the city or county court or the Conciliation Board may award him judgment by default. A default judgment is the option more frequently selected by the Board. Default judgments of the forliksråd are given to a process-server for delivery to the absent defendant.

When both parties are present, mediation occurs in a closed environment, much like court-annexed alternative dispute resolution in the United States. This process operates under the assumption that parties will speak more freely, thereby enhancing the likelihood of resolving the claim. Each party is allowed an opportunity to present his case verbally, which may include the presentation of witnesses and other physical evidence. When physical evidence is involved, both parties must agree upon it before it may be admitted. Expert witnesses may also be presented, although this is rare. After both sides have explained their respective positions, mediation begins.

Although the law grants the Board the power to assist the parties in reaching a settlement that comports with common sense, fairness and equity, the forliksråd cannot force the parties to settle. If the parties decide not to conciliate, the record notes their decision and the forliksråd sends the case to civil court. Where conciliation is successful, however,

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203 Id. at 38.
204 Id. at 38-39.
205 Id. at 38-39.
206 Id. at 39.
207 Id.
208 Id.
209 Id. at 48.
210 Id. at 40.
211 Id.
212 Id.
213 Id.
214 Id.
this decision to conciliate is usually reached by the parties, who are generally relaxed and talk with one another directly without the presence of legal counsel.\textsuperscript{215}

Once the parties have reached a decision, the Conciliation Board ratifies it,\textsuperscript{216} records it, and presents it for signature by both parties.\textsuperscript{217} The Board is not required at any time to rule on the points of law presented, and in fact, is discouraged from doing so due to the lay status of its members.\textsuperscript{218} Once a settlement has been signed, it carries the same effect as a court decision,\textsuperscript{219} so failure to pay or comply can result in the garnishment of wages or attachment of property.\textsuperscript{220} The estimated compliance rate, however, is better than ninety-seven percent.\textsuperscript{221} Cases settled in the forliksrådene may be appealed to the civil court, but less than one-half of one percent ever reach the civil courts,\textsuperscript{222} indicating a relatively high degree of satisfaction with the outcomes.\textsuperscript{223} The limited data available indicates that, when appealed, the forliksrådene are rarely reversed.\textsuperscript{224}

In the last reported year, the forliksrådene handled 117,285 cases.\textsuperscript{225} While only 4,601 conciliations were successful, a success rate of approximately four percent, 32,123 cases were dismissed due to either an earlier resolution or failure to appear; 65,852 default judgments were entered in favor of the one appearing party. Only 13,450 cases were referred to the civil courts.\textsuperscript{226} While some judicial officials are ambivalent about the forliksrådene due to the low rate of conciliation,\textsuperscript{227} the high rate of default judgments is not as alarming as it may seem. Parties often fail to appear when they have accepted the requested judgment in the complaint through a prior agreement with the complaining party to honor this judgment, regardless of the outcome of the proceedings.\textsuperscript{228} On a larger scale, the procedural modification represented by the forliksråd concludes almost ninety percent of the workload once handled solely by the civil

\textsuperscript{215} Id. at 40-41.
\textsuperscript{216} Id.
\textsuperscript{217} Id. at 42.
\textsuperscript{218} Id. at 41.
\textsuperscript{219} Id. at 42.
\textsuperscript{220} Id. at 48.
\textsuperscript{221} Id.
\textsuperscript{222} Id. at 54.
\textsuperscript{223} Id. at 33.
\textsuperscript{224} Id.
\textsuperscript{225} Id. at 26.
\textsuperscript{226} Id. at 53.
\textsuperscript{227} Id. at 51.
\textsuperscript{228} Id. at 39.
courts and gives more than two hundred thousand parties a greater sense of not only participation in the judicial system but also of obtaining personal justice.

3. Germany’s Office of the Rechtspfleger

In Germany, the court office of the Rechtspfleger evolved from a court reporter to a legal administrator possessing independent decision-making powers. In fact, the term Rechtspfleger literally means “legal caretaker” or “administrator.” Today, the Rechtspfleger is a specialized court officer whose authority, as a matter of first instance, supplants that of the judge for a limited sphere of legal activity.

Prior to the development of the Rechtspfleger, judges in German courts were assisted solely by courtroom reporters with no legal training and limited responsibilities during the course of the proceedings. Increasing judicial burdens, however created by the numerous activities requiring limited legal expertise and strictly procedural work, led to the assignment of new duties for the court reporters, later termed Rechtspfleger. Court reporters holding this position were gradually assigned even more of the difficult tasks that had previously been entrusted to judges, such as acting as preliminary administrator for the judge, determining costs in legal actions, declaring orders of payment executable, and maintaining the land register. The Rechtspfleger became a statutorily codified position in the German courts in 1957 with the enactment of the Rechtspfleger Law, which conferred even greater duties upon the office.

Currently, fifteen thousand people hold the office of Rechtspfleger, which means there is approximately one Rechtspfleger for each judge. To hold the office, a person must complete six semesters at a trade school or college, during which time the theoretical training is interspersed with periods of practical training. The duties of the Rechtspfleger cover two

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229 Id. at 54.
231 Id. at 479.
232 Id.
233 Id. at 480.
234 Id. at 479.
235 Id.
236 Id. at 480.
237 Id.
primary areas: (1) preparing and concluding adversary proceedings and (2) handling certain legal proceedings that are not adversarial in nature.\textsuperscript{238}

With regard to adversary proceedings, the Rechtspfleger’s duties are those activities that traditionally precede or follow the trial phase of litigation.\textsuperscript{239} This includes areas known as the Legal Motion Bureau, the dunning process, and forced sales, as well as the power to conduct execution of judgments.\textsuperscript{240} The Rechtspfleger’s duties outside of adversarial proceedings are largely administrative in nature.\textsuperscript{241} They include responsibility for public records such as the land register, overseeing bankruptcy proceedings and settlements with creditors, and guardianship and inheritance matters.\textsuperscript{242}

The Rechtspfleger may only resolve or dispose of certain types of claims, such as when he presides over the Legal Motion Bureau, a lower court that handles appeals for non-contentious proceedings and appeals in criminal matters.\textsuperscript{243} If, when handling these matters, the Rechtspfleger sees a demand for special expertise, he then records the proceedings and his determination in preparation for review by the higher courts.\textsuperscript{244}

The Rechtspfleger also assists creditors in obtaining executable judgments through the dunning process,\textsuperscript{245} a summary procedure for obtaining an order against an individual requiring him or her to pay the specified debt. The Rechtspfleger wields a considerable amount of power through the dunning process. The office rules on approximately four million applications each year – in comparison to the one million civil proceedings handled by the judiciary.\textsuperscript{246} During the dunning process, the Rechtspfleger conducts an examination of the facts to determine if the claim is legally justified.\textsuperscript{247} If the claim is justified and the facts are uncontested, the Rechtspfleger enters an order in favor of the creditor, and later assists the creditor in obtaining executable judgments through the administrative functions of the Rechtspfleger’s office.\textsuperscript{248}

\textsuperscript{238} Id. at 481.
\textsuperscript{239} Id.
\textsuperscript{240} Id.
\textsuperscript{241} Id.
\textsuperscript{242} Id.
\textsuperscript{243} Id. at 485-86.
\textsuperscript{244} See id.
\textsuperscript{245} See id. at 486-87.
\textsuperscript{247} Id. at 487.
\textsuperscript{248} See id. at 486-87.
The Rechtspleger offers the civil court system several benefits. The judicial system exhibits greater efficiency because the judges have been freed of administrative constraints. This in turn provides a quicker service time for the adversarial processes. In addition, because the areas of the Rechtspleger's activity are largely controlled by strict regulations, the Rechtspleger is left with little chance to exercise broad discretion. This results in consistent application of the law in his areas of specialty. In addition, the expenses associated with proceedings involving the Rechtspleger have not increased to the same extent as those associated with adversarial proceedings, which assists in eliminating the traditional cost barrier of litigation.

Experience has also shown that the average person seeking legal assistance approaches the Rechtspleger more readily than he does the judge or other court personnel. This is primarily because appearances before the Rechtspleger do not require representation by an attorney, as compared to a majority of the higher courts. This specialized handling of smaller claims allows parties to handle pro se the legal matters that typically arise in the course of daily life. In addition, the problems of the average person, as well as his lay understanding of the law, are traditionally better understood by the Rechtspleger. As a result, the Rechtspleger has become a well-known and heavily used source of general legal information and counseling—especially for people of moderate means.

B. Procedural Modifications for Pro Se Litigants

1. Institution of Fee Caps in English Courts

As referenced previously, a private person in England also holds the constitutional right of proceeding within the courts as a pro se party. A legislatively enacted limitation on solicitors' costs attempts to encourage plaintiffs with a small claim to proceed pro se by discouraging solicitors

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249 Id. at 485.
250 Id.
251 Id. at 483.
252 Id. at 482.
253 Id.
254 Id. at 485 (where professional representation is mandatory in order for a claim to be heard).
255 Id. (noting, however, that this may no longer be true given the advent of state-sponsored education).
256 Id. at 486.
257 Jacob, supra note 157, at 256 (generally referred to as proceeding "in his own person").
from actively seeking to represent plaintiffs in such matters. In cases where the claim is one hundred pounds or less, the rule bars solicitor charges above and beyond the costs stated in the summons and any costs certified by the court that were incurred due to the unreasonable conduct of the defendant. The fee cap achieves greater access to justice with respect to small claims by limiting the expense that traditionally bars a litigant of weaker financial status. In addition, because the fee cap attaches to a relatively small claim amount, its absence when dealing with potentially large claims may also help to ensure that lower-income parties whose claims require legal counsel are similarly not made unattractive to solicitors.

2. Mandatory In Forma Pauperis Status & Court Controlled Fee Awards in Nigeria

The practice of proceeding as a pro se party does not exist in Nigeria. Instead, Nigeria’s court system follows the traditional in forma pauperis model for litigants who are unable to afford legal services. Civil procedure in Nigeria is governed by the Rules of the High Court, which were enacted pursuant to statutory power given to the rule-making authorities in each of the nineteen territories. While this system does allow for some variance in the rules, ten of the nineteen states comprising the Federation of Nigeria utilize the Rules of Court that originated from the now-defunct Supreme Court of Nigeria in their High Courts. The following account is based primarily on the procedure of the High Court, although the procedures of the magistrate and district courts are very similar.

Any person who wishes to proceed in forma pauperis, as either a plaintiff or defendant, makes an application (comparable to a motion in U.S. courts) to the judge in chambers. The application requires an affidavit, which details the facts upon which his claim will be based or defended and all the facts that may satisfy the judge’s determination that the applicant’s means do not permit him to employ legal aid in his case. The judge reviews the application and, if he finds it to have merit, refers it to a local solicitor for certification that the applicant has a valid cause of action.

256 Id. at 452, 453.
257 Id. at 452-53.
258 Id. at 453.
260 Id.
262 Nwabueze, supra note 260, at 246.
263 Aguda, supra note 262, at 68.
264 Id.
or defense. Solicitor certification is required for the applicant to proceed, at which time the judge assigns any solicitor willing to act for the applicant. This duty generally falls to the certifying solicitor; however, the rules do not preclude a judge from assigning another solicitor if he so chooses. Once a solicitor has been assigned to the *in forma pauperis* litigant, he may not be dismissed by the applicant without leave of the court.

An applicant’s attaining *in forma pauperis* status allows the court to remit or waive any and all court fees in whole or in part as the court deems necessary. Unlike other systems, however, the Court Rules in Nigeria not only insulate an *in forma pauperis* litigant from liability for payment of judgment but also preclude the applicant from being entitled to receive any costs. The rules also preclude any solicitor assigned as counsel from taking or seeking payment from the applicant or any other person connected with the application or cause of action. Judges may rescind applications upon discovery of a payment arrangement, regardless of its origination. This safeguard works to ensure that *in forma pauperis* status is reserved for those parties most in need.

Finally, the court retains strict control of the outcome of the suit through the application, which forbids either the applicant or his solicitor from discontinuing, settling, or compromising the cause of action without leave of the court. This further ensures that financial considerations have less of an impact on the litigant’s receipt of adequate representation or the outcome of his suit. This safeguard is buttressed by the judge’s discretion to order payment for the solicitor’s services out of any award recovered by the applicant.

Although the system employed by Nigeria’s courts leaves room for the judge to exercise discretion, the process of initiating a civil suit as an *in forma pauperis* party requires a much higher burden of proof than the typical American *in forma pauperis* proceeding. The court’s choice, however, to assign counsel instead of allowing a party to proceed *pro se* results in the litigant’s receiving professional legal advice and a more equal

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267 *Id.*
268 *Id.*
269 *Id.*
270 *Id.*
271 *Id.* at 67.
272 *Id.* Note that this runs contrary to U.S. practice which does allow for the award of costs to parties proceeding *pro se* under the *in forma pauperis* provisions.
273 *Id.* at 69.
274 *Id.*
275 *Id.*
276 *Id.*
footing for his participation in the judicial process. Perhaps more importantly, the judge’s strict control over the financial matters of the applicant’s legal representation ensures the advice and counsel received by the would-be pro se party is not merely adequate, but constitutes an appropriate and vigorous defense.

3. Initial Oral Pleadings in Japan

Japan’s legislature revised its Code of Civil Procedure in 1996 and effected the changes in January of 1998. The overall goal of the reforms was to offer the substantial number of ordinary citizens who wished to appear pro se comprehensive civil justice that was both plain and accessible. Although many of the reforms were geared towards courtroom procedures that aid the judges in identifying the genuine issues and obtaining evidence, an interesting feature that provides greater access to the traditional litigant of modest means was accomplished by resurrecting an old right that was no longer practiced — namely, the right to commence an action by oral presentation.

A plaintiff may file his complaint in one of two venues: summary court or district court. Any party, whether plaintiff or defendant, has the right to proceed in person, a right frequently exercised due to the insufficiency of legal aid and scarcity of practicing attorneys. Although judges are expected to intervene and assist pro se litigants when necessary, the numbers of pro se litigants are overwhelming. In 1997, for instance, litigants in person comprised fifty-eight percent of the caseload at the district court level, which governs claims that exceed 900,000 yen or involve immovable property. Summary courts have jurisdiction over both civil and criminal claims. This jurisdiction, however, is limited to civil claims not exceeding 900,000 and small claims

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278 See id. at 236.
279 Id.
280 Id. at 235.
281 Id. at 236.
282 See id. at 258.
283 See id. at 248.
284 See id. at 257.
285 Id. at 258.
286 Id.
287 Id. at 238.
procedures involving monetary claims of 300,000 yen or less. In comparison with the district court figures, ninety-nine percent of the cases at the summary court level involved at least one pro se party, with ninety percent involving litigants in person on both sides of the issue.

Under the revised code, a plaintiff at the summary court level is not required to file a written complaint; instead, the plaintiff may go to the court office and commence his action by oral presentation. While this right existed under the former Code, it was rarely exercised because the plaintiffs were required to model their oral complaint on the more complex written complaint still required by the district courts. Under the new Code, the plaintiff does not have to state a legal cause of action, but must only make the essence of his case clear to the court officer. The complaint is drafted by a judicial scrivener, a member of an alternate tier of legal professionals in Japan qualified to handle conveyancing and drafting forms for filing in the courts. The complaint is then filed by the plaintiff, who is no longer barred from pressing suit solely because of his lack of vocabulary or inability to frame the legal issues appropriately. While this measure does little to assist the large number of pro se litigants at the district court level, it at least eliminates additional competition for the few available attorneys, and represents progress in the direction of greater access to the judicial process.

VI. POSSIBLE ADAPTATIONS TO U.S. COURTS

As these international models suggest, a greater degree of success in aiding un-represented litigants is generally possible when the judiciary yields procedural integrity and becomes more flexible when handling pro se parties. Thus, pro se litigants would be better served by our domestic

288 Id. at 236. 900,000 yen is approximately $US 6,852 and 300,000 yen is approximately $US 2,284.
289 Id. at 258.
290 Id. at 239.
291 Id.
292 Id.
293 Id.
294 Id. at 238. Note, however, that judicial scriveners are not allowed to act as legal representatives in any court. Id.
295 In the face of limited data, it may be difficult to ascribe a degree of success to the reforms discussed in the preceding section that can be described as a sum certain. The information available for the reforms discussed is qualitative in nature, and details primarily the number of people choosing to use or being procedurally diverted into the alternate mechanisms. While this gives the reader an accurate picture of the efficiency and time gains that may be realized, it does not specify with particularity the impact on the number of pro se claims filed per year nor the reactions of pro se parties to their treatment. Consequently, the potential value for the suggested adaptations should instead be measured instead in terms
court system if its continued assistance were rooted in procedural and institutional reforms rather than expansion of its current educational programs. Procedural modifications take on greater significance when one considers that education assists a pro se party primarily during the initial pleadings and appearances before the court. Affecting procedural and institutional changes to the course of a pro se party’s suit, however, provides benefits to a point further along in the course of litigation, regardless of whether that point reaches to trial or settlement. Indeed, many members of the U.S. Judiciary support the idea of reform, including John L. Kane, a United States Senior District Court Judge, stating that “[c]ourts need to make fundamental changes or face the continuing prospect of having pro se litigants forfeit their legal rights.”

The judiciary has even specifically called for procedural reform, noting that we need to “create an entirely new methodology” and “redesign civil procedure from the ground up so that access to justice is available to all, rich and poor alike.” This section discusses possible adaptations of the international methods of handling pro se parties to the U.S.’s judicial processes and the potential effects of these reforms on the current issues presented by pro se litigation.

A. Procedural Alternatives

1. Assignment of Counsel through the In Forma Pauperis Statute

Adoption of a more stringent treatment of pro se parties as indigent litigants under the in forma pauperis provisions of 28 U.S.C. § 1915 may seem redundant given that the provisions for treating parties in this way may be invoked by any litigant, at any time, under the existing in forma pauperis statute. Treating pro se parties, regardless of their request, as indigent parties under the in forma pauperis provisions provides an easily implemented solution to the primary problems of the court’s neutrality and the pro se’s lack of knowledge.

Although the U.S. equivalent is not as strict in its specification of procedures or requirements for attaining in forma pauperis status as Nigeria’s in forma pauperis provisions, the two statutes both confer the power to provide the un-represented party with counsel. In fact, the U.S.

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of gains from the U.S.'s current status quo in order to render a more accurate picture of the intermediate gains that may be achieved.

294 J. Kane, supra note 67, at 16.

295 Id. See also William W. Schwarzer, Viewpoint, Let's Try a Small Claims Calendar for the U.S. Courts, 78 JUDICATURE Mar.-Apr. 1995, at 221, 221 (calling for the formation of a federal small claims calendar).

296 See 28 U.S.C. § 1915 (e)(1) (2000) (which provides that “[t]he court may request an attorney to represent any person unable to afford counsel.”).
version appears to reach even further, conferring upon the court and its officers the duty of issuing and serving all process for these cases and reminding the court that it must "perform all [of its] duties in such cases."^299

A large number of pro se litigants, however, are unable to invoke this statutory right to assignment of counsel since they fail to apply for indigent status, a precursor to invoking the assignment of counsel privilege. In San Francisco's study of non-prisoner pro se litigation, for example, seventy percent of the pro se litigants did not apply for indigent status.\(^300\) Of those applying, only eight percent requested the assignment of counsel.\(^301\) The courts, however, granted three of every five requests for those pro se litigants requesting in forma pauperis status.\(^302\) Notably, seventy-two percent of those parties receiving indigent status were not legally "indigent" as defined under the statutory terms of § 1915.\(^303\) This indicates the more stringent standards for indigent status imposed by the courts may be waning in the face of the judiciary's realization that there is a growing cross-section of the population that cannot afford counsel, even though they manage to support themselves and their families.

A continued effort by the judiciary to relax the criteria for attaining indigent status may be one means of making the in forma pauperis status more attractive than proceeding pro se, especially in the face of the current risk of mandatory forfeiture of assets. Dissemination of general information regarding the assignment of counsel privilege to pro se litigants may also increase the number of parties willing to submit applications to the court. Finally, Congress and state legislatures should revise § 1915 and its equivalents in order to allow the judiciary to raise this issue sua sponte, thus providing a mechanism to insure provision of counsel for those pro se litigants raising more complex and sophisticated causes of actions, such as civil rights and employment discrimination cases.

Whether in forma pauperis status is mandatorily imposed or simply relied upon to a greater extent than currently, this type of reform raises the question of who will compose the pool of attorneys available for assignment to represent the growing number of un-represented parties. This question increases in significance when we compare the recent surge in pro se litigation against the ratio of the US population to the number of lawyers, two-hundred-and-sixty-seven to one.\(^304\) This is the highest ratio of


\(^{298}\) Park, supra note 56, at 830.

\(^{299}\) Id. at 833.

\(^{300}\) Id. at 831.

\(^{301}\) Id.

\(^{302}\) Marcus, supra note 6, at 82.
general population to lawyers of any nation in history.\textsuperscript{305} Even where courts are granted statutory authority to appoint counsel, this right may be limited given the recent successful challenge of federal and state court power to compel representation.\textsuperscript{306} Practicing attorneys and local bar associations must rise to the challenge issued not only by the judiciary but also commentators like the American Bar Association ("ABA") to expand their pro bono services in order to meet these needs. Initially, increases in pro bono service should focus on those areas of the law exhibiting the greatest concentrations of pro se litigants, such as domestic relations and employment discrimination.\textsuperscript{307} Subsequent developments should focus on increasing access to the services of an attorney across the board.

2. Court-drafted Documents from Oral Pleadings

Although many of the clinic-based educational programs currently provide a mechanism for review of a pro se plaintiff's paperwork, this review generally relies upon the use of form pleadings that ensure the plaintiff's minimum burden regarding the legal elements is met. This approach often results in a factually barren pleading that meets a court's minimum requirements. This type of pleading, however, fails to allow the party an opportunity to allege additional facts that might have a greater impact upon the claim. In comparison, the Japanese tradition of oral pleading not only allows the pro se party to focus on the factual elements of his or her claim but also ensures that the pleading contains all of the necessary legal elements. Given that an overwhelming number of pro se claims fail to survive a preliminary motion to dismiss,\textsuperscript{308} the institution of even initial oral pleading could significantly reduce the survival rate of pro se claims in the face of these motions.

The Family Courts of New York City recently recognized the possible benefits of oral pleading and instituted Petition Preparation, with the goal of providing assistance in document preparation to the self-represented litigant.\textsuperscript{309} Participation in the program is available to any civil litigant in Family Court, regardless of his or her financial status;\textsuperscript{310} the program currently staffs one hundred petition clerks trained in framing the allegations litigated before the Family Courts.\textsuperscript{311} Typical areas represented by the petitions drafted include orders for protection, child and spousal

\begin{itemize}
\item J. Kane, supra note 67, at 16, n.1.
\item Kim, supra note 48, at 1647.
\item See GOLDSCHMIDT ET AL., supra note 60, at 112.
\item See Park, supra note 56, at 835 (citing a forty-four percent survival rate of pro se claims in the face of a preliminary motion to dismiss).
\item GOLDSCHMIDT ET AL., supra note 60, at 100.
\item Id.
\item Id.
\end{itemize}
support, establishment of paternity, custody or visitation, and petitions for guardianship.\textsuperscript{312} The appropriate pleadings are drafted and reproduced by the petition clerk during the course of an interview with the \textit{pro se} litigant, based on statements made by the party.\textsuperscript{313} Although the Family Court works closely with several service agencies, petition clerks are located within the offices of the court they serve.\textsuperscript{314} Consequently, the Petition Preparation program assists litigants in achieving a meaningful review of their cause of action in a greater number of claims than previously observed in this very personal area of the law.

The institution of a similar sort of oral pleading also counters the judiciary's prevalent concern that the judge or other court officers often function as attorneys in the \textit{pro se} litigant's stead. Ironically, when \textit{pro se} litigants reach the courtroom, a judge essentially relies upon the party's oral representations during his or her decision-making process, substituting the judge's personally translated "legal" version of the \textit{pro se}'s statements into the balancing required for legal determinations. It is this substitution of terms that most threatens judicial neutrality. Viewed from this perspective, extension of the ability to file oral pleadings seems less extreme. Indeed, extending a simplified version of oral pleading to subsequent motions before the court may further bolster the \textit{pro se} party's ability to garner a meaningful review of his claim while eliminating the primary threat to the court's neutrality.

Finally, institution of oral pleadings in the United States would not require the creation of a new group or class of legal professionals to fill the role of judicial scrivener. In many educational settings, \textit{pro se} litigants actually receive their legal education from paralegals and social workers,\textsuperscript{315} a growing source of concern for many members of the private bar.\textsuperscript{316} Petition Preparation provides the appropriate legal training, requiring a minimum high school education (most of the petition clerks, however, hold at least a college degree) for employment.\textsuperscript{317} In comparison, paralegals provide an easily accessible base for filling this institutional role and, depending on their experience, would exhibit a minimal learning curve. Indeed, the ABA recently recommended expansion of the traditional role of the paralegal in its Report on Non-Lawyer Activity in Law-Related Situations.\textsuperscript{318} Further, the cost in implementing this sort of procedural

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{312} Id.
\bibitem{313} Id.
\bibitem{314} See id. at 101.
\bibitem{315} See generally Engler, \textit{supra} note 79, at 1998-2007; Barry, \textit{supra} note 51, at 1889-90; \textit{infra} Section IV.
\bibitem{316} See Kim, \textit{supra} note 48, at 1650.
\bibitem{317} \textit{Goldschmidt et al.}, \textit{supra} note 60, at 100.
\bibitem{318} Rosenthal, \textit{supra} note 3, at 94, 161.
\end{thebibliography}
mechanism is also minimal, especially when compared to the time and efficiency costs cited by the judiciary as the chief problem posed by pro se litigants, or the suggestion of creating an additional calendar for small claims in the federal courts.

In sum, the institution of oral pleading – whether limited to initial pleading or extended to subsequent motions – would be a viable option for addressing concerns about pleading deficiencies and the court’s neutrality in both the state and federal court systems. Notably, the ABA specifically sanctioned this option of “document preparer” for state court use as a possible countermeasure to non-lawyer activity in the legal arena, lending additional credence to its viability.

B. Institutional Alternatives

1. Creation of Court Officer for Specialized Claims

Underlying of the judicial system’s efforts to educate pro se litigants lies a growing concern that this education movement, regardless of the form and the mix of those providing educational services, essentially sanctions the unauthorized practice of law by the myriads of courtroom staff who function as advisors for the growing number of pro se litigants. Both the American Judicature Society and the ABA have recommended that state legislatures revisit their current approach to unauthorized practice of law or judicial immunity. Specifically, these organizations suggested that states confer an immunity similar to judicial immunity upon court officers other than judges in order to preserve the minimum level of assistance that flows from these positions.

Transforming the responsibilities of these courtroom officers, however, into those indicative of an intermediary legal professional, similar to the Rechtspfleger in Germany, may present an opportunity to optimize preexisting judicial resources while also addressing the unique demands of pro se litigants. Corresponding to the operational duties of the Rechtspfleger, the officer could be endowed with a limited ability to resolve disputes and handle matters that are post-judicial resolution, such as execution of claims or enforcement orders. Increasing the scope of the administrative duties entrusted to courtroom personnel would not only assist a judicial system already faced with a continuing problem of

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319 See Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 100 (citing Petition Preparation costs limited to annual salary of $35,000 and computer maintenance).

320 See Schwarzer, supra note 295, at 221.

321 Rosenthal, supra note 3, at 151.

320 See Nuffer, supra note 44, at 9; See Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 112; Rosenthal, supra note 3, at 125, 150.

321 Goldschmidt et al., supra note 60, at 113; Rosenthal, supra note 3, at 161.
overcrowded dockets but also eliminate in many instances the need for pro se parties to pursue claims past their initial pleadings by providing an immediate dispute resolution, thereby addressing the complaints of time, efficiency and sufficiency, frequently raised by courtroom personnel.

For example, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Administration for Children and Families has suggested the modification for child support orders be entrusted to a standardized pro se procedure due to the increase in modification actions and the regular need to update this type of order. Those states currently running programs of this sort rely on a mixture of form pleadings and standard documentation to assist the pro se party in formulating his or her request based on detailed explanations of the ability for change within the state's statutorily provided calculations. This sort of statutorily governed area provides an ideal forum for the use of a specialized court officer for claim disposition.

The primary concerns presented by these formalized pro se procedures are the complexity of the forms, the scope of the forms, literacy or language barriers, and the development and application of uniform rules. For instance, the area of child support enforcement is controlled by strict legislative guidelines, much like the area of responsibility entrusted to the Rechtspfleger. This leaves little room for the court officer to exercise discretion and provides a well-defined environment that promotes consistent application of the rules. The expense associated with any trial procedure would be decreased because of the summary nature of the court officer's review and decision. This decrease in expense could effectively eliminate or reduce one of the primary barriers to the court systems for many un-represented litigants - cost.

In addition, the pro se party involved is already likely to have approached the court officer previously while seeking assistance, creating a sense of familiarity that may ease the rigors of the legal process for the pro se litigant. Finally, the vesting of such responsibilities, after providing additional training, removes the specter of unauthorized or illegal provision of legal services or advice, thereby freeing courtroom personnel to give greater amounts of aid to those un-represented parties seeking their assistance.

This remedy, however, poses a greater organizational challenge than does the imposition of in forma pauperis status or even the institution of oral pleadings - one which the judiciary may not be ready for given the likely amount of resources and initial training it would require to create a new class of legal professionals within the judiciary. What the Rechtspfleger speaks to, however, is not necessarily a specialized office but instead a means of achieving specialized handling of the claims posed by

322 LANDSTREET & TAKAS, supra note 108, at 1-4.
323 Id. at 15-30.
324 Id. at 26-28.
pro se parties. At the federal level at least, this specialized review could be achieved with no modifications to the existing functions of courtroom personnel by entrusting more pro se actions to magistrate judges or special masters. Cases involving a pro se party could be initially referred to the magistrate or special master as a matter of procedure, in their totality or simply for the initial pleadings and motions for dismissal or summary judgment.

Magistrates and special masters traditionally exhibit lighter caseloads than district court or appellate court judges; thus they may be better suited to give more time and attention to a pro se litigant who necessarily demands a greater degree of attention. While there is a perception that this funneling of pro se actions actually occurs, data suggests that federal judges are reluctant to refer these cases, preferring to handle pro se litigants themselves, thus contributing to their own docket crowding. Although the introduction of a specialized court officer would involve significant modification of procedural rules as well as significant training at its outset, the assimilation of such an office provides the courts with a better means to offer specialized attention to pro se litigants without jeopardizing judicial resources or the neutrality of the primary fact-finder.

2. Specialized Mediation of Claims Involving a Pro Se Party

Although the introduction of an intermediate mediation system into the existing domestic court system could not be effectuated in a manner that would provide an immediate result, Norway’s Board of Conciliation offers a valuable message regarding the presumed motivations of pro se litigants. Even though the conciliation rate is lower than five percent, the forliksråd stands for the proposition that often parties are content with a mechanism that simply provides them a forum in which to be heard, regardless of whether the claim is settled privately prior to appearing before the Board or by the more formal conciliation process.

Domestically, the willingness of pro se litigants to settle was demonstrated in San Francisco’s study of non-prisoner pro se civil litigation, which discovered a settlement rate of just over fifteen percent — belying the notion that pro se parties necessarily want time in court. Settlements were most often reached in actions involving allegations of employment discrimination, tort, and labor cases. Where the rates of settlement were analyzed by type of claim, the rate of settlement was

327 Park, supra note 56, at 834.
328 Id.
327 Id. at 835.
328 See id at 843.
virtually identical to the rate in the general sample of represented parties.\textsuperscript{331} If, as this study suggests, \textit{pro se} litigants are more willing to settle than previously believed, alternative dispute resolution options could be applied as a mandatory starting point in order to meet the rising surge of \textit{pro se} litigants.

Although civil procedure calls for an initial settlement discussion once an action proceeds to trial, a mandatory mediation mechanism would provide a more aggressive means for eliminating virtually all of the problems posed by the \textit{pro se} litigant. If successful, the need for sufficient pleading beyond the initial complaint would disappear, as would the time and efficiency demands imposed on courtroom personnel in assisting a \textit{pro se} litigant in navigating the course of litigation and its accompanying motions. Additionally, the threat to the court's neutrality would be less direct since mediation would likely be handled by private personnel, as is customary in traditional alternative dispute resolution matters. This removal of resolution from the courtroom may also allow the parties to pursue more aggressive settlement tactics than a judge is comfortable pursuing, as judges must balance the perception of the \textit{pro se} litigant against his normal course of action.

At least one state court system has recognized the value of using alternative dispute resolution methods an intermediate step in the course of \textit{pro se} litigation. Minnesota’s Hennepin County District Court’s \textit{pro se} initiative involved the creation of a conciliation court mandatory mediation pilot project.\textsuperscript{332} The pilot project was conducted over a six-month period in 1996 and 1997. It mandated mediation for all \textit{pro se} litigants referred to the project but at no additional cost to the parties.\textsuperscript{333} Special conciliation calendars were held two mornings each week, hosting no more than twenty cases, with those cases that were unable to reach a settlement given a fast track to a contested hearing.\textsuperscript{334} Over the course of the pilot session, 927 cases were scheduled, 658 of which were disposed of at the initial hearing date.\textsuperscript{335} Of the resolved cases, 400 were mediated, forty-three percent of which reached a settlement that very morning (174 cases).\textsuperscript{336} Of those cases settled, only twenty-six (approximately fifteen percent) resulted in a subsequent filing requesting an order of compliance.\textsuperscript{337}

\textsuperscript{329} \textit{Id.} at 841.
\textsuperscript{330} Stanoch, \textit{supra} note 121, at 309.
\textsuperscript{331} \textit{Id.} at 310.
\textsuperscript{332} \textit{Id.}
\textsuperscript{333} \textit{Id.} at 311.
\textsuperscript{334} \textit{Id.} The remaining two-hundred-and-fifty-eight cases were resolved by default judgment or dismissal. \textit{Id.}
\textsuperscript{335} \textit{Id.}
Ninety percent of the participants completed an exit evaluation, which reported a satisfaction rate of ninety percent. Based on the success rate of the cases actually mediated, as well as the positive experiences of the participants, the Hennepin County District Court requested authority from the Minnesota Supreme Court to continue the mandatory mediation program. This result strongly suggests that both the federal and state court systems could successfully implement an aggressive mediation approach to pro se litigants that would result in not only satisfactory results for all of the parties but also impart a greater sense of participatory justice, particularly for the pro se parties.

VII. CONCLUSION

Although the right to proceed as a self-represented party finds its origins in the courts’ perception that adjusting court procedure was the primary means of assisting a pro se litigant pursue his claim, today’s judiciary has entrenched its efforts to assist pro se parties in an educational movement designed to maintain the procedural integrity of the domestic court system. This narrow focus on educating the layman litigant has resulted in a system that recognizes the need for access to justice through the courts, yet simultaneously preempts any opportunity for a meaningful review of the pro se claims placed before it due to its rigid adherence to the procedural motions and process of traditional litigation. Although one of the major concerns underlying the pro se movement is a lack of access to adequate legal counsel, availability of pro bono services and legal aid presents an on-going problem with no clear end in sight.

As the recent surge of pro se litigation and the problems associated with it is not likely to ebb in the near future, measures must be taken in the interim to insure the increasing number of self-represented parties is not foreclosed from a pro se process that may provide the sole means of access to the justice. This paper proposes that the pro se phenomenon would be best served by the consideration of both institutional and procedural reforms within the judicial system, in particular the advent of court-sponsored petition drafting and mandatory mediation procedures, in order to broaden the tools available for handling the unique concerns posed by pro se litigants beyond the educational sphere of influence.

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336 Id.
337 See id. at 312.