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2 **Jury Impartiality in the Modern Era**

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8 **Overview**

9 The strength of the jury system in an adversarial
10 system of justice depends on the impartiality
11 of the jurors. Yet the rapid evolution of
12 Internet-based communication technologies
13 poses serious challenges to the traditional
14 concept of juror impartiality. It is now possible
15 for jurors to access virtually any piece of
16 published information about pending cases
17 in minutes, and the volume of potentially
18 case-relevant information is growing exponen-
19 tially. Many jurors have become accustomed to
20 using these technologies to conduct research and
21 communicate with friends and family. For some
22 jurors, reliance on these technologies has become
23 so ingrained that it would require conscious effort
24 to refrain from doing so for the duration of a trial.

25 This entry discusses the notion of what it
26 means for a juror to be and to remain impartial
27 in the digital age. First, it focuses on the impact of
28 new media on how jurors acquire and process
29 information. Then it discusses the impact of
30 new media on public perceptions of the justice
31 system, especially in high-profile trials. Finally, it

examines the viability of traditional judicial 32
responses to the newly wired and media-saturated 33
jury pool. It concludes with some sobering 34
reflections about the ability of the justice system 35
to keep up with these technological changes. 36

The Traditional Concept of Juror Impartiality

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39 The strength of the jury in an adversarial system
40 of justice is the impartiality of the jurors. 41
Impartial jurors are those who are willing and 42
able to consider the evidence presented at 43
trial without preconceived opinions about the 44
defendant's guilt or innocence, to apply the 45
governing law as instructed by the trial judge, 46
and to deliberate in good faith to render 47
a legally and factually justifiable verdict. 48
Traditionally, the process of identifying impartial 49
jurors focused on voir dire during which 50
judges and lawyers questioned jurors about their 51
knowledge of the facts of the case, opinions 52
about issues that might arise during trial, or life 53
experiences that might affect how jurors perceive 54
the evidence they would hear during the course 55
of the trial. Once the judge and lawyers had 56
removed biased jurors, the trial would begin. 57
Except under very unusual circumstances, 58
there was little risk that the selected jurors 59
might lose their impartiality during the remainder 60
of the trial.

61 The rapid evolution of various types of new
62 media over the past two decades poses serious

63 challenges to this concept of juror impartiality.
64 Internet-based technologies now make it possible
65 for jurors to access virtually any piece of
66 published information about pending cases in
67 minutes, regardless of when or where published.
68 Many jurors have become accustomed to using
69 these technologies to conduct research and to
70 communicate with friends and family. For
71 some jurors, reliance on these technologies for
72 everyday tasks has become so ingrained that it
73 would require conscious effort to refrain from
74 doing so for the duration of a trial. As a result,
75 judges and lawyers can no longer be confident
76 either that a sufficient number of prospective
77 jurors on any given panel will meet the traditional
78 definition of impartiality or that the jurors
79 selected for trial will remain so for the entire trial.

80 The volume of potentially case-relevant
81 information that might jeopardize juror
82 impartiality is also growing exponentially with
83 the proliferation of various types of news media
84 including traditional media outlets as well as
85 cable news organizations, online print media,
86 and specialty blogs. The traditional news cycle
87 involved at most daily updates, but some trials
88 now receive continual, minute-by-minute, 24/7
89 news coverage as well as ongoing commentary
90 and background information based on interviews
91 with trial attorneys, litigants, witnesses, and even
92 less central players such as coworkers, neighbors,
93 and childhood friends. This level of media
94 saturation exposes a larger number of prospective
95 jurors to potentially prejudicial information about
96 more upcoming trials than ever before in history,
97 making it more difficult to select impartial jurors
98 for trial and to maintain their impartiality
99 throughout the trial.

100 Traditional approaches to minimizing
101 these effects seem to be losing their
102 effectiveness given the volume and intensity of
103 trial information available to prospective jurors.
104 Some of the most pressing concerns in
105 contemporary jury system management are
106 the impact of these technologies on juror
107 decision-making and on public perceptions of
108 the justice system.

The Impact of New Media on Juror Decision-Making

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111 In a provocative essay published in the
112 July/August 2008 issue of *Atlantic Monthly*,
113 Nicholas Carr described how his use of the
114 Internet seemed to be changing how his brain
115 operates, especially his memory and his capacity
116 for sustained concentration. The article provided
117 an overview of how the development of various
118 technologies – written language, the mechanical
119 clock, the printing press, radio and television – all
120 affected the brain’s neural circuitry. For the most
121 part, those changes had a positive impact on
122 civilization, both increasing the scope of human
123 knowledge and distributing it more widely.
124 He then posited that the Internet, which he
125 describes as an immeasurably powerful
126 computing system, might be affecting a similar
127 shift in human cognitive ability. Preliminary
128 neurological studies suggest that Carr’s insights
129 may be quite accurate. If so, that prospect
130 will have a profound impact on juror
131 decision-making, especially how trial jurors
132 receive and interpret information during the
133 course of a trial.

134 Much of the existing scientific literature on
135 juror decision-making is grounded in
136 theories derived from cognitive psychology that
137 individuals engage in schematic processing to
138 interpret their environment efficiently and
139 effectively. “Schemas” act as cognitive filters
140 through which individuals identify people
141 and situations quickly, according to familiar
142 paradigms. For jurors, these schemas take the form
143 of preconceptions and knowledge of the world
144 that they use to construct narratives or stories
145 from trial evidence and fill in missing details to
146 increase the story’s internal consistency and
147 convergence with their world knowledge. This
148 cognitive processing helps jurors assess the trial
149 evidence for credibility, consistency, and relative
150 importance. Contemporary researchers refer
151 to this theory as the “story model” of juror
152 decision-making. In more colloquial terms, jurors
153 bring their common sense and community values
154 to inform judgments about a criminal defendant’s
155 guilt or a civil defendant’s liability for damages.

156 During deliberations, jurors compare these 204
157 individual narratives and, except in very 205
158 rare exceptions, arrive at a consensus about the 206
159 “correct” interpretation of the evidence and 207
160 application of the governing law to produce 208
161 a legally valid decision. 209

162 Historically, this process took place during 210
163 trial as the lawyers presented each new piece of 211
164 evidence to the jury through direct and cross- 212
165 examination of witnesses. The question-and- 213
166 answer format through which attorneys elicit 214
167 oral testimony to support their respective theory 215
168 of the case was originally intended to provide 216
169 jurors with an unvarnished and neutral presenta- 217
170 tion of trial evidence. The format is exceedingly 218
171 archaic and is almost never employed in other 219
172 settings in which information is communicated 220
173 to a lay audience. The jurors’ task can be tremen- 221
174 dously complicated insofar that it involves taking 222
175 the individual bits of trial evidence and piecing 223
176 them together into a coherent picture. In most 224
177 trials, however, the relatively slow and methodical 225
178 nature of the trial process, often interrupted by 226
179 trial recesses and sidebar conferences between 227
180 the judge and trial attorneys, provided ample 228
181 time for jurors to reflect carefully on the evidence 229
182 and make sense of the disparate pieces. 230

183 There are two significant implications of the 231
184 changes wrought in neurological processing by 232
185 increased use of new media. First, contemporary 233
186 jurors are increasingly accustomed to the 234
187 fast-paced and constant mode of transmission 235
188 that one expects from handheld devices and 236
189 Internet surfing in which readers jump from 237
190 hyperlink to hyperlink, skimming materials for 238
191 key nuggets of critical information without 239
192 stopping to digest the entire webpage. In addition 240
193 to reflexively seeking out information online 241
194 with which to better understand the world, 242
195 contemporary jurors are also accustomed to 243
196 receiving constant updates in the form of e-mail 244
197 and text messages, tweets, and notices from 245
198 social networking sites that do not require active 246
199 intent to acquire new information. They just 247
200 arrive, unsolicited, on one’s computer screen 248
201 or smart phone with information formatted 249
202 in the highly abbreviated style of headlines, 250
203 sound bites, and bullet points. Communication 251

in the Internet Age must conform to the 204
“140 characters or less” requirement or risk 205
losing the intended audience in the confusion or 206
boredom of excessive detail and nuance. The 207
traditional style of trial procedure is more and 208
more likely to perplex and antagonize jurors 209
who will have greater difficulty making sense 210
of how its organizational framework presents 211
disparate and detailed pieces of trial evidence. 212

213 Second, there is the possibility that contempo- 214
215 rary jurors are cognitively either less reliant on or 216
217 less confident in their collective common sense 218
and community values and thus find it necessary 219
to verify initial impressions about the evidence or 220
to supplement it with external sources found 221
online. Their cognitive schemas are no longer 222
purely internal psychological constructions, but 223
rather exist as an externalized collective schema 224
in “the cloud” where they can be accessed with 225
the click of a mouse. As the urge to use these 226
technologies becomes stronger and the ability to 227
do so becomes easier, judges and trial lawyers 228
will find it increasingly difficult to block juror 229
access to these potentially prejudicial sources 230
of extraneous information so that jurors might 231
maintain some semblance of impartiality until 232
the evidentiary portion of the trial is complete. 233

234 At this time, it is uncertain how often jurors 235
236 already access the Internet on a routine basis. 237
238 In a preliminary study of the frequency of juror 239
240 and jury use of new media, the National Center 241
242 for State Courts (NCSC) found that sizeable 243
244 portions of trial jurors reported interest in using 245
246 new media to conduct research on case-related 247
248 topics and to communicate with friends and 249
250 family about their jury service experience. 251
Although the vast majority of jurors in that
study had daily, if not immediate, access to new
media, none of them admitted to acting on that
desire. That study involved a very small sample
of trials; however, it is clear from court opinions
and news stories discussing the problem of
the “Googling juror” that the risk is not
purely hypothetical. In a review of court
opinions published between 1998 and 2010,
Thompson-Reuters reported that at least 90
verdicts were challenged based on claims of
Internet-related juror misconduct. One-half of

252 those challenges occurred between 2008 and
253 2010. In 28 cases, civil and criminal, new trials
254 were granted or verdicts overturned. Even
255 where judges declined to declare a mistrial, in
256 three-quarters of the cases, the courts held that
257 Internet-related misconduct had occurred.
258 Indeed, it is likely that the frequency of juror
259 use of new media is much greater than written
260 court opinions reflect as many such instances
261 would not result in a written opinion. In fact,
262 most would likely go undetected.

263 The crux of the dilemma for the justice
264 system is the impending collision between the
265 traditional view of juror impartiality and
266 contemporary jurors' increasing reliance on
267 new media to inform their decision-making. The
268 traditional strength of the jury system rests on
269 the assumption that the jury considers only
270 evidence properly admitted at trial. Jurors take
271 an oath at the beginning of the trial to render
272 a "true verdict . . . according to the evidence,
273 without fear, favor, or affection, and . . . governed
274 by the instructions of the court." Intentionally
275 seeking extraneous information about
276 case-related topics is a clear violation of the
277 juror's oath and can result in a mistrial or
278 overturned verdict. As individuals increasingly
279 rely on the Internet to access information to help
280 navigate their environment and interpret the
281 world, it will likely become ever more difficult
282 to prevent them from doing so when serving as
283 trial jurors. After all, jurors understand that jury
284 service is a serious task that requires the greatest
285 degree of attention and competence. It will
286 become increasingly counterintuitive to jurors
287 that they would violate a solemn oath by using
288 the very tools on which they normally rely to
289 inform their judgments in serious matters.

290 To a certain extent, trial courts have already
291 accepted, and even embraced, a seismic shift in
292 jurors' role in the trial process by adopting
293 trial techniques (e.g., juror note taking, juror
294 submission of written questions to witnesses,
295 juror discussion of evidence before final
296 deliberations) that facilitate active learning
297 styles. Traditionally, it was assumed that juror
298 passivity helped to maintain their impartiality.
299 Contemporary empirical research confirms that

enforced passivity does not significantly enhance 300
impartiality and, in fact, can seriously undermine 301
juror performance and satisfaction. The transition 302
to the "active juror" model mirrors many trends 303
in contemporary life in which individuals are 304
encouraged to assume a more active role. 305
In health care, financial management, and 306
continuing education, for example, responsible 307
and competent behavior is defined by a person's 308
willingness and ability to undertake an active 309
partnership with professionals to accomplish 310
both personal and collective tasks. The key 311
question in the context of contemporary jury 312
service is whether Internet use is a legitimate 313
tool to aid juror decision-making (as appears to 314
be the case for increasing numbers of jurors) or 315
a serious breach of juror impartiality that 316
threatens the legitimacy of the jury's verdict. 317

The latter viewpoint predominates among 318
contemporary trial judges and lawyers. 319
Responses to this type of "juror misconduct" 320
run the gamut from education and outreach to 321
persuade prospective jurors not to engage in 322
Internet use during trial and deliberations, to 323
preventive measures intended to block juror 324
access to the Internet, to punitive measures 325
imposed on jurors who disobey direct orders 326
to forego the Internet for the duration of the 327
trial. Increasingly, informational booklets and 328
orientation programs for prospective jurors 329
emphasize the importance of not accessing 330
the Internet during trial. Many judges and 331
lawyers now question prospective jurors about 332
their Internet use during voir dire to screen out 333
jurors who indicate reluctance to adhering to 334
prohibitions on juror use of new media. Jury 335
instructions have become increasingly specific 336
about prohibitions on various types of the online 337
activities. Judges repeat these instructions more 338
frequently throughout the trial to remind jurors 339
of these prohibitions and to emphasize their 340
importance. Hoping that jurors who understand 341
the underlying rationale for the prohibition on 342
Internet use will be more likely to comply, some 343
judges also explain that extraneous information 344
encountered online is not evidence and deserves 345
no weight in the jurors' deliberations. Finally, 346
some courts ban all forms of electronic devices 347

348 from the courthouse or confiscate such
349 devices from jurors during trial and deliberations.
350 Ironically, some courts have proposed using
351 technology to combat problems associated with
352 juror use of technology including blocking
353 electronic transmissions in courtrooms and jury
354 deliberation rooms to prevent juror misconduct.
355 When prevention is insufficient, judges are
356 also becoming more willing to punish jurors for
357 violating the admonition and to consider posttrial
358 challenges to verdicts based on juror misconduct.

359 **Impact of New Media on Public** 360 **Perceptions of the Jury System**

361 Because jurors are drawn from the community at
362 large, they reflect the general social outlook and
363 values of their communities. Indeed, one of the
364 primary roles of the jury is to inject community
365 values into judicial decision-making. Although,
366 as designed, the voir dire process identifies and
367 removes jurors who hold such strong opinions
368 about case-specific issues that they could not
369 serve fairly and impartially, those opinions will
370 still be present in the public at large. This is
371 particularly the case in high-profile trials that
372 generate considerable media attention. One of
373 the great ironies of contemporary society is the
374 apparent disconnect between the jurors' trial
375 and the public trial. Trial jurors will largely
376 be isolated from ongoing media coverage of the
377 trial. All the while, public sentiment may become
378 even more inflamed over the course of the trial in
379 reaction to evidence admitted at trial as well as
380 media commentary on that evidence and non-trial
381 information disclosed by the litigants, lawyers,
382 and witnesses. In essence, a high-profile trial is
383 actually two very different trials – one that the
384 sworn trial jurors experience and one that
385 the public observes as quasi-jurors, which can
386 sometimes lead to very different conclusions
387 about the appropriate verdict. Recent examples
388 include O.J. Simpson's acquittal of murder
389 charges, Michael Jackson's acquittal of
390 child molestation charges, life sentences rather
391 than the death penalty for Terry Nichols
392 (coconspirator in the Oklahoma City bombing)

and Zaccarias Moussoui (the alleged 20th 393
hijacker in the September 11th terrorist attacks), 394
and the acquittal of Casey Anthony on charges of 395
murdering her 2-year-old daughter. 396

Different degrees of information presented to 397
the public also result in a blurring of the 398
line between news reporting, education, and 399
entertainment, between fiction and reality. Much 400
of what the public knows about what actually 401
occurs in the courtroom is what the ever-merging 402
news and entertainment outlets portray. While 403
reports on trial events provide a glimpse into 404
how the justice system works or does not work, 405
most people do not have a realistic sense of what 406
it is like to serve as a juror in an actual trial. 407
People routinely report that their primary source 408
of courtroom knowledge comes from television 409
trial shows such as the *People's Court* and crime 410
dramas such as *Law and Order*. 411

The various iterations of entertainment shows 412
and news outlets affect the public's expectation 413
about the justice system and jury verdicts. The 414
number of law enforcement and forensic-based 415
crime dramas on television (e.g., *CSI* and its 416
numerous iterations) outnumbers the number of 417
actual trial drama shows. Yet an underlying 418
theme across all of them portrays a fast-paced 419
trial that is resolved in an hour or less with 420
justice unequivocally done. Cable television's 421
24-hours news coverage and shows such as 422
Court TV provide what appears to the public as 423
the inside story with all of the facts revealed 424
including commentaries by so-called experts. 425
Inherent in most jury trials, however, is the reality 426
that trial evidence is often ambiguous, 427
conflicting, and incomplete; the law articulated 428
in jury instructions sometimes borders on 429
incoherence; jury deliberations can be quite 430
contentious; and jurors may nevertheless harbor 431
some doubts (albeit not reasonable doubts) about 432
a defendant's guilt even after returning 433
a guilty verdict. 434

The public forum for hearing jury trials, as 435
guaranteed by the Sixth Amendment, was seen 436
by the founders as a safeguard for the defendant 437
against abuses by the government. Freedom of 438
the press under the First Amendment was 439
intended to protect the people, to be the voice of 440

441 the community. The tension between the two,
442 spurred along by new media in the Information
443 Age, contributes to a decline in the public's trust
444 and confidence in the jury system. The courts
445 depend on the jurors as representatives of their
446 respective communities to provide legitimacy to
447 the justice system. As such, central to the mission
448 of the courts is a way to maintain the public's
449 trust and confidence in trial by jury as an effective
450 way to resolve disputes. When there is public
451 outrage over a perceived injustice, especially in
452 a notorious trial, the courts must work quickly
453 and effectively to counter the public's doubt.

454 Courts now use many contemporary
455 communications tools and techniques to make
456 the justice system appear more accessible and
457 more transparent. Some provide online access to
458 court documents including filings and decisions.
459 Others offer real-time video feeds of court
460 proceedings. Many courts, especially in urban
461 areas, now employ public information officers
462 who are specifically tasked with communicating
463 information about the court's mission and role in
464 contemporary society to the public. Inherent in
465 that task, however, is the paradoxical challenge
466 that the culture of the court is fundamentally at
467 odds with the societal culture that has
468 developed with and in response to these new
469 communication technologies. A recent study
470 entitled "New Media and the Courts:
471 Current Status and a Look at the Future,"
472 undertaken by the Conference of Court
473 Public Information Officers, observed that
474 courts rely almost exclusively on textual
475 communication – written opinions and court
476 orders – to speak publicly. This mode of public
477 communication, detailing the proven facts
478 and logic on which court decisions were
479 made, underscored the message that the court's
480 legitimacy rested firmly on the rule of law.
481 Moreover, court communication is primarily
482 hierarchical and unidirectional; opinions and
483 court orders are intended as the final word to be
484 obeyed. They are not intended as an invitation
485 for further discussion except within the
486 highly stylized procedures of a legal challenge
487 to those orders.

488 In contrast, the Internet is a multimedia 488
489 environment offering visual and audio formats 489
490 to communicate in addition to traditional 490
491 text. These technologies also are intended to 491
492 be interactive and to encourage collective 492
493 decision-making on the largest scale possible. 493
494 While many court public information officers 494
495 have made tremendous progress in incorporating 495
496 some new media tools and strategies, at least to 496
497 communicate non-case-specific information to 497
498 the public, it is not clear that they will ever fully 498
499 harmonize these two incongruous cultures 499
500 without a radical reconceptualization of 500
501 many of the fundamental principles of judicial 501
502 independence and legitimacy. 502

503 **The Continued Viability of Judicial**
504 **Responses to Counter the Effects**
505 **of Pretrial and Trial Publicity**

506 High-profile trials cause the most difficulty by 506
507 far for judges and lawyers in terms of how to 507
508 mitigate the impact of pretrial publicity on 508
509 prospective jurors. Trials can become the focus 509
510 of intense media attention for a variety of reasons. 510
511 Sometimes the litigants, witnesses, or victims are 511
512 celebrities, such as in the O.J. Simpson and 512
513 Michael Jackson trials. Sometimes the case 513
514 involves particularly violent or heinous crimes 514
515 that shock the community, including the 515
516 Oklahoma City bombing trials, the Unabomber 516
517 trial, and the Moussaoui terrorism trial. 517
518 Sometimes the case raises controversial social 518
519 or political issues, including the California 519
520 Proposition 8 trial involving the constitutionality 520
521 of same-sex marriage or the prosecution of 521
522 financial fraud charges against key executives at 522
523 Enron and WorldCom. The media themselves 523
524 sometimes highlight particular cases, such as 524
525 when Headline News (HLN) anchor Nancy 525
526 Grace took on the Casey Anthony trial as 526
527 a personal cause célèbre to see justice done for 527
528 a murdered child. And sometimes there is 528
529 no apparent reason other than a slow news 529
530 day for a case to suddenly attract great 530
531 media attention. 531

532 The key issue for courts concerning both the
533 scope and tone of media treatment of pending
534 cases is the impact that it will have on jurors'
535 judgments of defendant guilt, the conditions
536 under which those effects will most likely
537 occur, and the remedial efforts, if any, that are
538 most likely to minimize those effects. Over the
539 past 40 years, numerous empirical studies have
540 attempted to examine these questions, sometimes
541 with inconclusive or even contradictory results,
542 using a variety of methodological and analytical
543 approaches. A meta-analysis (Stebly et al.) of 23
544 such studies published between 1966 and 1997
545 offers some well-documented findings on this
546 question. First and foremost, it is clear from the
547 studies that jurors exposed to negative pretrial
548 publicity are more likely to judge defendants
549 guilty compared to jurors exposed to less
550 pretrial publicity or at least more neutral pretrial
551 publicity. The effect was documented most
552 acutely in those studies that employed
553 jury-eligible citizens as study participants com-
554 pared to those that employed students. The
555 amount of detail communicated in media
556 accounts (e.g., crime details, arrest information,
557 confessions, prior criminal record, and other
558 incriminating evidence) as well as accounts that
559 employed both video and print media produced
560 greater effects than studies that focused on just
561 one type of pretrial publicity. Crimes involving
562 violence, especially homicide and sexual
563 abuse, also produced greater effects on juror
564 judgments of defendant guilt than other types
565 of crimes. Even general publicity, not
566 specifically related to the case at hand, which
567 included a discussion of similar legal concepts
568 (e.g., eyewitness identification) or case facts
569 (e.g., acquaintance rape) had an indelible impact
570 on juror decision-making.

571 Of critical importance, these studies
572 collectively confirm that the impact of pretrial
573 publicity on individual juror judgments
574 about defendant culpability carries through to
575 the collective verdicts rendered by juries.
576 Remedial efforts employed by courts
577 (e.g., brief trial continuances, expanded voir
578 dire, judicial instruction, trial evidence, and jury
579 deliberation) do not effectively counter the

580 biasing effects of pretrial publicity. Instead,
581 pretrial publicity exerts a disproportionate
582 imprint on juror memory compared to the
583 evidence actually presented at trial. Most of
584 these studies predate the advent of the Internet
585 Age, or at least its apparent effects on human
586 neural circuitry, so it remains to be seen whether
587 these effects are accentuated or attenuated by
588 frequent Internet use.

589 Traditional mechanisms for mitigating the
590 impact of pretrial publicity include trial delay,
591 a change of venue or impaneling an out-of-county
592 jury, and extensive voir dire including the use of
593 written juror questionnaires. Unfortunately, the
594 approaches to addressing publicity concerns
595 may not be as viable as they once were given
596 the geographic reach and intensity of 24-hours
597 news coverage. Multiple news media, along with
598 the varied reliability of the information source,
599 simply reach more people, often delivered as an
600 unfiltered or even politicized message. Finally,
601 court use of anonymous juries to prevent commu-
602 nication affecting jury decision-making, such as
603 that of external jury tampering or intimidation, is
604 also explored as a valid response.

605 **Change of Venue**

606 One response to pretrial publicity is to delay
607 a trial date as news often migrates "off the front
608 page." Ironically, that phrase was derived from
609 the traditional print newspaper of the past. In our
610 technology-saturated culture, such a topic is no
611 longer the most popular tweet or the post no
612 longer appears in the current news feed section.
613 As a result, people forget the details they read
614 initially. While Internet postings are virtually
615 eternal, they migrate to the less-visible archive
616 sections. There is no guarantee, however, that an
617 interested juror would be unable to access the old
618 information quickly, if he or she desired. This is
619 in stark contrast to the era of newspapers in which
620 the juror would be required to spend significantly
621 more time to be able to uncover the details of
622 a past news event and would most likely need to
623 physically leave the courtroom to accomplish
624 this task. The loss of control over the flow of
625 information into and out of the courtroom has
626 indeed left some courts unprepared.

627 Although a change of venue is an option
628 for courts, numerous notorious trials have
629 been successfully tried in the original venue
630 (e.g., the Nanny trial and a series of well-known
631 Mafia cases), and legitimate concerns about
632 the logistical and financial burdens arise when
633 moving the trial. The proposed venue must also
634 resemble the original community in terms of both
635 demographic and attitudinal characteristics due
636 to the historical importance of public access. The
637 US Supreme Court in *Murphy v. Florida*, 421 US
638 794 (1975), addressed the level of pretrial
639 publicity that deems one incapable of being
640 impartial. The decision did not require jurors to
641 be completely unaware of publicity, but to be
642 able to set aside the information and judge the
643 defendant solely on the information provided in
644 the courtroom. Courts have developed a fairly
645 consistent analytical framework for determining
646 whether the extent and tone of pretrial publicity
647 have so “poisoned” the local jurisdiction that
648 a change of venue is necessary. In *Irvin v.*
649 *Dowd*, 366 US 723 (1961), the US Supreme
650 Court wrote that if “an appellant can demonstrate
651 that prejudicial, inflammatory publicity about his
652 case so saturated the community from which his
653 jury was drawn as to render it virtually impossible
654 to obtain an impartial jury, then proof of such
655 poisonous publicity raises a presumption that
656 appellant’s jury was prejudiced, relieving him
657 of the obligation to establish actual prejudice
658 by a juror in his case.” The presumption is
659 rebuttable, however; if the government demon-
660 strates that an impartial jury was actually
661 impaneled in the appellant’s case, the conviction
662 will stand despite appellant’s showing of adverse
663 pretrial publicity.

664 The question for contemporary courts trying
665 the most high-profile cases is whether *any* venue
666 can satisfy these requirements. Timothy
667 McVeigh’s trial moved from Oklahoma City to
668 Denver, but that was only possible because
669 the trial was held in federal court. State court,
670 by definition, would be required to maintain
671 jurisdiction and hold the trial within the same
672 state. The Washington DC Sniper trial moved
673 from Fairfax, Virginia (a suburb of Washington,
674 DC), to the southern tidewater area of

Chesapeake/Virginia Beach. Complicating the
675 matter, some news accounts indicated the sniper
676 had been in the tidewater area of Virginia,
677 possibly seeking additional victims, before
678 capture, raising the possibility that prospective
679 jurors in that venue would be similarly biased.
680 The saturation of national news undermines the
681 widespread effectiveness of granting a change of
682 venue to overcome the challenge of impaneling
683 a fair and impartial jury for it will be increasingly
684 difficult to locate an alternative venue not
685 equally affected. 686

The Supreme Court recently revisited this
687 framework in *US v. Jeffrey Skilling*, in which
688 the Enron CEO was convicted of multiple counts
689 of securities and wire fraud involving the collapse
690 of the Enron Corporation. The court ultimately
691 held that the amount and tone of pretrial publicity
692 about the Enron collapse was insufficient to
693 establish a presumption that the jury pool was
694 prejudiced, and in any case, the fact that Skilling
695 only challenged one juror for cause and the jury
696 returned acquittals on nine counts of insider
697 trading demonstrated that the impaneled jury
698 was, in fact, impartial. 699

Intensive Voir Dire 700

Another traditional mechanism for addressing
701 pretrial publicity is to conduct intensive voir
702 dire. A written juror questionnaire is often given
703 to potential jurors to identify potential bias.
704 Although case law varies in state courts
705 concerning the scope of permissible questions,
706 the strength of using such a questionnaire is its
707 ability to elicit truthful information from the
708 potential jurors about bias, including attitudes
709 about the specific case as well as underlying
710 attitudes about relevant case issues (e.g., personal
711 experience with substance abuse). Conducting
712 voir dire through written questionnaires in
713 addition to oral questioning in the courtroom is
714 more likely to uncover sensitive or personal
715 information that may affect the juror’s ability to
716 be fair and impartial. Courts have identified a
717 number of factors relevant to whether the voir
718 dire in a case involving extensive and prejudicial
719 pretrial publicity would be adequate to impanel
720 an impartial jury including (1) the percentage of
721

722 the entire pool of veniremembers who evidenced
723 bias; (2) whether the court questioned the
724 veniremembers individually; (3) whether the
725 court questioned the veniremembers thoroughly
726 concerning their knowledge of the circumstances
727 surrounding the alleged crime; (4) whether the
728 court asked each veniremember specifically
729 about the nature and extent of any preconceived
730 notions; (5) whether the court asked each
731 veniremember about his or her capability to
732 render an impartial verdict; (6) the length of
733 time the process took; (7) whether the
734 court examined the veniremembers outside the
735 presence of other veniremembers; (8) whether
736 the attorneys had the opportunity to
737 recommend further inquiries, and (9) whether
738 the judge . . . inquired into the prospective jurors'
739 exposure to publicity and ability to render a fair
740 and impartial verdict.

741 If these remedies are no longer viable, at least
742 in the most notorious trials, what else can
743 be done? Or do courts simply acknowledge that
744 the traditional view of juror impartiality cannot
745 be achieved under these circumstances? If
746 impartiality is an elusive goal, the courts would
747 have to accept a compromised version of justice,
748 mitigating to the greatest extent possible the
749 problems while hoping for the best outcome.

750 **Anonymous Juries and Jury Sequestration**

751 In recent times, judges have become more likely
752 to use anonymity measures (protecting the juror's
753 identities). In the trial of Illinois governor Rod
754 Blagojevich on public corruption charges, Judge
755 James B. Zagel ordered that jurors' names not be
756 disclosed publicly until after the trial ended. He
757 noted that he had personally received dozens of
758 letters, telephone calls, and e-mails from the
759 public concerning the trial and was concerned
760 that jurors would also be targeted for harassment
761 or intimidation if their names became
762 public. He noted that prohibiting jurors from
763 using e-mail or other Internet technologies to
764 communicate with friends and family about
765 non-trial matters for the duration of the 4-month
766 trial would impose an extraordinary burden on
767 them, and other means of screening jurors'
768 personal correspondence, e-mail, and telephone

calls would be similarly intrusive. Jury 769
sequestration, which can also be used to insulate 770
jurors from outside influence, is expensive to 771
the court and onerous on the jurors, their 772
families, and the courts. Consequently, it is 773
rarely employed except in the most extreme 774
circumstances. Local and national media 775
outlets challenged the order on First Amendment 776
right to access government proceedings in 777
an interlocutory appeal to the federal Seventh 778
Circuit of Appeal. Historically, anonymous juries 779
were rarely permitted in the federal courts unless 780
the trial judge made specific factual findings 781
concerning the immediate risk of jury tampering 782
or intimidation. The fact that Judge Zabel's order 783
ultimately prevailed illustrates the point 784
that many courts have come to appreciate 785
that contemporary communications technologies 786
pose as great a risk or more to juror impartiality as 787
traditional in-person approaches, in part due to 788
the substantially larger pool of Internet-savvy 789
people who might be inclined to contact 790
jurors in high-profile cases. 791

792 **Conclusions**

The introduction and evolution of Internet tech- 793
nologies that has taken place over the past two 794
decades has introduced a number of challenges to 795
the concept of juror impartiality. In many 796
instances, these challenges are simply extensions 797
of the types of challenges that courts have faced 798
in the past – and for which highly effective strat- 799
egies exist. A thorough voir dire can identify 800
jurors who cannot serve fairly and impartially 801
due to personal knowledge about the case, expo- 802
sure to pretrial publicity, or preconceived opin- 803
ions or bias about case-related factors. Effective 804
pretrial instructions about independent research 805
and communications with family and friends can 806
inform jurors about necessary restrictions on their 807
activities during trial to prevent them from being 808
exposed to potentially prejudicial information. 809
Very high-profile trials may require additional 810
measures including anonymous or sequestered 811
juries to prevent jury tampering or intimidation 812
by electronic means. 813

814 Although these are all tried and true
815 techniques that require only a little tweaking
816 to be equally useful for maintaining juror
817 impartiality in the Internet Age, some aspects of
818 modern telecommunications technologies appear
819 to affect jurors and jury trials in a qualitatively
820 different way. Perhaps the most troublesome is
821 the apparent impact that frequent juror use of
822 Internet technologies is having on cognitive
823 behavior, especially the ability to retain and
824 interpret information. Future jurors may not be
825 as effective as decision-makers unless they are
826 permitted to access the Internet to supplement
827 and interpret the evidence they are given at trial.
828 That access, however, is currently prohibited on
829 grounds that doing so would undermine juror
830 impartiality. It is hard to imagine a more direct
831 confrontation of traditional trial procedure and
832 modern technological innovation. It is not clear
833 how new media will ultimately change how we
834 think about courts, about jurors and their role in
835 the justice system, and about how jurors should
836 fulfill that role, but it is clear that some change
837 will ultimately occur.

838 Similarly, the overwhelming volume of news,
839 its iterative manifestations, and its expanding
840 geographical distribution to all parts of the
841 globe pose an immense challenge for courts.
842 Even if the tone of media coverage of an
843 upcoming trial is relatively neutral, the sheer
844 level of detail may so saturate the potential jury
845 pool that it becomes increasingly difficult
846 to impanel a fair and impartial jury in that
847 jurisdiction. But it may be equally difficult to
848 locate an alternative jurisdiction where the level
849 of pretrial publicity and community impact is
850 sufficiently less. Even after a fair and impartial
851 jury is impaneled and the trial has commenced,
852 the court faces the ongoing possibility
853 that the public audience watching both the trial
854 proceedings, often in real time, and
855 corresponding news and commentary will
856 draw very different conclusions about the
857 appropriate outcome of the trial than
858 the impaneled jury would based solely on the
859 evidence and law.

860 Courts can no longer blandly assume that
861 the public understands their mission and the

underlying rationale for trial procedures and 862
that trial outcomes will be inevitably accepted 863
as valid judgments in the court of public opinion. 864
Ultimately, courts will have to devise 865
more persuasive arguments, and more effective 866
strategies to promulgate those arguments, of 867
the continued importance and validity of its 868
core function in the justice system. Courts are 869
institutionally reactive organizations that have 870
been slow to adapt to the implications of new 871
media on court operations generally and in the 872
context of jury trials specifically. But just as new 873
media is affecting changes in human cognitive 874
processing, it is similarly affecting – in a dynamic 875
and interactive way spurred by the use of new 876
media – both public perceptions about the courts 877
and courts’ own perceptions about themselves 878
and their role in contemporary society. 879

As a final note, it is important to recognize that 880
contemporary technologies are changing 881
very rapidly. Courts have been taken entirely by 882
surprise by many of the communications 883
technologies in widespread use in contemporary 884
society. They are even less aware of and prepared 885
for newer technologies that likely have already 886
been developed and deployed; they have not 887
begun to imagine the future implications that 888
these technologies will have on court operations. 889
There is a distinct possibility that the issues 890
discussed in this entry will already have become 891
moot by the time this encyclopedia is published 892
by the introduction of newer technologies. At the 893
very least, however, this entry will provide 894
a historical glimpse of the issues and 895
problems that courts once confronted. Future 896
researchers will have to assess whether their 897
reactions and adaptations were ultimately 898
adequate and satisfactory, or insufficient, in the 899
long run. 900

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