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LOW CONDITIONAL FEES
VERSUS BEING INSURED BY
HIGH CONTINGENT FEES**

Winand Emons

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Winand Emons, Universität Bern and CEPR

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Centre for Economic Policy Research
90–98 Goswell Rd, London EC1V 7RR, UK
Tel: (44 20) 7878 2900, Fax: (44 20) 7878 2999
Email: cepr@cepr.org, Website: www.cepr.org

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ABSTRACT

Playing it Safe with Low Conditional Fees versus Being Insured by High Contingent Fees*

Under contingent fees the attorney gets a share of the judgement; under conditional fees they get an upscale premium if the case is won, which is, however, unrelated to the adjudicated amount. We compare conditional and contingent fees in a framework where lawyers choose between a safe and a risky litigation strategy. Under conditional fees lawyers prefer the safe strategy, under contingent fees the risky one. Risk-averse plaintiffs prefer conditional fees over contingent fees when lawyering costs are low and vice versa for high lawyering costs.

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Winand Emons
VWI
Universität Bern
Gesellschaftsstr. 49
CH-3012 Bern
SWITZERLAND
Tel: (43 31) 631 3922
Fax: (43 31) 631 3992
Email: winand.emons@vwi.unibe.ch

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1 Introduction

The use of contingent legal fees is by now widespread in the US. In a well-known empirical study, Kritzer (1990) presents suggestive data. He observes that individual litigants tend to use contingent fees. They are mostly used in torts (87%) and contracts (53%), whereas hourly fees are essentially used in divorce and other domestic issues. These figures have been confirmed and discussed in later studies by Kritzer (2002, 2004) himself as well as by Brickman (2003a, 2003b). Also, in Canada, all provinces now permit contingent fees.¹

In Europe contingent legal fees are not allowed. Market pressure has, nevertheless, led some countries to allow conditional fees. Under conditional fees the lawyer gets an upscale premium if the case is won. This premium is not related to the adjudicated amount. The United Kingdom started introducing conditional fees in the nineties.²

Conditional fees have also been introduced in Belgium and the Netherlands, the latter apparently now considering to formally allow contingent fees. Spain, France, Italy, and Portugal are considering the introduction of conditional fees. Germany has also relaxed some restrictions by means of third party contingent contracts, though not to the extreme of accepting

¹In some provinces, but not all, the amount charged is based on a percentage. See Kritzer (2004).

²Since 1995, English solicitors could charge clients on a conditional fee basis in which the client pays nothing if no recovery is obtained and pays an uplift of up to 100 percent over the normal fee if there is a recovery. In 1999, the government moved to greatly expand the use of conditional fees in order to reduce the cost of legal aid and under provisions of the Access to Justice Act 1999, successful plaintiffs can recover the uplift from the defendant. Furthermore, in a 1998 decision, the Court of Appeal in England ruled that it was no contrary to law for English solicitors to act on a contingency basis whereby the solicitor would forgo some or all of his or her normal fee if the case was not successful. In Scotland, lawyers have long been permitted to act on a speculative basis. If the plaintiff wins, he or she pays the lawyer the normal fee, but pays nothing if he or she loses. In Ireland, barristers take cases on a no goal-no fee basis, in which the barrister receives his or her normal fee unless no recovery is obtained. For details, see Kritzer (2004).

conditional fees (Kirstein and Rickman, 2004). Major European law firms in Paris and in London have been basing fees in part on results achieved since the eighties (Kritzer, 2004).

Both, contingent as well as conditional fees, pay for performance by compensating the lawyer by a higher fee if the case is won. The main difference between contingent and conditional fees is that the former pays a percentage of the judgment whereas the latter pays an upscale premium not related to the adjudicated amount.

In this paper we compare both fee arrangements in a set-up where the attorney chooses the strategy on how the case is presented in the courtroom. There are two possible strategies, safe and risky, that affect the probability of winning as well as the amount adjudicated. A safe strategy provides a higher probability of winning with a lower adjudication. A risky strategy leads to a lower probability of winning with a higher adjudication. Overall, the expected judgement is higher for the risky strategy.

We show that the risk-neutral lawyer will play it safe with conditional fees, but will go for risk with contingent fees. Under conditional fees, the only contingencies of interest to the attorney is winning or losing, hence he has an incentive to maximize the probability of winning the case: conditional fees thus give the attorney the incentive to play it safe. Contingent fees condition not only on the events of winning or losing, but also on the amount of the judgment: the higher the judgment, the higher the attorney's share. The expected judgment is higher with the risky strategy, hence the lawyer plays it risky.

The client is risk-averse. She prefers the safe strategy if she receives the entire amount at stake, even though the expected judgement is lower. With this assumption we create a potential conflict of interest between the risk-averse plaintiff and her risk-neutral lawyer. The equilibrium contract maximizes the plaintiff's expected utility subject to the constraint that the lawyer gets his reservation utility. The client chooses conditional fees when

lawyer's reservation utility is low; this result follows immediately from our assumption that the client prefers to play it safe when she gets the entire judgement. When the lawyer's reservation utility is, however, high, the client prefers contingent fees. Now the insurance function of contingent fees kicks in: When the lawyers's reservation utility is high, his share of the judgement approaches one. The plaintiff is almost fully insured and no longer cares so much about the judgement risk; most of the judgement goes to the lawyer anyway.

Previous literature has mostly addressed the use of percentage contingent legal fees, but has ignored the possibility of conditional legal fees. As far as we know, this -together with two companion papers (Emons and Garoupa 2004, Emons 2004)- are the first attempts to provide an efficiency-comparison between US-style contingent and UK-style conditional fees. The economic literature on conditional fees is essentially UK-based (Maclean and Rickman, 1999; Yarrow, 2001; Fenn et. al, 2004) and has been concerned with the impact on the outcome of legal cases and the effects on the demand and supply of legal aid.

In Emons and Garoupa (2004), we find that both, contingent and conditional fees, give the lawyer an incentive to provide effort. Under conditional fees the upscale payment is not related to the adjudicated amount. Therefore, the lawyer's effort does not depend on the amount at stake. Under contingent fees the attorney gets a fraction of the judgment. He adjusts effort to the adjudicated amount: the higher the judgment, the more effort he puts into the case. Accordingly, under contingent fees the attorney uses his information about the amount at stake whereas under conditional fees he does not. Therefore, contingent fees are more efficient than conditional fees. This holds true independently of whether upfront payments to the lawyer are restricted to be non-negative or not.

Emons (2004) compares conditional and contingent fees in a framework where lawyers are uninformed about the clients' cases. Payments to the

lawyer are restricted to be non-negative. Moral hazard by lawyers rules out fixed wage components. If there is asymmetric information about the values of cases, in equilibrium attorneys will offer only conditional fees. If there is asymmetric information about the risks of cases, only contingent fee contracts are offered in equilibrium.

In the next section we describe the model and derive our results. Section 3 concludes.

2 The model

A plaintiff has been a victim of an accident or a breach of contract. She sues the defendant to be paid damages. The plaintiff may either win or lose the case. When the case is lost, the plaintiff gets nothing. When the plaintiff wins, she gets either \underline{J} or \bar{J} with $\bar{J} > \underline{J} > 0$.

The strategy on how the case is presented in the courtroom determines the probability to prevail and the judgment.³ With the *safe strategy* the probability to prevail is p_s . If the case is won, the plaintiff gets \underline{J} with probability $q > 1/2$ and \bar{J} with probability $(1 - q)$. The safe strategy thus gives rise to an expected judgment conditional on winning of $E(\tilde{J}_s) = q\underline{J} + (1 - q)\bar{J}$.

The alternative is a risky strategy. With the *risky strategy* the probability to win is $p_r < p_s$. If the case is won, the plaintiff gets \underline{J} with probability $(1 - q)$ and \bar{J} with probability q . The risky strategy gives rise to an expected judgment conditional on winning of $E(\tilde{J}_r) = (1 - q)\underline{J} + q\bar{J} > E(\tilde{J}_s)$. Accordingly, the risky strategy has a higher expected judgment conditional on prevailing than the safe strategy, but the probability to win is lower.

As an example think of the strategies as the aggressiveness with which the lawyer presents the case. The attorney can go, e.g., for a long discovery

³As an alternative interpretation the strategy may determine the result of an out-of-court settlement.

process to be on the safe side. By contrast, he can ask for an early trial, forcing the defendant to make quick, and hopefully wrong, decisions.

We consider the case where $p_r E(\tilde{J}_r) > p_s E(\tilde{J}_s)$, i.e., the expected judgment is higher for the risky strategy; the risky strategy's lower probability to prevail is more than compensated by the higher expected judgment in case of winning.

The plaintiff is risk averse which is represented by her utility function over income $U(\cdot)$ with $U' > 0$ and $U'' < 0$. She has an initial wealth M . With the safe strategy her expected utility is given as

$$EU(p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = p_s q U(M + \underline{J}) + p_s (1 - q) U(M + \bar{J}) + (1 - p_s) U(M)$$

and with risky strategy her expected utility is

$$EU(p_r, \tilde{J}_r) = p_r (1 - q) U(M + \underline{J}) + p_r q U(M + \bar{J}) + (1 - p_r) U(M).$$

Let

$$EU(p_s, \tilde{J}_s) > EU(p_r, \tilde{J}_r), \quad (1)$$

i.e., as long as the plaintiff gets the entire judgment, she prefers the safe strategy although the expected judgment is lower. The risky strategy puts relatively more weight on the extreme outcomes of losing the case and winning \bar{J} whereas the safe strategy puts relatively more weight on winning \underline{J} . If $U(M)$ is sufficiently low and the utility doesn't increase too much by winning \bar{J} instead of \underline{J} , the plaintiff prefers the safe strategy although its expected judgment is lower.⁴

We look at the case where the expected judgment is higher with the risky strategy, yet the expected utility is higher with the safe strategy because this may create a conflict between the plaintiff and her lawyer as we will see below.

⁴As an example take $p_s = 2/3$, $p_r = 1/3$, $q = 1/4$, $\underline{J} = 1$, $\bar{J} = 6$, $U = \sqrt{\cdot}$, and $M = 2$.

To take the case to court the plaintiff needs an attorney. There is a large set of perfectly competitive lawyers. Attorneys are risk neutral. They provide effort $e \in \{0, v\}$. With zero effort the probability to prevail is zero. With high effort v the attorney can choose the safe or the risky strategy as described above. Effort is not observed by the client. When the lawyer is indifferent as to the choice of effort, he goes for high effort. Lawyers only incur the cost of effort which, for simplicity, equals the level of effort e .

Accordingly, given high effort lawyers have a reservation utility of v , i.e., if the plaintiff wants to implement high effort, besides providing proper incentives she has to offer the attorney a contract such that he gets an expected remuneration of v . Let $v \in [0, p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)]$ so that it pays for the plaintiff to hire an attorney and take the case to court.

The attorney picks the strategy with which the case is presented in the courtroom. This choice is not contractible. The plaintiff may, e.g., observe the discovery process, yet lack the expertise to tell whether the process is relatively short or not. In case of a settlement the plaintiff often doesn't observe the bargaining between her attorney and the defendant; the plaintiff only observes the outcome, see Kritzer (2004). Accordingly, a contract may only be conditioned on the outcome; it cannot be conditioned on the choice of strategy and on the effort level.

By giving lawyers the zero effort option, we effectively rule out contracts entailing fixed wages. To see this, first note that we do not allow for contracts with payments from the attorney to the client. We thus rule out the possibility that the lawyer buys the case from the client and we do not allow for penalties the lawyer has to pay to the client if the case is lost. This restriction is implied by the *champerty doctrine* in the US and the forbidden *pactum cuota litis* in Europe.⁵

⁵From earliest times the English system prohibited maintenance (the funding or other support of someone else's litigation), and champerty (the taking of a share of the spoils of litigation).

Therefore, in our set-up conditional fees can pay the lawyer a fixed wage plus a fixed extra if the case is won; contingent fees can give the attorney a fixed wage plus a share of the adjudicated amount. Now suppose that under either fee structure the fixed wage is positive. Then the lawyer can ensure himself a positive payoff: he provides zero effort and cashes in on the fixed wage. Due to competition this can, however, not happen in equilibrium: any positive payoff will be competed away. In equilibrium lawyers offer contracts the returns of which just cover their effort cost v .

Accordingly, given that we can rule out any fixed wage components, a *conditional fee contract* is given by

$$\begin{cases} d, & \text{if the case is won;} \\ 0, & \text{if the case is lost;} \end{cases}$$

with $d \geq 0$. A *contingent fee contract* is given by

$$\begin{cases} \alpha J, & \text{if the case is won;} \\ 0, & \text{if the case is lost;} \end{cases}$$

with $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. In what follows we will identify a conditional fee contract by d and a contingent fee contract by α .

Note the analogy between contingent and conditional fees and equity contracts and standard debt contracts (without collateral) to finance risky projects. Our cases are risky projects as are the investment opportunities of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs need capital from investors, our clients need effort from lawyers. Capital/effort are lost when the project fails/when the case is lost.

Under equity finance the investor gets a share of the project's returns. So does the attorney under contingent fees. Under a standard debt contract the investor gets a fixed payment (interest plus principle) in non-bankruptcy states and nothing in bankruptcy states. Under conditional fees the attorney gets a fixed premium if the case is won and nothing when the case is lost. Accordingly, contingent and conditional fees generate the same payoff structure as equity and standard debt finance. See Emons (2004).

Under the conditional fee contract d with high effort v the lawyer's expected utility with the safe strategy is $EV(d, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = p_s d - v$; under the risky strategy his expected utility amounts to $EV(d, p_r, \tilde{J}_r) = p_r d - v$. Under conditional fees the attorney gets the bonus d when he wins the case, independently of the judgment. Since $p_s > p_r$, the lawyer chooses the safe strategy under conditional fees. By conditioning only on the contingencies of winning and losing, the attorney has an incentive to maximize the probability of winning the case: conditional fees thus give the attorney the incentive to play it safe.

Under the contingent fee contract α with high effort v the lawyer's expected utility with the safe strategy is $EV(\alpha, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = \alpha p_s E(\tilde{J}_s) - v$; under the risky strategy his expected utility amounts to $EV(\alpha, p_r, \tilde{J}_r) = \alpha p_r E(\tilde{J}_r) - v$. Contingent fees condition not only on the events of winning and losing but also on the amount of the judgment: the higher the judgment, the higher the attorney's share. Since $p_r E(\tilde{J}_r) > p_s E(\tilde{J}_s)$, the lawyer chooses the risky strategy under contingent fees. The expected judgment is higher with the risky strategy. Contingent fees give the attorney a share of the judgment. Therefore, under contingent fees the lawyer prefers the risky strategy.

To summarize the attorney's incentives:

Proposition 1: *Under contingent fees the lawyer chooses the risky strategy whereas under conditional fees he prefers the safe strategy.*

Let us now look at the plaintiff's expected utility taking the attorney's behavior into account. Under conditional fees the lawyer chooses the safe strategy and the client's expected utility is

$$EU(d, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = p_s q U(M + \underline{J} - d) + p_s (1 - q) U(M + \bar{J} - d) + (1 - p_s) U(M).$$

Whenever the case is won, the plaintiff pays the lawyer the conditional fee d . The lawyer plays it safe, but plaintiff and attorney do not share the judgement risk: the spread for the plaintiff is $(\bar{J} - \underline{J})$.

Under contingent fees the lawyer chooses the risky strategy and the client's expected utility is

$$EU(\alpha, p_r, \tilde{J}_r) = p_r(1-q)U(M+(1-\alpha)\underline{J})+p_rqU(M+(1-\alpha)\bar{J})+(1-p_r)U(M).$$

Under contingent fees the plaintiff gets her share $(1 - \alpha)$ of the judgment. Here the lawyer goes for the risky strategy and at the same time insures the plaintiff: the spread for the plaintiff is $(1 - \alpha)(\bar{J} - \underline{J})$.

Since there is a large set of perfectly competitive attorneys, the equilibrium contract maximizes the plaintiff's expected utility subject to the constraint that the lawyer earns his reservation utility v . It turns out that for low levels of the lawyer's reservation utility v the plaintiff prefers the conditional contract, for high levels of v she goes for the contingent contract.

Proposition 2: *There exists a unique $\hat{v} \in (0, p_r E(\tilde{J}_r))$ such that for $v \leq \hat{v}$ the equilibrium is given by the conditional fee contract $d^* = v/p_s$ and for $v > \hat{v}$ by the contingent fee contract $\alpha^* = v/(p_r E(\tilde{J}_r))$, $v \in [0, p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)]$.*

Proof: Under the conditional fee $d^* = v/p_s$ the lawyer picks the safe strategy and $EV(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = p_s d^* - v = 0$; under the contingent fee $\alpha^* = v/(p_r E(\tilde{J}_r))$ he goes for the risky strategy and $EV(\alpha^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = \alpha^* p_r E(\tilde{J}_s) - v = 0$. Accordingly, under both contracts the lawyer breaks even with high effort.

Let us now look at the plaintiff. For $v = 0$, assumption (1) implies $EU(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) > EU(\alpha^*, p_r, \tilde{J}_r)$. For $v > p_s E(\tilde{J}_s)$, the client's expected income with the conditional fee and safe strategy equals $M + p_s E(\tilde{J}_s) - v < M$. Since the expected utility is less than the utility of the expected income, $EU(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) < U(M)$ for $v > p_s E(\tilde{J}_s)$. Under the contingent fee $EU(\alpha^*, p_r, \tilde{J}_r) \geq U(M)$ for $v \in [p_s E(\tilde{J}_s), p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)]$.

$EU(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s)$ and $EU(\alpha^*, p_r, \tilde{J}_r)$ are both continuous in v . Thus, the intermediate value theorem implies the existence of \hat{v} such that $EU(\hat{v}/p_s, p_s, \tilde{J}_s) = EU(\hat{v}/(p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)), p_r, \tilde{J}_r)$. Uniqueness of \hat{v} follows from the observation that

$\partial EU(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s)/\partial v < \partial EU(\alpha^*, p_r, \tilde{J}_r)/\partial v$ for all $v \in [0, p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)]$ which we show in the Appendix.

Q.E.D.

The intuition behind this result is as follows. When v is low, the plaintiff gets most of judgement under contingent and conditional fees. Assumption 1 implies that she prefers to play it safe in this case and, accordingly, she goes for conditional fees. When v is large, the attorney gets most of the surplus. Under contingent fees the attorney's share α of the judgement approaches one: he bears most of the judgement risk. Since the plaintiff is almost fully insured, she no longer cares much about the judgement risk. Thus, she prefers contingent fees to conditional fees where, despite the high d , the judgement spread is still $(\bar{J} - \underline{J})$. To put it differently: The higher v , the stronger becomes the insurance function of contingent fees.

3 Conclusions

In this paper we want highlight two points. First, conditional fees give the lawyer an incentive to maximize the probability of winning the case. Under contingent fees the attorney maximizes the expected judgement. Second, if the plaintiff is risk averse, there may be a conflict of interest between the plaintiff and her lawyer. If the cost of hiring a lawyer is low, the plaintiff seeks insurance through conditional fees which induce the safe bet. If, by contrast, lawyers are expensive, the plaintiff prefers contingent fees shifting most of the judgement risk to the lawyer.

One implication of the paper is that in a regime where conditional fees are allowed but contingent fees are forbidden, we should expect inefficient contracting for high costs of lawyering. Conditional fees do not allow for the sharing of the risk of a high or a low judgement. Compared to fixed wages they do, however, share the risk of winning and losing the case.

A second implication of the paper is the choice of lawyer fees as a response

to the tension between plaintiff and lawyer concerning the litigation strategy. Therefore, an important aspect is how much control plaintiffs have over the choice of litigation strategy. Corporate clients usually keep a significant control over litigation, in part due to in-house legal counselling. For them the tension we analyze seems to be less of a problem. Individual clients usually lack the expertise to exert any significant control over their cases. For these clients conditional fees can be a useful means to induce a safe litigation strategy. To put it in terms of our example: a client can be assured that under conditional fees the lawyer behaves less aggressively than under contingent fees.

One argument against contingency fees is that they induce lawyers to settle cases too quickly. The attorney's return per hour invested in the case is higher if the case is settled rather than taken to court; see, e.g., Kritzer (2004). If we interpret the safe litigation strategy as going for a quick settlement, then this criticism applies even more to conditional fees.

Appendix

Here we show that the plaintiff's expected utility decreases more with v under conditional than under contingent fees.

$$\frac{\partial EU(d^*, p_s, \tilde{J}_s)}{\partial v} < \frac{\partial EU(\alpha^*, p_r, \tilde{J}_r)}{\partial v} \iff$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(\tilde{J}_r)[qU'(M + \underline{J} - d^*) + (1 - q)U'(M + \bar{J} - d^*)] > \\ \underline{J}(1 - q)U'(M + (1 - \alpha^*)\underline{J}) + \bar{J}qU'(M + (1 - \alpha^*)\bar{J}) \iff \end{aligned}$$

LHS :=

$$\begin{aligned} [q\underline{J} + q^2(\bar{J} - \underline{J})]U'(M + \underline{J} - d^*) - (\underline{J} - q\underline{J})U'(M + (1 - \alpha^*)\underline{J}) > \\ q\bar{J}U'(M + (1 - \alpha^*)\bar{J}) - [(\underline{J} - 2q\underline{J} + q\bar{J} - q^2(\bar{J} - \underline{J}))U'(M + \bar{J} - d^*)] := \end{aligned}$$

RHS

$$\begin{aligned} LHS > [2q\underline{J} - \underline{J} + q^2(\bar{J} - \underline{J})]U'(M + \underline{J} - d^*) > \\ [2q\underline{J} - \underline{J} + q^2(\bar{J} - \underline{J})]U'(M + (1 - \alpha^*)\bar{J}) > RHS \end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality holds because $\underline{J} - d^* < (1 - \alpha^*)\bar{J}$ for all $v \in [0, p_r E(\tilde{J}_r)]$.

Q.E.D.

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