Public Protectors - A Different Kind of Bystander? - Court v. Grzelinski

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Since Justice Traynor's seminal opinion in *Greenman v. Yuba Power Products, Inc.*, courts have struggled with the doctrine of strict liability. One of the more difficult problems faced by the courts in this area is the claim of an injured bystander against a manufacturer of a defectively dangerous product.

To resolve the bystander question, courts have focused on: (1) the relationship between the manufacturer and the bystander; (2) the duty owed the bystander by the manufacturer; and (3) the foreseeability of injury to bystanders.
the bystander. When the injured party is a public employee engaged in an inherently dangerous occupation, such as that of policeman or fireman, the court also considers the affirmative defense of assumption of risk.

It is well established in Illinois that a policeman or fireman may recover from an owner or occupier of land who fails to maintain the premises in a reasonably safe condition. However, the "fireman’s rule", which restricts a fireman’s right of recovery, states that an injured fireman may not recover solely on the basis of the landowner’s negligence in causing the fire. In the recent case of Court v. Grzelinski, the Illinois Supreme Court was asked to apply the fireman’s rule to deny recovery to a fireman under a strict liability claim. The court denied such an extension of the rule and allowed the fireman to bring a strict liability action against a manufacturer and an automobile dealership.

This Note will trace the history of the fireman’s rule in Illinois and review the Grzelinski analysis. It will question the court’s reasoning in light of its failure to consider persuasive policy arguments underlying bystander recovery and significant recent precedent. Furthermore, the Note will evaluate the impact of Grzelinski in light of current Illinois trends.


7. Under this affirmative defense, the plaintiff is barred from recovery if it can be shown that the user or consumer knew of the defect and nonetheless proceeded to make use of the product. Sweeney v. Max A.R. Matthews & Co., 46 Ill. 2d 64, 264 N.E.2d 170 (1970) (action by carpenter against retailer for sale of nail which shattered when struck, injuring plaintiff’s eye). Assumption of risk may also act as a bar to recovery under a negligence theory. Fancil v. Q.S.E. Foods, Inc., 60 Ill. 2d 552, 328 N.E.2d 536 (1975) (wrongful death action against store owner who failed to provide an outside light on premises; a policeman was killed during routine evening security check). See also Note, Landlord's Duty to the Police—Fancil v. Q.S.E. Foods, Inc., 26 DePaul L. Rev. 378 (1977); notes 10, 71, and accompanying text infra.


10. 72 Ill. 2d 141, 379 N.E.2d 281 (1978).

11. The growing trend in the United States is to abolish absolute bars to recovery, particularly where the plaintiff has acted reasonably. This is evidenced in the abolistishment or limitation of the assumption of risk doctrine in negligence cases. Assumption of risk as a total bar to recovery has been abolished in the following jurisdictions: Alaska, Leavitt v. Gillaspie, 443 P.2d 61, 68 (Ala. Sup. Ct. 1968); California, Li v. Yellow Cab Co., 13 Cal. 3d 804, 829, 532 P.2d 1226, 1243, 119 Cal. Rptr. 858, 875 (1975); Kentucky, Parker v. Redden, 421 S.W.2d 586, 592
Facts and Procedural History

On May 26, 1978, plaintiff, a Chicago fireman, responded to a call of an automobile fire. While he was attaching the fire hose to a hydrant approximately 35 feet away from the burning vehicle, the gasoline tank exploded, resulting in severe burns to plaintiff. A product liability action was filed by the fireman against Nickey Chevrolet Sales, Inc., the seller, and General Motors, the manufacturer of the automobile. The trial court dismissed the product liability counts, applying a strict application of the fireman's rule, and the appellate court reversed. The Illinois Supreme Court affirmed the appellate court's decision, rejecting the argument of General Motors that firemen comprise a special class to which no duty is owed because of the inherent danger of their occupation.

Illinois courts have followed this trend by confining the affirmative defense of assumption of risk to cases that involve an express consent or contractual or employment relationship. Barrett v. Fritz, 42 Ill. 2d 529, 248 N.E.2d 111 (1969). See also ILL. PATTERN JURY INSTRUCTIONS §§ 13.01, 13.02 (1961), which require a contractual or employment relationship in order for defendant to raise the affirmative defense of assumption of risk. It should be noted that the Illinois Pattern Jury Instructions were amended in 1977 to include § 400.03, a strict liability section, that does not require any special relationship between the plaintiff and defendant. The comment to the instructions states that the policy considerations of the strict liability doctrine require proof of a greater degree of culpability on the plaintiff's part than mere contributory negligence for the defendant to prevail. Cf. Lewis v. Stran Steel Corp., 57 Ill. 2d 94, 311 N.E.2d 128 (1974) (assumption of risk by a person using the product will not operate as a defense in an action for injuries to a bystander who did not assume the risk).

At least one jurisdiction has refused to adopt the fireman's rule, stating: "At the outset we are confronted with [defendant's] argument that the 'fireman's rule' should preclude recovery. Although many jurisdictions forbid recoveries by firemen for injuries suffered at the scene of the negligently caused conflagration Texas has no such rule." Harris v. Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe R.R., 538 F.2d 682, 686 (5th Cir. 1976).

12. Plaintiff claimed that Nickey, the used car dealer from whom defendant purchased the car, assembled, installed, and positioned the gas tank in a defective manner. 72 Ill. 2d at 145-46, 379 N.E.2d at 282-83.

13. Plaintiff claimed that GM placed into the stream of commerce a gas tank which was defective and that plaintiff's injury, which was caused by the defective product, was reasonably foreseeable. 72 Ill. 2d at 146, 379 N.E.2d at 282.

14. Relying on Erickson v. Toledo, P. & W. R.R., 21 Ill. App. 3d 546, 315 N.E.2d 912 (1st Dist. 1974) which strictly applied the fireman's rule, the Grzelinski trial court held that the plaintiff should be barred from recovery since his injuries were sustained in the course of his employment from a cause not independent of the fire. 48 Ill. App. 3d 716, 719-20, 363 N.E.2d 12, 14 (1st Dist. 1977).

15. Id.

16. 72 Ill. 2d at 146-49, 379 N.E.2d at 283-84. General Motors' argument was predicated on a classification of firemen as invitees. This classification is rooted in common law, instituted at a
HISTORY OF THE FIREMAN'S RULE

As early as 1892\textsuperscript{17} the Illinois Supreme Court viewed firemen as licensees to whom no duty of ordinary care was owed.\textsuperscript{18} A licensee has often been described as one who comes upon the land with the landowner's consent, but for his own purposes.\textsuperscript{19} Recovery was available only if the fireman could show that the cause of his injury was willful and wanton conduct on the part of the owner or occupier of the land.\textsuperscript{20} In 1942 the court recognized the harshness of this rule and upgraded the classification of firemen to that of invitees.\textsuperscript{21} An invitee has been described as one who is invited upon the land for the landowner's purposes and to whom the landowner owes a duty of reasonable care to make the premises safe.\textsuperscript{22}

Not until 1960 was the Illinois Supreme Court again asked to review the question of the legal duty owed to a fireman to protect him from injuries incurred during performance of his job.\textsuperscript{23} At that time, in \textit{Dini v.}.
Naiditch, the court held that an injured fireman could recover when defendant's negligence caused the fire which resulted in the injury, as well as for injuries resulting from unknown or hidden conditions which increased fire-fighting risks. In Washington v. Arco, the court narrowed the Dini holding and limited a fireman's recovery to include only those injuries caused by unsafe conditions independent of those which caused the fire. In Grzelinski, the court expanded that protection and allowed a fireman to bring an action against a manufacturer and others when the fireman's injuries resulted from a defective product.

**THE GRZELINSKI RATIONALE**

The Grzelinski court, applying a bystander theory, enabled the fireman to bring a product liability action. In so doing, it rejected the defendant-manufacturer's argument that the fireman's rule should apply in all circumstances where a fireman was injured in the performance of his duties. The court reasoned that the Illinois fireman's rule is a compromise between two conflicting policies enabling a fireman to recover for non-fire related injuries caused by a landowner's negligence.

The landowner, however, owes no duty to a fireman to exercise due care to prevent fires from occurring on his premises.
The court's criticism of defendant's attempt to expand the fireman's rule beyond the narrow context of landowner-occupier liability stems from Illinois' limited use of the affirmative defense of assumption of risk in both negligence and strict liability actions. The court acknowledged that extending the fireman's rule beyond the landowner-occupier context would be "tantamount to imposing the doctrine of assumption of risk" on firefighters. Such an imposition, the court concluded, would be contrary to Illinois law which recognizes that doctrine as an affirmative defense but not as a theory upon which to base a complete bar to recovery.

In support of its position that firemen should be barred from recovery for injuries resulting from risks inherently involved in fire-fighting, the defendant-manufacturer cited two California Appellate Court decisions. The Grzelinski court noted that the California courts refused to base their holdings upon the assumption of risk doctrine. Instead the California courts relied upon two policy considerations, risk spreading and efficient judicial administration. Since it is well settled in Illinois that a fireman may recover from a landowner or occupier of land for injuries caused by factors independent of the fire, the Grzelinski court concluded that risk spreading was not an appropriate reason for denial of recovery; therefore, the two California cases were not controlling. The Grzelinski court also concluded that the judicial efficiency argument was unpersuasive in light of Illinois' statutory requirement that all fires resulting in property damage be investigated. The Illinois courts presumably would have the benefit of these investigations in determining the cause of a fire. The statutory requirement,
coupled with the principle of judicial responsibility demanding that courts not avoid "inconvenient" cases, caused the court to decline to follow the California holdings.\footnote{72 Ill. 2d at 149-51, 379 N.E.2d at 284-85.}

Having rejected the California analysis, the Grzelinski court made a determination that the Illinois fireman's rule, limiting a landowner's duty to maintain safe premises, had no application in strict product liability actions. Referring to Justice Traynor's argument supporting strict liability,\footnote{44. In Escola v. Coca Cola Bottling Co., 24 Cal. 2d 453, 150 P.2d 436 (1944) (Traynor, J., concurring), it is stated that: "public policy demands that responsibility be fixed wherever it will most effectively reduce the hazards to life and health inherent in defective products that reach the market." Id. at 462, 150 P.2d at 440.} the court held that public policy demands that a fireman be protected from the type of injury sustained by the plaintiff.\footnote{45. 72 Ill. 2d at 150-51, 379 N.E.2d at 285. Justice Ryan, disagreeing with the majority's analysis, predicated his dissent upon various flaws in that reasoning. Relying upon Washington v. Atlantic Richfield Co., 66 Ill. 2d 103, 361 N.E.2d 282 (1976), Justice Ryan claimed that the present Illinois fireman's rule is not solely related to the duty of the landowner or occupier of land as determined by the status of the persons upon the premises. By restricting the fireman's rule to the limited context of landowner/occupier liability, the majority neglected to focus on the threshold issue of assumption of risk. Further, citing authority from other jurisdictions, Justice Ryan added that the assumption of risk doctrine defines the degree of duty owed a fireman and should not be considered an affirmative defense to a negligence or products liability case. He noted that the fireman should be barred from recovery under a products liability claim because his training prepared him for the very hazard which resulted in his injury. Therefore, no duty should flow to the fireman in situations where the danger should have been anticipated. Id. at 151-55, 379 N.E.2d at 285-89. Justice Ryan also criticized the opinion as over-extending the bounds of the strict product liability doctrine in Illinois. The majority relied upon Winnett v. Winnett, 57 Ill. 2d 7, 310 N.E.2d 1 (1974), ignoring the court's responsibility to determine the duty question and willingly allocating such responsibility to the factfinder. Id. at 157, 379 N.E.2d at 288. Further, Justice Ryan claimed that the majority attempted to equate the foreseeability concept with that of duty contrary to precedent stating that the two concepts are not coextensive. 72 Ill. 2d at 157, 379 N.E.2d at 288. Justice Ryan also believed that an anomaly existed in the majority opinion. As an example, he noted that in the case of an injury sustained by a fireman fighting a fire in an automobile parked in a driveway, recovery would be barred. However, if the same injury occurred due to an automobile fire on a public street, there would be liability. Such an anomaly results from the majority's insistence upon retaining the fireman's rule in its limited landowner/occupier context. He also perceived constitutional problems. These questions involve the rationale for creating classifications which grant protection to one segment of society while denying that same protection to another segment of society on arbitrary grounds. Id. at 152-53, 379 N.E.2d at 286. See Harvey v. Clyde Park Dist., 32 Ill. 2d 60, 203 N.E.2d 573 (1964) (action for damages for injuries caused by defendant's negligence in maintenance of playground facilities); Grasse v. Dealer's Transport Co., 412 Ill. 179, 106 N.E.2d 124 (1952) (action for damages sustained by plaintiff during the course of his employment. Plaintiff was injured in a motor vehicle collision resulting from the negligence of one of defendant's employees).}
the rationale that responsibility be placed where it will most effectively reduce the hazards to life and health inherent in defective products.\textsuperscript{46} The Grzelinski court, in applying Justice Traynor's reasoning, concluded that firemen should not be expected to assume the undue risks presented by a defective product which may result in injuries.\textsuperscript{47}

\textbf{CRITIQUE}

The threshold issue in Grzelinski involved a legal duty\textsuperscript{48} which is often determined by the relationship between the parties.\textsuperscript{49} The question of duty owed a "bystander" is presented whenever injuries are caused by a defective product and the injured party is not a user of the product at the time the injury occurs.\textsuperscript{50} A further difficulty arises in cases, such as Grzelinski, in which the bystander is a public employee performing his duties. Whether a public employee should be viewed differently from any other bystander because of the dangerous nature of his occupation is a question which must be determined before any court can allow a fireman-bystander to recover under a strict liability theory.

\textbf{Public Policy}

In rejecting defendant's proposed classification,\textsuperscript{51} the Illinois Supreme Court looked to the policy considerations underlying the fireman's rule.\textsuperscript{52} A more appropriate starting point, however, would have been the policy reasons underlying strict product liability.\textsuperscript{53} Illinois courts have agreed that public policy is of primary importance in imposing strict liability.\textsuperscript{54} The

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{46} See note 44 supra.
  \item \textsuperscript{47} 72 Ill. 2d at 151, 379 N.E.2d at 285.
  \item \textsuperscript{48} 72 Ill. 2d at 146, 379 N.E.2d at 283. See also Defendant's Petition for Leave to Appeal at 8-13 (General Motors Corp.); Plaintiff's Reply Brief at 2-4.
  \item \textsuperscript{49} Barnes v. Washington, 56 Ill. 2d 22, 26, 305 N.E.2d 535, 538 (1973) (action by conservator for injuries to incompetent who accidentally locked himself in a boxcar of defendant railroad and sustained injuries from the cold); Boyd v. Racine Currency Exch., Inc., 56 Ill. 2d 95, 97, 306 N.E.2d 39, 40 (1973) (wrongful death action against currency exchange and a teller for negligence in teller refusing to comply with an armed robber's demands which resulted in plaintiff's husband's death). See also Fancil v. Q.S.E. Foods, Inc., 60 Ill. 2d 552, 554-55, 328 N.E.2d 538, 540 (1973).
  \item \textsuperscript{50} See notes 3-5 and accompanying text supra.
  \item \textsuperscript{51} 72 Ill. 2d at 147-48, 379 N.E.2d at 283-84. See also note 16 and accompanying text supra.
  \item \textsuperscript{52} Id. The policy reasons behind the fireman's rule were primarily to prevent the placement of an undue burden upon an owner or occupier of improved land on the assumption that most fires occur because of the landowner's or occupier's negligence. See also Washington v. Atlantic Richfield Co., 66 Ill. 2d 103, 108, 361 N.E.2d 282, 284 (1976).
\end{itemize}
major policy reasons which support recovery under a strict liability claim are loss spreading and economic efficiency.

The doctrine of loss spreading shifts losses caused by defective products to the parties in the best position to lessen the economic impact of the loss, i.e., manufacturers and distributors of the product. The fact that the Grzelinski court placed the risk of loss on the manufacturer and the automobile dealership without discussing the principle of loss spreading is a serious defect in the analysis. Such a discussion would have strengthened the court's position by responding to some of the many recent criticisms of the loss spreading principle. First, in certain cases the manufacturer may not be in the best position to absorb the loss. Second, it may be unfair to require all consumers to pay the increased price of "insured" products when some consumers may choose to accept the risk of uninsured products. Third, it has been suggested that another legal theory may provide ample loss spreading without imposing strict liability.

The Grzelinski court, by finding for plaintiff, has actually implemented a loss spreading policy. Therefore, a point by point discussion of the criticisms along with reasons why they were not persuasive in this case would have been worthwhile. Refusal to do so places the adequacy of the court's analysis in question.


56. This policy was developed for the purpose of deterring the manufacturer from marketing defective products. See Escola v. Coca Cola Bottling Co., 24 Cal. 2d 453, 461-62, 150 P.2d 436, 440-41 (1944), for a summarization of this principle. The more sophisticated policy considerations of economic efficiency has recently been specifically applied to products liability. Symposium—Products Liability: Economic Analysis and the Law, 38 U. Chi. L. Rev. 1 (1970).

57. This is premised on the belief that the manufacturer can either absorb the loss or insure against it, thus spreading the added cost among the purchasers. The doctrine is predicated on the fact that the purchaser pays for the cost of insurance covering losses resulting from defective products as well as the product itself. See Escola v. Coca Cola Bottling Co., 24 Cal. 2d 453, 462, 150 P.2d 436, 440-41 (1944) (Traynor, J., concurring).


59. An "insured" product is one in which the manufacturer has incorporated the cost of protecting himself against potential economic loss due to injuries sustained by users. See W. Blum & H. Kalven, Public Law Perspectives on a Private Law Problem: Auto Compensation Plans 59 (1965).

60. Id.

61. An argument can be made that under the res ipsa loquitur doctrine, a negligence action may provide adequate loss spreading without resorting to strict liability. See Comment, Strict Products Liability to the Bystander: A Study in Common Law Determinism, 38 U. Chi. L. Rev. 625, 637 (1971).

62. The Grzelinski court could have easily responded to criticisms of implementing a loss spreading policy. It would be difficult, if not impossible, to dispute that General Motors is
The second policy consideration, economic efficiency, adds another dimension to the rationale underlying the imposition of strict liability. According to this principle, losses caused by defective products are imposed upon the party in the best position to prevent future injuries of the same type by making a safer product or by assuring careful use of the product. The manufacturer's responsibility to produce a safe product is viewed in conjunction with the consumer's ability to prevent injuries by careful use of the product. Courts therefore balance the cost of minimizing the accident with the cost of avoiding the accident. An economic efficiency analysis would, appropriately, focus on the product itself and the adequacy of the manufacturer's safeguards against injury. Had the court approached the problem in this way, it could have effectively warned both the manufacturer and consumer of their respective burdens.

When a product is defective, the innocent bystander as well as the consumer should be protected. The bystander status should not change the manufacturer's duty to provide a safe product. Nor should the bystander be asked to accept a standard of care lower than that expected by the consumer. The significance of public policy considerations is also not altered simply because the plaintiff's occupation enhances the likelihood of injuries caused by the product. Better able to sustain economic loss than a private individual. However, manufacturers often minimize such economic loss by incorporating the cost of such a loss in the price of the product. A valid argument can be made that the consumer should be able to avoid this added cost by personally assuming the risk of loss. Imposing such a choice upon a consumer mandates the availability of complete and detailed information outlining the potential risk of loss. Since consumers are provided with little or no information as to the potential for economic loss due to a defective gas tank, the consumer is precluded from making a well-reasoned decision. In addition, an automobile is composed of various different products. Many problems would arise if the consumer assumed the risk of loss concerning one product and the manufacturer assumed the risk of loss in another.

63. This theory was applied in the context of a bystander's claim in Darryl v. Ford Motor Co., 440 S.W.2d 630 (Tex. Sup. Ct. 1969). Plaintiffs brought suit against Ford Motor Company for injuries arising out of an automobile collision. Both negligence and strict liability claims were pleaded. The negligence claim was ultimately abandoned and the strict liability claim was retained. The court held that: "[t]he reason for extending the strict liability doctrine to innocent bystanders is the desire to minimize risks of personal injury and/or property damage." Id. at 633.


65. This balancing might not be necessary if the manufacturer and consumer have exact, complete data regarding risks and transaction costs. See Coase, The Problem of Social Cost, 3 J. LAW & ECON. 1 (1960).

defective product. Accordingly, these policy reasons should have been fully discussed and analyzed by the Grzelinski court.

A discussion of these public policy considerations would have also helped to clarify the relationship between the bystander and the manufacturer which, like the relationship between manufacturer and consumer, encompasses a legal duty. In strict product liability cases the manufacturer has a non-delegable duty to produce a reasonably safe product. This duty is closely guarded by the courts and can only be set aside by a clear showing that the injury was unforeseeable, the product was put to an unintended use, or the plaintiff knowingly assumed a risk inherent in the product. The necessity of establishing this duty should not be negated or ignored in a bystander situation. Neither can this duty be circumvented by expecting that others will remove the burden of the duty from the manufacturer.

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67. See note 4 supra.
69. "Foreseeability means that which is objectively reasonable to expect, not merely what might conceivably occur." Winnett v. Winnett, 57 Ill. 2d 7, 12-13, 310 N.E.2d 1, 5 (1974).
71. The doctrine of assumption of risk may be used as a defense to a product liability action. Coty v. U.S. Slicing Mach. Co., Inc., 58 Ill. App. 3d 237, 373 N.E.2d 1371 (2d Dist. 1978). See Krauth v. Geller, 31 N.J. 270, 157 A.2d 129 (1960). In Krauth, plaintiff fireman, injured while fighting a fire, was denied recovery under the theory that the fireman was trained and paid for the special services which he performed. This policy has been recognized by the Illinois Appellate Court in Horcher v. Guerin, 94 Ill. App. 2d 244, 236 N.E.2d 576 (2d Dist. 1968) (plaintiff fireman was injured when glass struck his eye after he broke a locked window to ventilate a burning building owned by defendant. Plaintiff alleged negligence by defendant in failing to obey a city ordinance prohibiting obstruction of windows); Netherton v. Arends, 81 Ill. App. 2d 391, 225 N.E.2d 143 (4th Dist. 1967) (plaintiff fireman was injured when he inhaled smoke produced by the fire. Plaintiff alleged the fire resulted from several negligent acts or omissions by defendant/landowner. The court held that plaintiff had no cause of action since smoke is a hazard normally present during fires).
72. Both plaintiff and defendant-manufacturer General Motors emphasized the duty requirement in their briefs to the Illinois Supreme Court. See note 48 supra.
is clear that the obligation is upon the court to determine whether such a duty exists.\textsuperscript{74} The inability or reluctance of the \textit{Grzelinski} court to acknowledge this important step and affirmatively declare \textit{why} such a duty was imposed makes it difficult to predict the outcome of future cases involving different fact situations. Finally, although defendants only addressed the question of an expansion of the fireman's rule, the court should have looked beyond this narrow question to provide clear guidelines for subsequent cases.

\textbf{Precedent Ignored}

Approximately three years prior to \textit{Grzelinski}, the Illinois Supreme Court had no difficulty formulating clear rules for the imposition of duty in a negligence claim brought by a public protector. In that case, \textit{Fancil v. Q.S.E. Foods, Inc.},\textsuperscript{75} assumption of risk was also a primary question. \textit{Fancil} involved a police officer who was killed when a burglar emerged from the darkened doorway behind defendant's place of business. The decedent's wife brought a wrongful death action charging the store owner with negligence for disconnecting an exterior light. The court looked beyond the common law classifications of trespasser,\textsuperscript{76} licensee,\textsuperscript{77} and invitee\textsuperscript{78} as not providing a satisfactory basis for a determination of duty.\textsuperscript{79} Instead, the court focused its attention on the Restatement of Torts.\textsuperscript{80}
The *Fancil* court was persuaded by two appellate court cases which denied recovery for injuries caused by inherent risks. These two cases in turn relied heavily on *Dini v. Naiditch*, discussed at length by the *Grzelinski* court, which held that the owner of a building was under no duty to a fire fighter to use reasonable care in the maintenance of his premises. The *Fancil* court found that the landowner had no legal duty with respect to a person injured on his premises due to some dangerous condition of the property unless two conditions were present. First, the dangerous condition must constitute an unreasonable risk of harm. Second, the injured party must not have at his disposal reasonable means to protect himself from the risks which caused the injury. Following a traditional assumption of risk approach, the *Fancil* court concluded that police officers were barred from recovery for injuries resulting from risks inherent in their occupation when such risks of harm were reasonable in light of the officer's training and ability to protect himself.

The similarities between *Fancil* and *Grzelinski* are striking and demand recognition. Both injured parties were public employees engaged in inherently dangerous occupations. Additionally, although *Fancil* was a wrongful death action based on negligence and *Grzelinski* was brought under a strict liability theory, plaintiffs in both cases argued that the relationship between the parties created a legal duty which was breached. Also, defendants in

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...to commit such a tort or crime, unless the actor at the time of his negligent conduct realized or should have realized the likelihood that such a situation might be created, and that a third person might avail himself of the opportunity to commit such a tort or crime."

Section 449 provides:

"If the likelihood that a third person may act in a particular manner is the hazard or one of the hazards which makes the actor negligent, such an act whether innocent, negligent, intentionally tortious, or criminal does not prevent the actor from being liable for harm caused thereby."

*Id.* at 558-59, 328 N.E.2d at 541-42.


82. 20 Ill. 2d 406, 170 N.E. 2d 881 (1960). See note 8 *supra* for a list of cases which limited the *Dini* holding.

83. 60 Ill. 2d 552, 558-60, 328 N.E.2d 538, 541-43 (1975).

84. 60 Ill. 2d 552, 558, 328 N.E.2d 538, 541 (1975). The inherent risk doctrine is based upon two policy reasons. First, if liability was imposed upon a landowner for a negligently caused fire, landowners might be discouraged from summoning the aid of firemen for fear of a lawsuit should a fireman sustain injury while fighting the fire. Second, courts have determined that police officers and firemen assume the risks incidental to their respective professions. *See*, *e.g.*, Krauth v. Geller, 31 N.J. 270, 273-74, 157 A.2d 129, 130-31 (1960). *See also* Horcher v. Guerin, 94 Ill. App. 2d 244, 248, 236 N.E.2d 576, 579 (2d Dist. 1968); Buren v. Midwest Industries, Inc., 380 S.W.2d 96, 98 (Ky. App. 1964).

both cases argued that because certain risks were inherent in the plaintiff’s occupation, recovery should be barred.

The Fancil court, in resolving the duty issue, outlined two requirements necessary for assumption of risk to act as a bar to recovery in a negligence action. It concluded that the plaintiff must be aware of the risks involved and that he must voluntarily expose himself to a specific known risk. In applying this test, the court concluded that a policeman on a routine nightly security check of a store is trained and prepared to confront and handle the dangers involved in criminal activity. Awareness of the potential risk, coupled with the policeman’s ability to cope with it, barred plaintiff’s claim under the assumption of risk doctrine.

The Grzelinski court could have used a similar test to enable plaintiff to recover for the severe burn injuries he sustained when the gas tank exploded. It is obvious that a fireman is trained and prepared to fight fires. However, that training does not include, nor should it be expected to include, readiness for every danger which might be encountered. The plaintiff alleged that the proximate cause of the explosion which injured him was a defect in the automobile’s gas tank. While the public has a right to expect firemen to assume certain risks inherent in fire fighting, the fire fighter has a right to expect that an unreasonably dangerous product will not be placed into the stream of commerce. Since plaintiff could not have been aware of the specific defect which allegedly caused the explosion, he should not be expected to protect himself against it.

It has been noted in another jurisdiction that the affirmative defense of assumption of risk, as suggested by defendant in the Grzelinski case, is only available when:

1. plaintiff actually knew of the specific defect involved;
2. that actually knowing and appreciating the specific defect involved, that plaintiff voluntarily and unreasonably took his chances and exposed himself to that defect and the resulting danger;
3. that this specific known and appreciated defect was the cause of plaintiff’s injuries.

The same reasoning should apply where, as in Grzelinski, the plaintiff’s injury is proximately caused by a hidden defect of which he could not have been aware. Similarly, it is unreasonable to expect that a fireman’s training

85. 60 Ill. 2d 552, 557, 328 N.E.2d 538, 541 (1975).
86. 72 Ill. 2d at 145-46, 379 N.E.2d at 282-83 (1978).
88. See note 2 and accompanying text supra.
89. 72 Ill. 2d at 149, 379 N.E.2d at 284 (1978).
will prepare him to cope with unknown, undiscoverable defects in products. To deny protection in such instances would negate the purpose of the strict liability doctrine of protecting innocent persons from injuries caused by defective products.  

Unfortunately, no reason is given in Grzelinski for not discussing the Fancil test. This failure will place in question the applicability of the Fancil test when lower courts are confronted with a fact situation similar to that found in Grzelinski. An acknowledgement of the Fancil test by the Grzelinski court could have led to a limiting of the test to the facts presented in Fancil. Alternatively, the Grzelinski court could have recognized the Fancil test as applicable under the facts before it, yet for reasons previously indicated, could have reached the same result. The outcome of Grzelinski is that a fireman, injured due to the defective condition of a product, has a cause of action against the manufacturer and others in the chain of distribution subject only to the general rules controlling all product liability claims. Yet to be determined is the assumption of risk question with respect to duty in the context of a products liability claim.

CONCLUSION

The Grzelinski holding is far from a definitive statement regarding the legal duty owed to a fireman or policeman injured while performing his job. Whether firemen and policemen constitute a special group requiring specific limitations remains unsettled. By limiting its analysis to the narrow question of the applicability of the fireman's rule, the court ignored the broader, overriding issue of the availability of bystander protection to public employees pleading strict liability causes of action. Public policy reasons justify protection to any bystander, regardless of the theory of recovery.

The failure of the Illinois Supreme Court to establish a sound rationale may cause confusion in future litigation. Just how much protection should be given a public protector is a question yet to be determined by the Illinois Supreme Court. Re-affirmation of the public policy reasons underlying by-

91. See Fancil v. Q.S.E. Foods, Inc., 60 Ill. 2d 552, 558, 328 N.E.2d 538, 541 (1975). See also note 84 and accompanying text supra.
92. See note 2 supra.
93. 72 Ill. 2d at 151, 379 N.E.2d at 285 (1978). The general rules controlling all strict product liability claims under the Restatement (Second) of Torts § 402A (1965) include the following: (a) the seller is engaged in the business of selling such a product; and (b) it is expected to and does reach the user or consumer without substantial change in the condition in which it is sold. This rule applies even though: (a) the seller has exercised all possible care in the preparation and sale of his product; and (b) the user or consumer has not bought the product from or entered into any contractual relationship with the seller. See also McKean, Products Liability: Trends and Implications, 38 U. Chi. L. Rev. 3, 17 (1970).
94. See note 8 and accompanying text supra.
95. See notes 51-74 and accompanying text supra.
stander recovery in a strict liability action would have been beneficial both to respond to the recent attacks upon these policy reasons and to demonstrate that the result which the court reached was in accordance with historical foundations of strict product liability actions. The court's failure to do so in Grzelinski may well pave the way for faulty approaches to the resolution of public employee personal injury claims as attempts are made to ascertain a proper basis for public employee protection.

Trudy McCarthy

96. Id.