

APPENDIX A: LIST OF CASES

This list includes cases discussed in-depth during class. It is not an exhaustive list of all cases. You are welcome and encouraged to reference cases discussed in the casebook that are not included in this list. You will not receive credit for referencing cases that were neither discussed in class nor included in the casebook. The cases are listed chronologically in the order that we discussed them in class.

Seffert v. Los Angeles Transit Lines

McDougald v. Garber

Mathias v. Accor Economy Lodging, Inc.

State Farm v. Campbell

BMW v. Gore

Adams v. Bullock

Braun v. Buffalo Gen. El. Co.

United States v. Carroll Towing Co.

Bethel v. New York City Transit Authority

Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. v. Goodman

Pokora v. Wabash Railway Co.

Trimarco v. Klein

Martin v. Herzog

Tedla v. Ellman

Negri v. Stop and Shop, Inc.

Gordon v. Museum of Natural History

Byrne v. Boadle

McDougald v. Perry

Ybarra v. Spangard

Sheeley v. Memorial Hospital

Matthies v. Mostromonaco

Harper v. Herman

Farwell v. Keaton

Randi W. v. Muroc Joint Unified School District

Tarasoff v. Regents of the University of California

Strauss v. Belle Realty

Reynolds v. Hicks

Carter v. Kinney

Heins v. Webster County

Riss v. City of New York

Lauer v. City of New York

Falzone v. Busch

Gammon v. Osteopathic Hospital of Maine

Johnson v. Jamaica Hospital

APPENDIX B: LEGAL RULES

This list includes legal rules covered in class that you are not expected to have memorized. You should commit to memory any legal rules covered in class or in the casebook that are not listed below.

Do not use this list to predict the legal rules that you will be tested on during the exam. That would be a big mistake, as many of the most important rules are *not* included in the list because you are expected to have them memorized.

Keep in mind that the midterm exam will not address every topic covered in class. Therefore, only some of these rules will be relevant to answering the exam questions.

Rules of Civil Procedure

Motion to Dismiss

A motion to dismiss is a formal request for a court to dismiss a case. A defendant may file a motion to dismiss for failure to state a claim upon which relief can be granted. With this motion, the defendant contends that even if all the factual allegations in a plaintiff's complaint are true, they are insufficient to establish a cause of action. A trial court should grant this motion if the plaintiff has not asserted a plausible claim for relief based on well-pleaded facts.

Summary Judgment

Summary judgment is a judgment entered by a court for one party and against another party without a full trial. In civil cases, either party may make a pre-trial motion for summary judgment. Rule 56 of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure governs summary judgment for federal courts. Under Rule 56, in order to succeed in a motion for summary judgment, a movant must show 1) that there is no genuine dispute as to any material fact, and 2) that the movant is entitled to judgment as a matter of law. "Material fact" refers to any facts that could allow a fact-finder to decide against the movant. Many states have similar pre-trial motions. If the motion is granted, there will be no trial. The judge will immediately enter judgment for the movant.

Directed Verdict

A directed verdict is a ruling entered by a trial judge after determining that there is no legally sufficient evidentiary basis for a reasonable jury to reach a different conclusion. Directed verdicts have been largely replaced by judgment as a matter of law. In federal court, motions for a directed verdict are governed by Rule 50 of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure. A court should grant this motion if no reasonable jury could have legally sufficient evidence to find for a party on a particular issue.

Excessive Verdict

An excessive verdict is a verdict that shocks the conscience because it appears to stem from factors extraneous the judicial proceedings. For instance, the jury may have been prejudiced against the defendant or overly swayed by emotionally draining evidence. Most verdicts are deemed excessive because the money damages awarded far exceed the compensation given in similar cases; the typical result is a judge-ordered decrease of the award.

Remittitur

Remittitur is a trial court order in response to an excessive damage award or verdict by a jury which gives the plaintiff the option to accept a reduced damage award or conviction, or the court may order a new trial. Latin for “to send back, to remit.” The purpose of remittitur is to give a trial court the ability, with the plaintiff’s consent, to correct an inequitable damage award or verdict without having to order a new trial.

Additur

Additur is a procedure by which a court increases the amount of damages awarded by the jury. A party may move for additur, or the court may *sua sponte* order additur, if the jury awards an inadequate amount of damages. The purpose of additur is to allow the court to assess and increase the jury award having to order a new trial. The Supreme Court held in *Dimick v. Schiedt* that additur violates the Seventh Amendment and so is not permissible in federal courts. Many state courts allow additur, however, when the defendant agrees to the increased award on the condition that the court deny plaintiff’s motion for a new trial.

Punitive Damages

In *BMW of North America, Inc. v. Gore* the Supreme Court instructed courts reviewing punitive damages to consider three guideposts: (1) the degree of reprehensibility of the defendant’s misconduct; (2) the disparity between the actual or potential harm suffered by the plaintiff and the punitive damages award; and (3) the difference between the punitive damages awarded by the jury and the civil penalties authorized or imposed in comparable cases.

As an example of state law governing punitive damages, under California Civil Code § 3294, “where the defendant has been guilty of oppression, fraud, or malice, express or implied, the plaintiff, in addition to actual damages, may recover damages for the sake of example and by way of punishing the defendant.”

These terms are defined as follows:

- (1) “Malice” means conduct which is intended by the defendant to cause injury to the plaintiff or despicable conduct which is carried on by the defendant with a willful and conscious disregard of the rights or safety of others.
- (2) “Oppression” means despicable conduct that subjects a person to cruel and unjust hardship in conscious disregard of that person’s rights.

(3) “Fraud” means an intentional misrepresentation, deceit, or concealment of a material fact known to the defendant with the intention on the part of the defendant of thereby depriving a person of property or legal rights or otherwise causing injury.

Rules of Tort Law

“Common carriers . . . must keep pace with science, art, and modern improvement.” *Treadwell v. Whittier*, 80 Cal. 574, 600 (Ca. 1889).

Common carriers must use the best precautions in practical use “known to any company exercising the utmost care and diligence in keeping abreast with modern improvement in . . . such precautions.” *Valente v. Sierra Ry.*, 151 Cal. 534, 543 (Ca. 1907).

To constitute constructive notice, a defect must be visible and apparent and it must exist for a sufficient length of time prior to the accident to permit defendant’s employees to discover and remedy it. *Negri v. Stop & Shop* 480 N.E.2d 740 (Ny. 1985).

In *Killings v. Enterprise Leasing Co.*, 9 So. 3d 1216 (Ala. 2008), the court recognized a third-party negligent spoliation claim, conditioned on: 1) actual knowledge of “pending or potential litigation” on the part of the spoliator; 2) a voluntary undertaking, agreement, or specific request establishing a duty; and 3) evidence that the missing evidence was vital to the underlying claim.

Generally, a special relationship giving rise to a duty to warn is only found on the part of common carriers, innkeepers, possessors of land who hold it open to the public, and persons who have custody of another person under circumstances in which that other person is deprived of normal opportunities of self-protection. Restatement (Second) of Torts § 314A (1965).

Section 324 of the Second Restatement provides that one who, being under no duty to do so, takes charge of another who is helpless is subject to liability caused by “(a) the failure of the actor to exercise reasonable care to secure the safety of the other while within the actor’s charge, or (b) the actor’s discontinuing his aid or protection, if by so doing he leaves the other in a worse position than when the actor took charge of him.” Restatement (Second) of Torts § 324 (1965). The Restatement expresses no opinion as to whether “an actor who has taken charge of a helpless person may be subject to liability for harm resulting from his discontinuance of the aid or protection, where by doing so he leaves the other in no worse position than when the actor took charge of him.” The Third Restatement requires an actor to exercise reasonable care in discontinuing aid for someone who reasonably appears to be in imminent peril. Restatement (Third) Torts: Liability for Physical and Emotional Harm § 43.

Section 311 of the Restatement Second of Torts, involving negligent conduct, provides that: “(1) One who negligently gives false information to another is subject to liability for physical harm caused by action taken by the other in reasonable reliance upon such information, where such harm results (a) to the other, or (b) to such third persons as the actor should reasonably expect to be put in peril by the action taken. (2) Such negligence may consist of failure to exercise reasonable care (a) in ascertaining the accuracy of the information, or (b) in the manner in which it is communicated.”

Rowland v. Christian, 443 P.2d 561 (Cal. 1968), enumerates a number of considerations that have been taken into account by courts in various contexts to determine whether a departure from the general rule of not imposing an affirmative duty is appropriate. “[T]he major [considerations] are the foreseeability of harm to the plaintiff, the degree of certainty that the plaintiff suffered injury, the closeness of the connection between the defendant’s conduct and the injury suffered, the moral blame attached to the defendant’s conduct, the policy of preventing future harm, the extent of the burden to the defendant and consequences to the community of imposing a duty to exercise care with resulting liability for breach, and the availability, cost, and prevalence of insurance for the risk involved.” The foreseeability of a particular kind of harm plays a very significant role in this calculus, but a court’s task—in determining ‘duty’—is not to decide whether a particular plaintiff’s injury was reasonably foreseeable in light of a particular defendant’s conduct, but rather to evaluate more generally whether the category of negligent conduct at issue is sufficiently likely to result in the kind of harm experienced that liability may appropriately be imposed on the negligent party.”

For specific policy reasons thought to be important, courts sometimes determine that no duty exists, thereby withdrawing the possibility of the defendant being held liable for the harm, even if negligent. Courts properly do this, according to the Third Restatement, when they articulate “categorical, bright-line rules of law applicable to a general class of cases.” Restatement (Third) Torts: Liability for Physical and Emotional Harm § 7(b).

Carter v. Kinney, 896 S.W.2d 926 (Mo. 1995), traces the historical rules of premises liability, “Historically, premises liability cases recognize three broad classes of plaintiffs: trespassers, licensees and invitees. All entrants to land are trespassers until the possessor of the land gives them permission to enter. All persons who enter a premises with permission are licensees until the possessor has an interest in the visit such that the visitor ‘has reason to believe that the premises have been made safe to receive him.’ That makes the visitor an invitee. The possessor’s intention in offering the invitation determines the status of the visitor and establishes the duty of care the possessor owes the visitor. Generally, the possessor owes a trespasser no duty of care; the possessor owes a licensee the duty to make safe dangers of which the possessor is aware; and the possessor owes invitees the duty to exercise reasonable care to protect them against both known dangers and those that would be revealed by inspection. The exceptions to these general rules are myriad.”

Section 332 of the Restatement Second extends invitee status to a person who is “invited to enter or remain on land as a member of the public for a purpose for which the land is held open to the public.”

Section 333 of the Restatement Second states the duty owed to trespassers, “Except as stated in §§ 334–339, a possessor of land is not liable to trespassers for physical harm caused by his failure to exercise reasonable care (a) to put the land in a condition reasonably safe for their reception, or (b) to carry on his activities so as not to endanger them.” The listed exceptions create obligations to warn, for example, when the possessor knows that persons “constantly intrude upon a limited area” of the land and may encounter a hidden danger, or when the possessor fails to exercise reasonable care for the safety of a known trespasser. Generally, though, the duty is simply not to willfully or wantonly harm trespassers.

Section 342 of the Restatement Second provides that an occupier is subject to liability to invitees if the occupier “(a) knows or by the exercise of reasonable care would discover the condition, and should realize that it involves an unreasonable risk of harm to such invitees, and (b) should expect that they will not discover or realize the danger, or will fail to protect themselves against it, and (c) fails to exercise reasonable care to protect them against the danger.”

Section 339 of the Restatement Second provides rules governing child trespassers, “A possessor of land is subject to liability for physical harm to children trespassing thereon caused by an artificial condition upon the land if (a) the place where the condition exists is one upon which the possessor knows or has reason to know that children are likely to trespass, and (b) the condition is one of which the possessor knows or has reason to know and which he realizes or should realize will involve an unreasonable risk of death or serious bodily harm to such children, and (c) the children because of their youth do not discover the condition or realize the risk involved in intermeddling with it or in coming within the area made dangerous by it, and (d) the utility to the possessor of maintaining the condition and the burden of eliminating the danger are slight as compared with the risk to children involved, and (e) the possessor fails to exercise reasonable care to eliminate the danger or otherwise to protect the children.”

In *Cuffy v. City of New York*, 505 N.E.2d 937 (N.Y. 1987), the court stated the general rule that there is no tort duty to provide police protection, but recognized an exception in cases of “special relationship”—the elements of which were held to be, “1) an assumption by the municipality through promises or action, of an affirmative duty to act on behalf of the party who was injured; 2) knowledge on the part of the municipality’s agents that inaction could lead to harm; 3) some form of direct contact between the municipality’s agents and the injured party; and 4) that party’s justifiable reliance on the municipality’s undertaking.”

Section 47 of the Third Restatement provides for liability when negligently inflicted serious emotional harm “occurs in the course of specified categories of activities, undertakings, or relationships in which negligent conduct is especially likely to cause serious emotional harm,” but also specifies that “an actor who negligently injures another’s pet is not liable for emotional harm suffered by the pet’s owner.”

END OF EXAM