

# The Bar Review

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*Inside this Issue:*

**Ethics, Cloning and Bio Medicine**

**Defamation and the Public Interest**

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# The Bar Review

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# The Public Interest Defence in Irish Defamation Law: *Leech v Independent Newspapers*

Damian Byrne BL

## Introduction

A number of important *ex tempore* rulings were handed down in the course of communications consultant Monica Leech's unsuccessful defamation proceedings against the Irish Independent earlier this year.<sup>1</sup> Most importantly, Mr Justice Peter Charleton brought much-needed clarity to the defence of qualified privilege, or public interest—first developed by the House of Lords in 1999 in *Reynolds v Times Newspapers Ltd*<sup>2</sup>—as it applies in this jurisdiction. The purpose of this article essentially is to draw the significance of this aspect of Charleton J's ruling to the wider attention of practitioners, as no written judgment was handed down.<sup>3</sup> It is not intended as a detailed analysis of this area of defamation law.<sup>4</sup> However, it is necessary to first provide some context by briefly referring to the *Reynolds* case and to the more recent decision of the House of Lords in *Jameel and others v Wall Street Journal Europe Sprl*.<sup>5</sup>

## Development of the defence of qualified privilege in defamation

### *Reynolds v Times Newspapers*

In *Reynolds*, the House of Lords extended the traditional categories of qualified privilege to embrace a new defence (*Reynolds* privilege) which is available to the media when they disseminate stories of public interest containing defamatory material. Thus, the appropriate tests, in cases where statements are made on matters of public policy, is whether the public are entitled to know the particular information published, not whether it is true; and whether there has been "responsible" journalism. Lord Nicholls indicated a non-exhaustive list of at least ten factors that should be taken into account to determine whether journalists and editors acted responsibly, including: the seriousness of the allegation; the nature of the

information, and the extent to which the subject matter is a matter of public concern; the source of the information; the steps taken to verify the information, the urgency of the matter; whether comment was sought from the claimant or whether the article contained the gist of the claimant's side of the story; and the tone of the article.<sup>6</sup>

However, although heralded at the time as a substantial victory for press freedom, it appears that the *Reynolds* defence was only successfully pleaded on a handful of occasions in the UK in subsequent years.<sup>7</sup>

### *Jameel and others v Wall Street Journal Europe Sprl*

This judgment, delivered in October 2006, represented the first occasion on which the House of Lords had opportunity to revisit and further clarify its decision in *Reynolds*.

The plaintiffs in this case were a prominent Saudi businessman and the trading company of which he was president and general manager. The defendant newspaper published an article asserting that, at the request of US enforcement agencies, the Central Bank of Saudi Arabia was monitoring certain bank accounts to prevent their use for channeling funds to terrorist organisations and it listed, as account holders, the names of a number of individuals and companies, including that of the claimants' trading group. The defendant sought to rely on a defence of qualified privilege which protected responsible journalism when reporting on matters of public concern. The trial judge ruled against the defence, *inter alia*, on the ground that the defendant had failed to obtain the claimants' response to the inclusion of their names prior to the publication. The jury found the libel proved and awarded damages to the claimants. The Court of Appeal dismissed the defendant's appeal.

The House of Lords upheld the appeal, however, ruling that it was a question in each case, depending on the nature and source of the information, whether the publisher had behaved fairly and reasonably in obtaining and publishing the material; that, since the subject matter of the defendant's article was of considerable public importance, and the

1 *Leech v Independent Newspapers (Ireland) Ltd* [2007] IEHC 223.

2 [2001] 2 AC 127.

3 Note, however, that approved transcripts of Charleton J's two core *ex tempore* rulings in the course of the trial are available on courts.ie, as cited at n.1, above. Elsewhere in this article, reliance is necessarily had at times on the unapproved trial transcripts.

4 For an excellent analysis of recent UK case law in this area, see Ray Ryan and Des Ryan, "Defamation: Recent Developments in Relation to the *Reynolds* Case" 2006 (20) ILT 311.

5 [2006] UKHL 44; [2006] 3 WLR 642.

6 *Reynolds, op.cit.*, at 205.

7 See Ray Ryan and Des Ryan, *op.cit.*, at 314, n.9. They cite the following examples of cases in which the defence was successful: *GKR Karate (UK) Limited v Yorkshire Post Newspapers Limited (No.2)* [2000] EMLR 410; *Al-Fagih v HH Saudi Research & Marketing (UK) Limited* [2002] EMLR 13; and *Roberts v Gable* [2006] EMLR 23.

inclusion of the names a necessary ingredient, and since the article had been written by an experienced and specialised reporter and approved by senior staff who had sought to verify its contents, failure to obtain the complainants' response was an insufficient ground on which to deny the defence; and that, accordingly, the Court of Appeal's decision would be set aside to that extent and the action dismissed.

The Law Lords were critical of the Court of Appeal for denying *Reynolds* privilege in a manner which "subverts the liberalising intention of the *Reynolds* decision."<sup>8</sup> According to Lord Hoffman, "... this case suggests that Reynolds has had little impact upon the way the law is applied at first instance. It is therefore necessary to restate the principles."<sup>9</sup> He goes on to criticise the trial judge (Eady J) for interpreting the law in a manner which effectively failed to take the liberalising intention of *Reynolds* into account:

"In *Reynolds*, Lord Nicholls gave his well-known non-exhaustive list of ten matters which should in suitable cases be taken into account. They are not tests which the publication has to pass. In the hands of a judge hostile to the spirit of *Reynolds*, they can become ten hurdles at any of which the defence may fail. This is how Eady J treated them. The defence, he said, can be sustained only after "the closest and most rigorous scrutiny" by the application of what he called Lord Nicholls's ten tests." But that, in my opinion, is not what Lord Nicholls meant. As he said in *Bonnick*, at p 309, the standard of conduct required of the newspaper must be applied in a practical and flexible manner. It must have regard to practical realities."<sup>10</sup>

This key passage of the *Jameel* judgment thus makes clear that it is not essential in every case to satisfy each and every one of Lord Nicholls' criteria in order to meet the test of responsible journalism. An overly-rigid interpretation of these criteria had effectively thwarted the development of greater press freedom in matters of genuine public interest which *Reynolds* was designed to encourage. Baroness Hale added that "[w]e need more such serious journalism in this country and our defamation law should encourage rather than discourage it ... if the public interest defence does not succeed on the known facts of this case, it is hard to see it ever succeeding."<sup>11</sup>

### *Leech v Independent Newspapers*

The background to this case was an RTE Radio 1 "Liveline" broadcast of 16 December 2004, in which a bogus caller proceeded to make lewd remarks about Mrs Leech and the Minister for Transport, Martin Cullen. RTE followed up with two apologies on air and, later, a statement dissociating itself from the comments (and Mrs Leech subsequently reached a

financial settlement with RTE itself for its failure to prevent the broadcasting of these comments). The Irish Independent article of the next day reported both the comments which had been broadcast on air (albeit with the use of asterix) and the fact that RTE had issued a number of apologies in respect of them and released the press statement. Counsel for the defendant submitted that the public interest aspect of the article lay in the fact that the national broadcaster had been required to issue apologies in this manner, and that so-called "Reynolds privilege" could therefore be invoked.<sup>12</sup>

Counsel for the plaintiff argued that, in the first instance, it had not yet been established that the plea of *Reynolds* qualified privilege was even available in this jurisdiction. It was argued that, other than remarks made obiter by O'Caomh J in *Hunter v Duckworth and Company*<sup>13</sup> averting to the existence of *Reynolds* qualified privilege, it had never formed part of the *ratio* of any decision in this jurisdiction.<sup>14</sup>

Thus required to decide at an early stage in the trial on whether a public interest defence existed in this context, Charleton J ruled that it did. Noting that traditional qualified privilege involves a situation where one party has an interest in receiving information and another party has a duty to pass that information to them, the learned trial judge continued:

"In *Reynolds v Sunday Times Newspapers* [2002] 2 AC 127 HL, that was developed so that an issue arose as to whether there was such a thing as a general interest in the public in favour of them receiving information, albeit incorrect. And it seems to me that, yes, there is. The public have an interest in many matters, as opposed to being interested in matters. Being interested in matters, it seems to me, would refer to matters which are merely titillating or salacious or gossipy. Matters which are of public interest, on the other hand, have to be matters which affect the public in terms of the governance of the country, their safety, their security, their right to judge their public representatives fairly on the basis of real information. This is not an exhaustive list. I could not possibly formulate an exhaustive list, even if I had time to reserve judgment in this case."<sup>15</sup>

Having noted the ten tests set out by Lord Nicholls in *Reynolds*, Charleton J quoted Lord Nicholls' view that "the list is not exhaustive. The weight to be given to these and to any other relevant factors will vary from case to case."<sup>16</sup>

Significantly, Charleton J went on to consider the *Jameel* decision, and to endorse the more flexible interpretation of Lord Nicholls' ten tests which was adopted in *Jameel*:

"Since that time [i.e. the *Reynolds* decision], as can happen and certainly has happened in England in relation to other areas of law, it seems that errors have

8 *Jameel*, *op.cit.*, per Lord Bingham at 378.

9 *ibid.*

10 *ibid.* at 384.

11 *ibid.* at 409.

12 *Leech v Independent Newspapers*, High Court, June 26-28, 2007, unapproved transcript, Vol. 2, p 47.

13 Unreported, High Court, July 31, 2003.

14 *Leech*, unapproved transcript, Vol. 2, p 6.

15 [2007] IEHC 223.

16 *ibid.*

been made by people referring to the ten separate indications of the existence of public interest and by indicating that if one or other of them is absent, or if a decision as to fact might go against a newspaper in relation to one or other, that the entire defence is destroyed.”<sup>17</sup>

The learned judge then noted that the use of the language of privilege is “not necessarily helpful” in the context of the *Reynolds*-type public interest defence. Whereas traditional qualified privilege can be destroyed upon proof of malice, in the context of a public interest defence, the issue of the presence or absence of malice is effectively subsumed within the “responsible journalism” test.<sup>18</sup> Therefore, he added:

“I would rule that a public interest defence can arise where the subject matter of a publication, be it an article or radio or television report, considered as a whole, was a matter of public interest ... I would rule as well that there is a professional duty on the part of journalists to both seek out information that is of public interest and to impart it to the public and that while that is a matter of professional skill and training, that it is also a matter of responsibility. And once a public interest is established in terms of the information the subject matter of the article, there is a second test to be met, which is as to whether on the evidence the steps taken to gather and publish the information were responsible and fair. The question may need to be put as to whether a newspaper or a television channel or radio channel, on the evidence behaved fairly and responsibly in gathering and publishing the information. And that may indeed take into account some of the tests set out by Lord Nichols in the *Reynolds* case. In particular No. 8, whether the article contained the gist of the plaintiff’s side of the story, and whether the plaintiff was contacted for comment.

I also agree that, as a third aspect of the test, that in considering whether there was fair and responsible conduct that the decision maker - be it the court or the jury ... has to have regard to the practical realities of news gathering. In that regard, I note what Lord Nichols says at paragraph 6 of the tests that he set out, that urgency can be a matter of importance in news reporting, which is, of course, dealing with a perishable commodity.”<sup>19</sup>

Charleton J later ruled that while the trial judge is entitled to

17 *ibid.*

18 *ibid.* Charleton J endorsed the comments in this regard of Lord Hoffman in *Jameel, op.cit.*, who stated, at 381:

“Although Lord Nicholls used the word “privilege”, it is clearly not being used in the old sense. It is the material which is privileged, not the occasion on which it is published. There is no question of the privilege being defeated by proof of malice because the propriety of the conduct of the defendant is built into the conditions under the which the material is privileged.”

19 *ibid.*

make an initial ruling as to whether a defence arises on the evidence, it is ultimately a question for the jury to decide: “If this defence were to be put to the court, it would be put to the jury as a matter of fact, and appropriate tests based on the two aspects of *Jameel*, would be put to them.”<sup>20</sup> This represents a very significant departure from the English practice, where, although questions of fact relevant to the issue of qualified privilege may be put to the jury, it is ultimately a matter of law for the judge to decide whether the defence has been successfully made out. As was stated in *Reynolds*, “It is well settled that the question whether the occasion of publication is protected by qualified privilege is a question of law to be decided by the judge, but before he can reach that decision it may be necessary for the jury to make findings on any issues of fact in dispute upon which the answer to the question depends.”<sup>21</sup>

Rejecting such an approach in this jurisdiction, Charleton J. said:

“I don’t accept that in this country it would be right for me to decide these issues, and to, in effect, overturn the statute, which requires a jury trial of this defamation matter, by making a ruling. I [am], of course...entitled to make a ruling as to whether a defence arises on the evidence that is fit to be considered by the jury.”<sup>22</sup>

On the facts of the *Leech* case, however, the learned trial judge was not satisfied that the defendant had made out a defence that could be put to the jury—despite meeting the public interest criteria—as it did not propose to call any evidence from the *Irish Independent*, either from the journalist or editorial staff responsible for the article in question.

On the public interest aspect of the test, he stated:

“On the argument presented to me, it seems to me that, literally just about, that the test is met, for what happens on the national broadcaster is, in a small country as we are, a matter of importance, the matter in which they deal with their broadcasts is a matter of importance.”<sup>23</sup>

However, regarding the second limb of the test, the requirement of fair and responsible journalism, he concluded:

“If there is actually an issue as to malice transmuted, which I hold that there is, into the second test for public interest privilege of responsible and professional journalism in establishing the *Reynolds* test, then in order to establish it, the reality is that whoever took these decisions, be it the journalist, the editor and the sub-editor, have to be here to establish it. And therefore, in the circumstances of their being

20 *ibid.*

21 [2001] 2 A.C. at 178.

22 [2007] IEHC 223.

23 *ibid.*

no evidence as to this, the defence of public interest will not be put before the jury.”<sup>24</sup>

## Conclusion

Charleton J’s rulings in the *Leech* case not only confirm, unambiguously, the availability of so-called *Reynolds* privilege in this jurisdiction, but they also endorse the more flexible interpretation of *Reynolds* set out in *Jameel*. The House of Lords in that decision was very concerned with promoting and safeguarding “serious” and responsible journalism and with resurrecting the original liberalising intent of the *Reynolds* judgment, and it is to be hoped that the Irish judiciary continue to follow suit in this regard.

It remains to be seen precisely how the position will be

altered again upon the eventual enactment of the Defamation Bill 2006, which proposes a new defence of “fair and reasonable publication” on matters of “public importance”.<sup>25</sup> Arguably, the test of “public importance” represents a more rigorous standard than that of “public interest”. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to conclude that judicial interpretation of any new law enacted will continue to be influenced by *Reynolds* and subsequent case law, most notably *Jameel*. Thus, Charleton J’s rulings in *Leech* are both a significant and welcome development in Irish defamation law.

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24 *ibid.*

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25 Section 24.

# Ethico Legal Issues in Biomedicine

Ann Power SC

This is the first in a series of three articles dealing with ethical, medical and legal issues surrounding the various stages of life. This first article in the series deals with the beginning of life, the second article will analyse issues surrounding organ donation and retention and the area of medical consent. The third article will deal with ethical issues surrounding the end of life. The second and third articles will be published in later editions of the Bar Review.

## Introduction

Most practitioners recall the infamous *Hart-Devlin* debate of the 1960s and the argument about whether the law should be shaped around the intrinsic morality of actions. While the original debate focused upon sex and society, in our own time it is in the area of medical law that similar arguments are canvassed. Since the publication of the human genome sequence in 2001<sup>1</sup>, we have glimpsed something of the profound mystery of life that is the human being. Advanced understanding has generated new questions at the interface of medicine and law. Ethico legal issues abound in relation to:

- Assisted conception and reproduction
- Cloning and stem cell research
- Surrogacy and abortion
- Tissue and organ donation and transplantation
- Non consensual medical treatment
- Assisted nutrition and hydration [ANH]
- Euthanasia and assisted suicide; and the
- Retention and use of organs from the dead or cadaver transplants.

In *Human Life and Medical Practice* Professor Ken Mason noted, rightly, that the subjects in question are very emotional and must inevitably be subjectively coloured.<sup>2</sup> However that should not prevent us from examining the subjects as reasonably and as objectively as we can, ensuring that the arguments stand or fall on their own merits irrespective of the traditions which lead us to explore them.

Where consenting adults (in this case patients and health professionals) agree that they would like to bring about the death of a patient, or sell some of their organs, or try highly experimental and dangerous treatment, or abort a foetus, or become pregnant with a non human animal, has the State got the right to intervene? What, if any, is the legitimate public interest in those private activities? Why should the State curtail the freedom of individuals to do whatever they choose provided they harm no one else but themselves?

## Ethics

How we approach an answer to these questions depends, to a large extent, upon the ethical tradition that informs our perspective and on our own internal moral compass. Many of us have not articulated the ethical principles that govern and shape our views but our response to those questions concerning the legitimacy of medical law is based upon an ethical perspective that influences how we approach those complex problems.

Ethical debate arises because we are free. Being free, the central question of ethics might be formulated thus: How should human life be lived? Is there a right way to live—one that leads, for the most part, to the flourishing and well being of people? Or are we entirely without guidance or direction as we negotiate our way through the labyrinth of life? Is it all a matter of personal taste?

## Classical Philosophy

Classical philosophy posits that there are guidelines which reason can identify to enable us to live well. *Always treat others as you would like to be treated. Do not use people as a means to an end. Do what is good and avoid what is harmful.* It holds that there are certain (limited) rights that are fundamental to every human person and that are non-negotiable regardless of the circumstances. Thus, it is always impermissible to treat a person as a means to an end. It is always wrong to torture a person for the fun of it. No exceptions arise. According to the classical tradition of moral philosophy, human rights are intrinsic to who we are—they come with the territory of being human. The body politic does not grant us rights. It acknowledges them. This “natural law” tradition of moral philosophy has formed the basis of Western civilisation and is the philosophical foundation of our Constitution and of many international Declarations and Conventions on human rights.

## The Modern Approach

Much of modern philosophy has abandoned that tradition. It was Rene Descartes (1596-1650), the father of modern philosophy, who inaugurated a subjectivism that took hold of Western consciousness and the implications of his philosophy for ethics were immediate. Descartes asserted one certain

1 *Science: Special Issue* (2001) Vol 291 1145-1344 and *Nature: Special Issue* (2001) Vol 409 745-964

2 *Human Life and Medical Practice* [Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press, 1988, vii]

truth—the truth of consciousness. “I am a thing that thinks”. Ethics, principles of right and wrong, indeed, all of reality emanates from human consciousness. His influence may be seen in some of the modern jurisprudence on the “end of life” cases.

Under Descartes’ influence, there came the rise of relativist ideologies such as, utilitarianism, consequentialism and situation ethics. No longer should one do that which is good in itself (as disclosed by reason) but one should do that which brings about the “greatest happiness of the greatest number” or which has the “greatest net benefit” or the “best consequences”.<sup>3</sup>

## The Beginning of Life

### *The Status of the Embryo*

Whilst most biologists and embryologists would appear to consider that a new and distinct organism begins at fertilisation, the main area of disagreement centres upon whether that new organism constitutes a human being in its earliest stages and is, therefore, entitled to protection at law. “*Philosophers and scientist may continue to debate when human life begins but the law must define what it intends to protect.*”<sup>4</sup> In *MR v TR and Others*, McGovern J. pointed out that it was not for the Courts to decide when human life begins.<sup>5</sup> Rather, in interpreting Article 40.3.3 of the Constitution, the Court had to decide whether the word “unborn” includes embryos *in vitro*. He held that the Constitutional protection afforded to the unborn did not extend to the three frozen embryos which were at the heart of the dispute in that case. He noted that in the absence of any legal rules or regulations in this jurisdiction, embryos outside the womb have “a very precarious existence” Absent agreement on what should happen to them, the likely fate of the embryos was that they would remain in a state of cryo preservation for an indefinite period. That being so, it might be useful to examine how the English legal system has approached and resolved such complex and vexed questions.

### *The British Approach: The 1990 Act*

Opponents of embryo research contend that from the point of fertilisation, a new and usually unique human being comes into existence. They argue that an embryo is not just biological matter but is a human organism in its earliest stage of development and that, as such, it deserves the protection of law. In Britain, the battle against embryo research was hard fought and lost in 1990 with the legitimisation of embryo research in the *Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act, 1990*. Some say it could not have been won without outlawing IVF too. If the embryo must be protected from destruction, then either no surplus embryos should be created or all must be preserved and implanted. If alleviating infertility is sufficient

justification for destroying some embryos, surely research to improve other conditions is an equally valid justification. In Britain, the 1990 Act adopted the “Warnock compromise”. The embryo up to 14 days “ought to have *special* status”.

Ken Mason, the renowned medical lawyer, rejected such a compromise and put it starkly when he said:

“Either the *in vitro* embryo of *Homo sapiens* is a human being with rights that are absolute in themselves, and which only become comparative when they are in conflict with those of human beings in a more developed state, or it is an artefact to be regarded in the same light as any other biological product of the laboratory.”<sup>6</sup>

Given the “precarious existence” of pre-implanted embryos in this jurisdiction, we might ask whether the 14 days “special status” approach is the way to go.

The ambivalent status of the “special” embryos was well illustrated by the media outrage about “orphan embryos” in 1996. The 1990 Act provided that frozen embryos could be preserved for 5 years. At the end of that original 5 year period, unused embryos should be “allowed to perish”.<sup>7</sup>

In 1996, the 5 year term for embryos initially stored under the 1990 Act came to an end. Clinics were often no longer in contact with the gamete donors. The media had a field day expressing outrage at the destruction of thousands of “orphan embryos”.<sup>8</sup> The British government responded by providing that under certain conditions, the storage period could be extended from five to ten years.<sup>9</sup> What was all the fuss about?<sup>10</sup> If the imperilled embryos should be regarded as orphaned children, then, firstly, they should not have been created “doomed to die”. Secondly, having been created, Brazier argues, arrangements should have been made for their speedy pre-natal adoption. If, on the other hand, the stored embryos were merely useful biological material, they should have been put to good use, either in research or offered to infertile couples to “cure” their infertility. Such use of orphan embryos however, offended the principles governing gamete donation. Where no contact could be established with the parents or, rather, the gamete donors, no “effective consent” could be obtained to donate the embryos for research or pre-natal adoption. Yet if embryos are children, parental interests give way to their welfare. And if embryos are mere materials, why ascribe such rights to their donors?

### *Saviour Siblings*

Continuing confusion about how society regards embryos is illustrated starkly by the “saviour sibling” scenario. Parents with a sick child dying of a genetic disease now have the

3 For an analysis of the methodological injunction to “maximize goods” see Finnis, *Natural Law and Natural Rights* [Oxford: 1980] at 111-118.

4 Report of the Constitution Review Group, July 1996.

5 High Court, McGovern J., *MR v TR & Others* [15 November 2006] at page 20

6 Mason, J.K., *Human Life and Medical Practice*, Edinburgh University Press, 1988 at 94.

7 See section 14(5) (c) of the *Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act, 1990*.

8 See, for example, *The Independent*, 2 August 1996 “Day of National Shame”.

9 See the *Human Fertilisation and Embryology (Statutory Storage Period for Embryos) Regulations, 1996* [SI 196 No 375].

10 See Margot Brazier, “Human(s) as Medicine(s)”, *First Do No Harm* (Sheila McLean, ed.) Ashgate, 2006 187.



opportunity to create another child whose umbilical cord could contain stem cells offering a cure to his brother or sister. Embryos are created by IVF, and pre-implantation genetic diagnosis [PGD] is used to screen out any embryos that are also affected by the disease. To create a “saviour sibling”, tissue typing [Human Leukocyte Antigen Tissue Typing—HLA] is then used to find a compatible match to the sick child.

The legality of PGD with HLA was challenged in the much publicised case of *R (On the application of Quintavalle) v HFEA*.<sup>11</sup> Zain Hashmi suffered from *Beta Thallasaemia*, a genetic disease. Without a bone marrow transplant, he would die within a few years. Having failed to find a compatible donor within their existing family, Zain’s mother became pregnant twice in order to find a compatible donor. The first pregnancy was aborted because the foetus had the same genetic deficiency as Zain. The second pregnancy resulted in another sibling for Zain but one that was not a match. His parents sought authority from the HFEA to create an embryo and have it screened not just for PGD but also HLA. Certain activities could be licensed if they appeared to the Authority to be necessary or desirable for the purposes of providing treatment services. Such services included those designed to secure that embryos are in a *suitable condition* to be placed in a woman or to determine whether embryos are suitable for that purpose.<sup>12</sup> The HFEA gave the clinic treating the Hashmis permission to proceed

The applicant, Josephine Quintavalle, challenged the Authority’s decision arguing that the phrase “suitable condition” did not extend to selecting embryos that suited specific purposes. The trial judge found in her favour. The Court of Appeal reversed his decision<sup>13</sup> and the House of Lords ultimately endorsed the legality of PGD with HLA to create a “cure”, a saviour sibling for Zain.<sup>14</sup>

The Authority’s decision in relation to Zain Hashmi contrasted sharply with its original decision in the case of Charlie Whitaker. Charlie suffered from Diamond Blackfan Anemia (DBA). Stem cells from a tissue matched sibling offered Charlie a 25 per cent chance of recovery. DBA is not thought to be a genetic disease. When Charlie’s parents asked the HFEA to allow PGD and HLA to create a saviour sibling for Charlie, they were refused. The sibling to be created was not himself at risk of DBA. PGD on potential baby Hashmi was justified to avoid baby Hashmi being born with BT. Potential baby Whitaker faced no such risk. He or she would be purely a means to an end.

The distinction made between Zain Hashmi and Charlie Whitaker was vigorously attacked—so much so that the Authority ultimately changed its mind.<sup>15</sup> The Whitakers obtained treatment and the stem cell transplant appears to have worked. Charlie looks set for recovery. Once again, the question arises: What was the fuss about? If embryos can be manipulated to alleviate infertility or to research the causes of congenital disease, or develop procedures such as

PGD, how can the chance to cure a sick child be any less of a justification?

### *Ethical Issues*

Is having a child in order to save an existing child any worse than having a child to save a marriage or to perpetuate one’s family name? It is argued that the wrongfulness of creating “saviour siblings” lies not in what is done to the embryo, but what might ensue for the saviour child. He/she will not be value for himself or herself. Fears are voiced that if the transplant of cells for the copy fails, parents will try again with more intrusive and riskier procedures.<sup>16</sup> The infant may be subjected to a bone marrow transplant. The child may be conscripted as a kidney donor. She or he will be no more than a repository of spare parts. Yet the creation of saviour siblings changes little. If a sick child happens to have a born sibling who is a suitable tissue match, no eyebrows are raised when his parents authorise a bone marrow transplant from their healthy child to their dying child. Should any parent go the further step of attempting to use a healthy child as a kidney donor, doctors are unlikely to act on their request. The “saviour sibling” once born is protected in just the same way as is “accidental” sister. Objections to “saviour siblings” must either derive from an absolute objection to the use of embryos, or some more profound discomfort about the deliberate use of humans as medicine.

### *Reproductive Cloning*

Following the victory won by those in favour of embryo research in Britain, there followed a period of relative calm on that particular front. Controversy about reproductive technologies focused more on emerging developments in fertility treatment, such as, the fierce disputes about post menopausal motherhood and PGD. The peace was short lived.

The advent of Cell Nuclear Replacement (CNR) raised new issues in the debate and invigorated those who had a principled objection to any form of embryo research. “Dolly”, the miracle sheep, earned her place in human history in leading the way to mammalian, and potentially, human cloning. CNR involves the insertion of the nucleus of an adult cell into an emptied or denucleated ovum or egg cell. The egg cell or newly filled ovum is then subjected to an electrical impulse (kind of kick started with jump leads) and (with luck) that cell begins to divide and develop into an embryo. That embryo is then implanted into a surrogate and the child, if born, would be a genetic replica or twin of the donor who donated the nucleus. Its genome would be identical to that of the nuclear donor.<sup>17</sup>

Given the ability to clone a growing range of mammals, it seems likely that human reproductive cloning would be feasible. The costs may be prohibitive for most of us and the

11 [2003] 2 AER 105

12 See paragraph 1(1)(d) of Schedule II to the 1990 Act.

13 [2003] 3 AER 257, CA

14 [2005] 2 AER 555 HL

15 See *The Times*, 22 July 2004

16 For a fictional account of such a scenario see Picoult, J. *My Sister’s Keeper*, London, Hodder & Stoughton, 2005

17 The term “identical twin” is not exact because the clone would not have the same mitochondrial genes as its nuclear donor (because mitochondria come only from the egg), nor would it develop in the same uterine environment as did the donor.

“wastage” is immense. [One estimate indicates that one would need 1,000 human eggs implanted into 50 different women in order to produce a single human cloned offspring.]<sup>18</sup> Additionally, the risk to the women bearing the clones and the clones themselves remain significant. Dolly died early in 2003 at the age of 6, half the average life expectancy of a healthy sheep. She died of a progressive lung disease that normally affects older sheep and expressed other signs of accelerated aging, such as, obesity and arthritis. The biological problems associated with reproductive cloning are many but such difficulties may be resolved in time

### ***Therapeutic Cloning: Stem Cell Research***

A distinction is often made between reproductive cloning and therapeutic cloning. Therapeutic cloning involves the same CNR procedure but instead of implanting the embryo and permitting it to develop into the twin of the donor, the embryo is used as a source of stem cells for research and therapy. Stem cells are versatile cells in the body which are able both to reproduce themselves and to produce more specialised cells. As such, they are of great potential value in repairing and regenerating damaged cells and tissue. Such stem cells are developed into genetically compatible tissues or organs for those who need them. The difference, therefore, between reproductive and therapeutic cloning lies in the purpose for which the clone is created.

With therapeutic cloning, once an embryo is created by CNR, stem cells can be collected from that embryo. As the individual develops, it is thought that stem cells become more committed to a particular destination in the body. Embryonic stem cells, however, retain their pluripotency. Thus, those cells can then be cultured to grow into diverse kinds of tissue, perhaps, ultimately, whole organs. Tissue so derived from the original donor will be an exact match so the risk of rejection is averted. It is argued that such therapy, if permitted to advance, could ultimately transform the lives of those with Parkinson’s Disease, Alzheimer’s, Multiple Sclerosis or Spinal Cord Injury. So, were I to succumb to a disease such as Parkinson’s, stem cell therapy could utilise my bodily material to create stem cells that are a tailor made medicine for me. Put that way, the process sounds no more controversial than an autologous blood transfusion. And who would object should I arrange to have my own blood collected for use in planned surgery?

### ***Opposition and Support***

Legally, there appears to be little support for permitting reproductive cloning though Mason and Laurie suspect that the days of the outright prohibition on reproductive cloning are numbered.<sup>19</sup> Support for legalising therapeutic cloning or stem cell therapy is far more evident. In March 2005, the United Nations voted 84 to 34 (37 abstaining) in favour of a non-binding resolution that banned all forms of human

cloning, both therapeutic and reproductive. Most European nations voted against the resolution. The United Kingdom has permitted therapeutic cloning, more usually now referred to as stem cell therapy.<sup>20</sup>

### ***Moral Objections***

The objection to the therapeutic cloning of embryos centres on that crucial stage in the process whereby an embryo is created which could, if implanted, develop into a baby. McGovern J. (at page 22 of his judgment in *MR v TR and Others*, cited above) noted that while disagreement concerning the status of embryos is considerable, there seems to be almost complete agreement on the fact that, because of their nature, embryos are deserving of respect. Extracting the stem cell from the embryo destroys the embryo and this destroys its potential for development as a human being. Opponents to embryo research argue that an embryo created by propagation rather than fertilisation is morally indistinguishable from the embryo that results from the fusion of egg and sperm. Is that so? Is there not a difference between an embryo created exclusively by me using only my nucleus and one created by me and another person—in the more traditional way? The advent of CNR raises more questions than it answers. It is a matter for the people through their elected representatives in the Oireachtas to decide what steps should be taken to establish the legal status of embryos *in vitro*. The time to start thinking is now.

### ***Consent***

Unless an embryo that is created *in vitro* is immediately transferred to a woman’s uterus or “allowed to perish”, it will be frozen and stored. With the exception of the High Court decision in *MR v TR and Others*, the legal position relating to the retrieval, storage and use of gametes is unexplored territory in this jurisdiction. So, how should the law respond when the gamete contributors subsequently disagree about the disposal or use of their cryo preserved embryos?

The concept of consent in the British legislative framework for assisted reproduction is central. Consent to the storage and use of one’s gametes (that is, sperm and eggs) must be voluntary and fully informed. Under Schedule 3 of the 1990 Act, unlike other much more invasive medical procedures, consent to the creation of an embryo or to the use of one’s gametes in the treatment of others *must* be in writing and counselling must have been offered. “Effective consent” means consent that has not been withdrawn.

Consideration of the rules governing consent to the use of gametes first came before the Court of Appeal in the case of *R v Human Fertilisation and Embryology Authority, ex parte Blood*.<sup>21</sup> Mr and Mrs Blood had been trying to start a family. He contracted meningitis and lapsed into a coma. She asked for sperm samples to be collected by electro-ejaculation for use by her at a later date. Her husband died shortly afterwards.

18 Klotzko, 2001 as cited by Gilbert *et al* in *Bioethics and the New Embryology*, Sinauer Associates Inc 2005 at 129.

19 Mason, McCall, Smith & Laurie, *Law and Medical Ethics* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.), Oxford, OUP, 2006 at 252

20 See *The Human Fertilisation and Embryology (Research Purposes) Regulations 2001*. See also *The Human Reproductive Cloning Act, 2001*

21 [1996] 3 WLR 1176; [1997] 2 WLR 806 (CA)

Mrs Blood wanted to be inseminated with her deceased husband's sperm. The problem was that although she claimed that she and her husband had discussed the posthumous use of his sperm, Mr Blood had not given written consent. Sperm samples had been extracted at Mrs Blood's request while her husband was in a coma. Thus, there was no consent as required under Schedule 3.

Without consent, it would have been unlawful for Mrs Blood to use the sperm for treatment in Britain and the Court of Appeal accepted that their continued storage (absent his consent) was also "technically" an offence. Mrs Blood applied for permission to export the sperm to Belgium where treatment would be lawful but the HFEA refused. She sought judicial review of the decision. At first instance, Sir Stephen Brown decided that the HFEA had acted within its discretion. On appeal, Mrs Blood succeeded. The Court of Appeal took the view that despite the unlawfulness of the sperm retrieval, the HFEA had not taken adequate account of Mrs Blood's right under European law to receive treatment in another Member State.<sup>22</sup> In addition, the Court of Appeal was not satisfied that the public interest was served by refusing Mrs Blood permission to export the sperm for treatment elsewhere in Europe.

Following the decision of the Court of Appeal, the HFEA changed its mind on the grounds that, firstly, there could be no precedent set by this case because sperm should never again be taken without consent and secondly, because it could not establish a sufficiently compelling public policy exception to Mrs Blood's cross border rights. Mrs Blood succeeded in exporting the sperm and following treatment in Belgium she had two children.

What is remarkable about *Blood* is that it demonstrates how quickly the underlying philosophy of the 1990 Act was challenged. It began on the premise that, subject to a system of regulated licences, the supervision of reproductive medicine could, by and large, be left to the specialists to fulfil the desire and longing of infertile couples. It has moved quickly to the concept of a consumer who comes to the reproductive market with the usual range of assumptions about rights and guarantees.

## Paternity

Paternity is another issue that is likely to come before the Courts here as it did in Britain. In England, when an embryo is *in utero*, men have no say over whether a woman may lawfully end a pregnancy by abortion. The law characterises the decision to abort as being a medical one and the "father" has no right to obstruct medical discretion in this regard.<sup>23</sup>

Indeed, there are some who argue that once sperm leaves the man's body, whether during intercourse or IVF treatment, he loses the right to control what happens to it. Christine Overall, an avowed feminist says:-

"Once their sperm has been used to fertilise a woman's ovum, men do not have a right to determine whether a child will be born. Men who want to control

their sperm should be careful where they put it, and should pause to think before they provide their sperm for insemination, or for in vitro fertilisation—even with women who are their partners."<sup>24</sup>

However, the law does not quite agree. Consent of both parties remains critical in respect of decisions concerning an embryo *in vitro*. In Britain, once either gamete provider has withdrawn consent to the use or continued storage of an embryo, then it must be "allowed to perish". Whichever partner does not want the embryo to be used in treatment has, effectively, a right of veto. In *Evans v Amicus Health Care Limited and Others*,<sup>25</sup> the Court of Appeal confirmed that this right of veto persists even if the embryos in storage represent the other person's only opportunity to have genetically related children.

Following the discovery that Natalie Evans had ovarian cancer, she and her then partner, Howard Johnson, underwent a cycle of IVF treatment resulting in the storage of six embryos. She was treated, successfully, for cancer and the stored embryos were her only opportunity of having her own baby.

Ms Evans and Mr Johnson had each given the necessary consents to storage and use of their gametes in accordance with Schedule 3 requirements. However, before an embryo transfer had been attempted, their relationship had ended. Mr Johnson wrote to the clinic to notify it of the separation and to state that the embryos could be destroyed. Ms Evans sought an injunction requiring him to restore his consent to the use and storage of the embryos together with a declaration that the "consent" requirements of Schedule 3 of the 1990 Act were incompatible with her Convention rights, particularly, her right to respect for private and family life (Article 8) and the right not be discriminated against in the enjoyment of her Convention rights (Article 14). The judge dismissed her claim and the Court of Appeal dismissed her Appeal.

The Court of Appeal acknowledged that the consent provisions of the Act in this case worked a hardship, probably of an unanticipated kind, but that in itself could not lead the Court to interfere with Parliament's decision to require bilateral consent to implantation. The House of Lords refused permission to appeal and Ms Evans appealed to the European Court of Human Rights.

On the 22nd November, 2006, the European Court of Human Rights held a Grand Chamber hearing in the case of *Evans v. the United Kingdom* (Application no. 6339/05) and into her complaints that requiring Mr Johnson's consent for the continued storage and implantation of the fertilised eggs was a breach of her rights under Articles 8 (right to respect for private and family life) and 14 (prohibition of discrimination) of the European Convention on Human Rights and the embryos' rights under Article 2 (right to life). Judgment was delivered on the 10th April, 2007 and, by thirteen votes to four, the Grand Chamber held that there has been no

<sup>22</sup> EC Treaty, Article 59

<sup>23</sup> See for example, *Paton v Trustees of the British Pregnancy Advisory Service* [1979] QB 276; and *C v S* [1988] QB 135

<sup>24</sup> "Frozen Embryos and "Father's Rights": Parenthood and Decision Making in the Cryopreservation of Embryos" in Joan Callahan (ed), *Reproduction, Ethics and the Law: Feminist Responses* (Indiana UP Bloomington and Indianapolis 1995) 177-98.

<sup>25</sup> [2004] AER 3 at 1025

violation of Articles 8 and 14 of the Convention. It held, unanimously, that there had been no violation of Article 2.

The European Court of Human Rights accepted the Government's submission that respect for human dignity and free will, as well as a desire to ensure a fair balance between the parties to IVF treatment, underlay the legislature's decision to enact provisions permitting of no exception to ensure that every person donating gametes for the purpose of IVF treatment would know in advance that no use could be made of his or her genetic material, without his or her continuing consent. It accepted that the absolute nature of the rule served to promote legal certainty and to avoid the problems of arbitrariness and inconsistency inherent in weighing, on a case by case basis, what the Court of Appeal described as "entirely incommensurable" interests. In the Court's view, these general interests pursued by the legislation were legitimate and consistent with Article 8.

The dissenting opinion of the Court, however, took the view that the 1990 Act did not provide for the possibility of taking into consideration the very special medical condition affecting the applicant. Because of its absolute nature, the legislation precluded the balancing of the competing interests in this particular case. The dissenting Judges noted that while the majority accepted that a balance has to be struck between the conflicting Article 8 rights of the parties to the IVF treatment, in fact, no such balance was achieved in the circumstances of the present case since the decision upholding J's choice not to become a parent involved an absolute and final elimination of the applicant's decision. According to the dissenting Judges, rendering empty or meaningless a decision of one of the two parties could not be considered as balancing the interests.

### *The Right of Access to Information*

Another question that arises in the context of reproductive technologies is the right of children to information concerning their genetic makeup. In a number of Member States, the right of donors to anonymity has been protected. A recent *Sunday Times* article reported on the influx of Danish sperm into Ireland. Danish law prohibits sperm donor identification, but what about the rights of Irish children (born as a result of AID) to know something of their genetic history.

In Britain, gamete donation was anonymous until April 2005. Children born following anonymous donation could be given access to non-identifying information, such as, the donor's ethnic origin or occupation and donors are encouraged to fill in what was known as a "pen portrait" in which they left a message to be given to any children conceived using their gametes. It was also possible, once they reach the age of 18, for children to ask the HFEA whether they had been born following fertility treatment and if they were related to a prospective spouse.<sup>26</sup> The latter provision is rather odd. It is clearly intended to prevent incestuous sexual relationships but, of course, these could exist outside marriage. It is not possible for a person who knows that she was born following donor insemination to ascertain from the HFEA whether she

is genetically related to a non-martial sexual partner, even if she intends having children with him.

For a long time, anonymity was believed to be in the interests of donors, recipients and children. It shielded donors from parental obligations, inheritance claims, and unwanted contact with their offspring and it protected the privacy and security of the recipient family. The assumption was that most donation (especially sperm donation) was contingent upon non-identification and the promise of anonymity was directed towards ensuring adequate stocks of donated gametes.

The purported justification for anonymity has been challenged. The rights of children have become the subject of recent political and judicial comment. Arguably, offspring conceived through donor insemination have been deprived in advance of conception of half of their genetic family. Some contend that children need to know the identity of their biological parents and that the interests of children should take priority over the interests of donors. Nowadays, we have a greater understanding of the importance of knowing about inherited genetic conditions. Children born following anonymous gamete donation are unable to give an accurate family medical history to their doctors and this could compromise their ability to receive optimum health care.

In *R (On the application of Rose) v Secretary of State for Health*, Scott Barker J held that respect for private and family life (as a right under the Convention) requires that everyone should be able to establish details of their identity as individual human beings. He stated:

"A human being is a human being whatever the circumstances of his conception and an AID child is entitled to establish a picture of his identity as much as anyone else. We live in a much more open society than even 20 years ago. Secrecy nowadays has to be justified where previously it did not.

...

Everyone should be able to establish details as to his identity as a human being. That, to my mind, plainly includes the right to obtain information about a biological parent who will inevitably have contributed to the identity of his child."<sup>27</sup>

The Court in *Rose* found that Article 8 was engaged (though not necessarily breached). Subsequently, Regulations were passed in England in 2004 and came into effect in April 2005. Stocks of anonymously donated sperm could be used, lawfully, until April 2006 but since that date, no sperm can be used in treatment unless the donor is prepared to be identifiable.

A European study of the parents of AID children showed that 78% had decided never to tell their children about their origins for fear of upsetting them or complicating their relationship.<sup>28</sup> Given the high rate of non-disclosure by parents, any right to identifying information may make little difference to the majority of children conceived by AID.

<sup>26</sup> *Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act, 1990* section 31(4)(b) and 31(6).

<sup>27</sup> [2002] EWHC 1593 (Admin), [2002] 3 FCR 731.

<sup>28</sup> Gottlieb *et al*, "Disclosure of Donor Insemination to the Child: The Impact of Swedish legislation on couples' attitudes" (2000) 12 *Human Reproduction* 2052-6, 2053.

# Law Reform Commission Consultation Paper on Consolidation and Reform of the Courts Acts

Claire Bruton BL\*

## Introduction

In 2005, the Law Reform Commission embarked on a joint project with the Courts Service and the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform with the aim of consolidating into a single Courts Act the existing legislative provisions dealing with the jurisdiction of the courts in Ireland. The initial phase of this project has recently concluded with the publication of the Law Reform Commission's *Consultation Paper on Consolidation and Reform of the Courts Acts*.<sup>1</sup> The Consultation Paper is accompanied by the text of a draft Consolidated Courts Bill on CD Rom which contains 358 sections. This draft Consolidated Courts Bill unites in a single document the existing text of the Courts Acts, including a number of pre-1922 provisions.

This article aims to provide an overview of the Consultation Paper and highlights provisional recommendations made by the Commission.

## Overview of the Consultation Paper

The Commission was assisted in the preparation of the Consultation Paper by a Working Group consisting of members of the Courts Service, Department for Justice, Equality and Law Reform, the judiciary, academics and the legal profession.

The aim of the joint project is to consolidate into a single Bill the existing statutory provisions concerning the jurisdiction of each of the permanent courts in Ireland, the Supreme Court, the Court of Criminal Appeal, the High Court, the Circuit Court and the District Court. The Commission concluded that this provided an ideal opportunity to develop a suitable scheme or model for a new Courts Act.

In addition to providing a draft consolidated Courts Bill, the Consultation Paper also identified a number of specific areas related to the jurisdiction of the courts that the Commission regarded as worthy of consideration with a view to possible reform. This article will not concentrate on these in much detail except to outline the areas and give a brief indication of provisional recommendations, if any, made about them.

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1 Law Reform Commission *Consultation Paper on Consolidation and Reform of the Courts Acts* (LRC 46-2007).

## Consolidation of the Courts Acts

The primary reason for a consolidation of the Courts Acts is the large number of Courts Acts enacted since 1922.<sup>2</sup> During the preparation of the Consultation Paper, the Commission noted that almost 60 Courts Acts have been enacted since that year. Some of these, in particular the Courts (Supplemental Provisions) Act 1961 involved part-consolidation but none completed a full consolidation.<sup>3</sup> In addition, a number of post-1922 Acts carried over provisions concerning the jurisdiction of the pre-1922 courts. Accordingly the Commission identified pre-1922 provisions which still have a resonance to the present courts in order to determine suitable provisions for inclusion in the consolidated Courts Act. The Consultation Paper thus includes a chapter examining the history of the courts, which concludes with a summary of the historical roots of each of the courts in this jurisdiction. For example, the Supreme Court can trace the origins of its appellate jurisdiction to the Court of Appeal in Chancery and its successor, the Court of Appeal of the Supreme Court of Judicature.<sup>4</sup> The chapter analyses the history of each of the courts in this jurisdiction and accordingly identifies precise pre-1922 provisions worthy of inclusion in the consolidated Courts Bill.<sup>5</sup>

The draft Consolidated Courts Bill which accompanies the Consultation Paper presents the text of existing legislation, both pre-1922 and post 1922, dealing with the jurisdiction of the courts. The draft Bill does not re-draft the legislative provisions; rather they are presented in an updated and restated form.

The Commission has provisionally recommended that the relevant sections of the Courts (Establishment and Constitution) Act 1961 which establish the Supreme Court, High Court, Court of Criminal Appeal, Circuit Court and District Court be omitted from the ambit of the Consolidated Courts Act in the interests of certainty.<sup>6</sup> Instead, the Commission provisionally recommends that a provision be included in the new Courts Act which provides for the

2 See the list of these Acts at pp 266-267 of the Consultation Paper

3 It is worth noting that the Department of Justice's 1962 Programme of Law Reform indicated an intention to consolidate all of the legislative provisions, pre-1922 and post-1922, on the jurisdiction of the courts. See Consultation Paper at pp. 31-37.

4 Section 23 of the *Supreme Court of Judicature Act (Ireland) 1877*. See also Consultation Paper at pp 21-42 and pp. 103-4.

5 See pp. 105-108 of the Consultation Paper.

6 See pp. 31-37 of the Consultation Paper.

*Continued on p.197*

A directory of legislation, articles and acquisitions received in the Law Library from the  
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### Conditions of employment

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### Contract

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to documentation in advance of sworn inquiry – Whether applicant entitled to information in relation to other gardaí convicted under statute – Whether applicant entitled to particulars of allegation – Whether allegation of wholly different character to criminal charge on which applicant acquitted – Whether disciplinary proceedings in relation to allegation which had been subject of proceedings in which *nolle prosequi* entered constituted abuse of process – Whether leave granted on ground of delay in advancing disciplinary proceedings – *McGrath v Commissioner of An Garda Síochána* [1990] ILRM 817 considered; *Atanasov v RAT* [2006] IESC 53 (Unrep, SC, 26/7/2006) distinguished – Garda Síochána (Discipline) Regulations 1989 (SI 94/1989) – Constitution of Ireland 1937, Article 38 – Prohibition granted in relation to allegation on which applicant had been acquitted (2005/233/JR – Ó Néill J – 13/3/2007) [2007] IEHC 84  
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remedy – Whether balance of convenience favoured granting injunction – Interlocutory injunction refused (2007/359P – Clarke J – 31/1/2007) [2007] IEHC 67  
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### Leave

On notice – Test to be applied – Deportation – Procedure to be observed in application for leave to seek judicial review and injunction restraining deportation when decision sought to be impugned is one under s. 3(11) of the Immigration Act 1999 – Evidential threshold – Appropriate test – Distinction between standard of arguability and that of substantial grounds – Immigration Act 1999 (No 22), s 3 – Rules of the Superior Courts 1986 (SI 15/1986), O 84, r 20 - Leave to apply refused (2006/280JR\_ MacMenamin J – 12/7/2006) [2006] IEHC 19  
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relevant factors into account – National Monuments (Amendment) Act 1987 (No.17), ss. 3(3) and 3(5) – Respondents’ appeal dismissed (393 & 395/2005 – SC – 27/3/2007) [2007] IESC 10  
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Applicant convicted in District Court – Fundamental flaws in sentencing – Conviction quashed – Whether applicant could plead *autrefois* convict – Whether court having discretion to remit matter to District Court for further consideration – Whether matter should be remitted to District Court – Rules of the Superior Courts 1986 (SI 15/1986), O 84, r 26(4) – *Sweeney v Brophy* [1993] 2 IR 202 distinguished; *Sheehan v Reilly* [1993] 2 IR 81 considered – Order remitting prosecution to District Court (2007/22JR – Ó Néill J - 16/3/2007) [2007] IEHC 96  
*Walsh v District Judge Brown*

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### Solicitors

Solicitor/client relationship – Plaintiff instructed defendant to communicate only with plaintiff’s solicitor – Defendant

copied information directly to plaintiff – Whether such communication interfered with solicitor/client relationship – Whether such communication breached right to privacy – Injunction refused (2006/5050P – Clarke J – 19/1/2007) [2007] IEHC 14  
*Dominican v AXA Insurance Ltd*

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Solicitor’s undertaking - Enforcement of solicitors’ undertakings – Conduct of solicitor – Whether performance of undertaking possible – Court’s inherent supervisory jurisdiction – *IPLG Ltd v Stuart* (Unrep, Lardner J., 19/3/1992), *Fox v Bannister* [1988] 1 QB 925, *Udall v Capri Lighting Ltd* [1988] 1 QB 907 and *Myers v Elman* [1940] AC 282 followed - Claim dismissed (2006/72SP – Laffoy J – 6/11/2006) [2006] IEHC 337  
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### Intoxicating liquor

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### Negligent misstatement

Auctioneer – Special Relationship – Sale of commercial premises – Seller negligently measuring floor space – Claim that decision to purchase made in reliance on negligently published floor measurements – Whether special relationship existing to impose duty of care – Whether plaintiff sufficiently

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SI 281/2007

European Communities (eco design requirements for certain energy-using products) regulations 2007  
DIR/2005-32  
SI 557/2007

European Communities (electronic communications networks and services)(authorisation) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2002-20  
SI 372/2007

European Communities (electronic communications networks and services)(access) (amendment) regulations

2007  
DIR/2002-19)  
SI 373/2007

European communities (electronic communications networks and services)(universal service and users' rights) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2002-22  
SI 374/2007

European Communities (electronic communications networks and services)(framework) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2002-21)  
SI 271/2007

European communities (food supplements) regulations 2007  
DIR/2002-46, DIR/2006-37  
SI 506/2007

European Communities (insurance and reinsurance groups supplementary supervision) regulations 2007  
DIR/98-78, DIR/2005-68  
SI 366/2007

European communities (internal market in natural gas) (BGÉ) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2003-55)  
SI 377/2007

European Communities (labelling, presentation and advertising and advertising of foodstuffs) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2006-107, DIR/89-108  
SI 376/2007

European communities (life assurance) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2005-68  
SI 351/2007

European communities (life assurance) framework (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2005-68  
SI 352/2007

European communities (mechanically propelled vehicle entry into service) regulations 2007  
DIR/98-12  
SI 448/2007

European communities (minimum conditions for examining of vegetable species) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2006-127  
SI 421/2007

European communities (motor vehicles un-eco type approval) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DEC/97-836  
SI 449/2007

European communities (non-life insurance) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2005-68  
SI 353/2007

European communities (non-life insurance) framework (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2005-68  
SI 354/2007

European Communities (phytosanitary measures) (brown rot in Egypt) regulations 2007  
DEC/2004-4, DEC/2004-836, DEC/2005-840, DEC/2006-749  
SI 261/2007

European Communities (protection of plant variety rights) regulations, 2007  
REG/2100-94, REG/1768-95  
SI 273/2007

European communities (vegetable seed) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2006-124  
SI 420/2007

European communities (welfare of calves and pigs) (amendment) regulations 2007  
DIR/2001-88, DIR/2001-93  
SI 307/2007

Sea fisheries (incidental catches of cetaceans in fisheries) regulations, 2007  
REG/812-2004  
SI 274/2007

Transparency (directive 2004/109/EC) Regulations 2007  
DIR/2004-109  
SI 277/2007

Waste management (shipments of waste) regulations 2007  
REG/1013-2007  
SI 419/2007

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## **BILLS OF THE OIREACTHAS 9/10/2007 [30TH DAIL & 23RD SEANAD]**

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**[pmb]: Description: Information compiled by Damien Grenham, Law**

### **Library, Four Courts, Dublin 7.**

#### **Private Members' Bills are proposals for legislation in Ireland initiated by members of the Dail or Seanad. Other bills are initiated by the Government.**

Air navigation and transport (indemnities) bill 2005  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad

Charities bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage-Dail

Civil law (miscellaneous provisions) bill 2006  
Committee stage – Dail

Civil partnership bill 2004  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *David Norris*

Climate protection bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Ivana Bacik, Joe O'Toole, Shane Ross, David Norris and Feargal Quinn*

Control of exports bill 2007  
Committee stage-Dail **[pmb]** *Mary O'Rourke (Initiated in Seanad)*

Copyright and related rights (amendment) bill 2007  
Committee stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Mary O'Rourke*

Coroners bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Mary O'Rourke*

Credit union savings protection bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Joe O'Toole, Fergal Quinn, Mary Henry and David Norris*

Criminal justice (mutual assistance) bill 2005  
Committee stage – Dail *(Initiated in Seanad)*

Defamation bill 2006  
Committee stage – Seanad

Defence (amendment) (No.2) bill 2006  
1<sup>st</sup> stage – Seanad

Defence of life and property bill 2006  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Tom Morrissey, Michael Brennan and John Minihan*

Electricity regulation (amendment) bill 2003  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage – Seanad

Enforcement of court orders (no.2) bill 2004  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senator Brian Hayes*

Ethics in public office (amendment) bill 2007  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Mary O'Rourke*

Fines bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Dail

Freedom of information (amendment) (no.2) bill 2003  
1<sup>st</sup> stage – Seanad **[pmb]** *Brendan Ryan*

Genealogy and heraldry bill 2006  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senator Brian Hayes*

Housing (stage payments) bill 2006  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senator Paul Coughlan*

Immigration, residence and protection bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad

Irish nationality and citizenship (amendment) (an Garda Siochana) bill 2006  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage – Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Brian Hayes, Maurice Cummins and Ulick Burke.*

Irish nationality and citizenship and ministers and secretaries (amendment) bill 2003  
Report – Seanad **[pmb]** *Feargal Quinn*

Land and conveyancing law reform bill 2006  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage- Dail *(Initiated in Seanad)*

Markets in financial instruments and miscellaneous provisions bill 2007  
Committee stage- Dail

Mental capacity and guardianship bill 2007  
Committee stage- Seanad

National pensions reserve fund (ethical investment) (amendment) bill 2006  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage- Seanad

Nuclear test ban bill 2006  
Committee stage – Dail

Offences against the state (amendment) bill 2006  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Joe o'Toole, David Norris, Mary Henry and Feargal Quinn.*

Official languages (amendment) bill 2005  
2<sup>nd</sup> stage – Seanad **[pmb]** *Senators Joe O'Toole, Michael Brennan and John Minihan.*

Passports bill 2007  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Dail

Privacy bill 2006  
1<sup>st</sup> stage- Seanad **[pmb]** *Senator Donnie Cassidy*



Tribunals of inquiry bill 2005 1 <sup>st</sup> stage- Dail	14/2007	Electoral (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 10/04/2007</i>	32/2007	Community, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/07/2007</i>
Twenty-eighth amendment of the constitution bill 2007 1 <sup>st</sup> stage- Dail	15/2007	Broadcasting (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 10/04/2007</i>	33/2007	Ministers and Secretaries (Ministers of State) Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/07/2007</i>
Voluntary health insurance (amendment) bill 2007 Committee stage- Seanad [pmb] Mary O'Rourke	16/2007	National Development Finance Agency (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 10/04/2007</i>	34/2007	Roads Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/07/2007</i>
<hr/> <b>ACTS OF THE OIREACTHAS 2007</b> <hr/>				
<b>Information compiled by Damien Grenham, Law Library, Four Courts, Dublin 7.</b>				
1/2007	Health (Nursing Homes) (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 19/02/2007</i>	19/2007	Consumer Protection Act 2007 <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	<b>Abbreviations</b> <b>BR = Bar Review</b> <b>CIILP = Contemporary Issues in Irish Politics</b> <b>CLP = Commercial Law Practitioner</b> <b>DULJ = Dublin University Law Journal</b> <b>GLSI = Gazette Law Society of Ireland</b> <b>IBLQ = Irish Business Law Quarterly</b> <b>ICLJ = Irish Criminal Law Journal</b> <b>ICPLJ = Irish Conveyancing &amp; Property Law Journal</b> <b>IELJ = Irish Employment Law Journal</b> <b>IJEL = Irish Journal of European Law</b> <b>IJFL = Irish Journal of Family Law</b> <b>ILR = Independent Law Review</b> <b>ILT = Irish Law Times</b> <b>IPELJ = Irish Planning &amp; Environmental Law Journal</b> <b>ISLR = Irish Student Law Review</b> <b>ITR = Irish Tax Review</b> <b>JCP &amp; P = Journal of Civil Practice and Procedure</b> <b>JSIJ = Judicial Studies Institute Journal</b> <b>MLJI = Medico Legal Journal of Ireland</b> <b>QRTL = Quarterly Review of Tort Law</b>
2/2007	Citizens Information Act <i>Signed 22/02/2007</i>	20/2007	Pharmacy Act 2007 <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	
3/2007	Health Insurance (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 22/02/2007</i>	21/2007	Building Control Act <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	
4/2007	Courts and Court Officers Act (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 05/03/2007</i>	22/2007	Communications Regulation (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	
5/2007	Electricity Regulation (Amendment) (Single Electricity Market) Act 2007 <i>Signed 05/03/2007</i>	23/2007	Health Act 2007 <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	
6/2007	Criminal Law (Sexual Offences) (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 07/03/2007</i>	24/2007	Defence (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 21/04/2007</i>	
7/2007	National Oil Reserves Agency Act 2007 <i>Signed 13/03/2007</i>	25/2007	Medical Practitioners Act 2007 <i>Signed 07/05/2007</i>	
8/2007	Social welfare and Pensions Act 2007 <i>Signed 30/03/2007</i>	26/2007	Child Care (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 08/05/2007</i>	
9/2007	Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2007 <i>Signed 31/03/2007</i>	27/2007	Protection of Employment (Exceptional Collective Redundancies And Related Matters) Act 2007 <i>Signed 08/05/2007</i>	
10/2007	Prisons Act 2007 <i>Signed 31/03/2007</i>	28/2007	Statute Law Revision Act 2007 <i>Signed 08/05/2007</i>	
11/2007	Finance Act 2007 <i>Signed 02/04/2007</i>	29/2007	Criminal Justice Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/05/2007</i>	
12/2007	Carbon Fund Act 2007 <i>Signed 07/04/2007</i>	30/2007	Water Services Act 2007 <i>Signed 14/05/2007</i>	
13/2007	Asset Covered Securities (Amendment) Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/04/2007</i>	31/2007	Finance (No.2) Act 2007 <i>Signed 09/07/2007</i>	

continuation of each of these courts.<sup>7</sup> Provisions which have this effect are included in the Consultation Paper's draft Consolidated Courts Bill.<sup>8</sup> The Commission hopes that the draft Consolidated Courts Bill will enable and assist those commenting on the Consultation Paper to indicate provisions suitable for inclusion in a final Courts Act.

## Devising a Model for a Consolidated Courts Act

The Commission decided that, in the interests of accessibility, it was necessary to devise a structure for the Consolidated Courts Act. The Commission devised the scheme by completing a comparative analysis of similar legislation in a number of jurisdictions.<sup>9</sup> The development of a suitable scheme for a new Courts Act in this jurisdiction also necessitated an examination of the exact type of provisions that are sufficiently connected with the jurisdiction of the courts to merit their inclusion in the Consolidated Courts Act.

Having considered a number of options, the Commission concluded by provisionally recommending that the consolidated Courts Act have a thematic structure. This means that the draft Consolidated Courts Bill consists of individual Parts each dealing with a particular aspect of the jurisdiction of the courts with each court being separately provided for, where applicable, in a division of the Part.<sup>10</sup> For example, Part 6 of the draft Bill attached to the Consultation Paper is concerned with judicial posts and is divided into parts dealing with provisions applicable to all judicial posts, judges of the Superior Courts, High Court judges, judges of the Circuit Court, judges of the District Court, presiding judges and powers of the presiding judges.

In order to decide what provisions are suitable for inclusion in the new Courts Act, the Commission considered its general purpose. The Commission provisionally concluded that it should provide for the allocation of exercise of the judicial power of the State, the administration of justice, constitution and jurisdiction of the courts, allocation of jurisdiction between the courts, management of the courts and judges and officers of the courts.<sup>11</sup> The scheme of the draft Consolidated Courts Bill developed by the Commission contains the following general headings:

- Preliminary and General;
- Constitution of Courts;
- Jurisdiction of the Courts;
- Circuits and Districts;
- Appeals;
- Judicial Posts;
- Officers of the Court;
- Administration of the Courts;
- Procedure;
- Savers and Miscellaneous.

<sup>7</sup> See page 38 of the Consultation Paper.

<sup>8</sup> See pages 37-38 of the Consultation Paper.

<sup>9</sup> In chapter 4 of the Consultation Paper, the Courts Acts of England and Wales, Singapore, New Zealand, Australia and Northern Ireland are examined in detail.

<sup>10</sup> See pp 247-8 of the Consultation Paper.

<sup>11</sup> See pp 248-9 of the Consultation Paper.

The Consultation Paper discusses in some detail the type of provisions suitable for inclusion in the Courts Act. The Commission noted that in recent years provisions relating to remuneration and salaries of the judiciary have been amended by legislation which is concerned with the remuneration of Oireachtas members as a whole. The Commission provisionally recommended that legislative provisions relating to the salaries, remuneration and pensions of the judiciary be excluded from the ambit of the Consolidated Courts Act.<sup>12</sup> The Commission made a similar recommendation regarding the Judicial Appointment Advisory Board.<sup>13</sup> The Commission also decided that the majority of the Courts Service Act 1998 should be excluded given that its provisions are not sufficiently related to the jurisdiction of the courts.<sup>14</sup> The Commission welcomes submissions on the proposed structure of a consolidated Courts Act devised in the Consultation Paper.

## Substantive areas of reform

The Commission also analysed proposals for reform on the jurisdiction of the courts made by other bodies. The Commission selected eight discrete areas for examination in the Consultation Paper. These are:

- the case stated procedure,
- the *in camera* rule,
- vesting of statutory jurisdiction in statutory bodies and the removal of court jurisdiction in other areas,
- the appeals system in general, including leave to appeal in criminal cases,
- increase in general monetary limits in the civil jurisdiction of the District and Circuit Courts,
- the Rules of Courts Committees,
- criminal procedure: summary trials of indictable offences and the right of election and
- jurisdiction of the courts in criminal matters: the allocation of cases to Circuit Court and Central Criminal Court.

The Commission made a number of provisional recommendations on these issues. These included repealing the form of appeal by way of case stated because the Commission considered that an ordinary appeal is the more appropriate appeal mechanism and that it would be sufficient to retain the consultative case stated. In addition, the Commission recommended that a more general rule be provided which would protect the anonymity of parties to proceedings which are currently outside the *in camera* rule. The Commission adhered to and reiterated the recommendation of the Legal Costs Implementation Advisory Group that the monetary limits of the District and Circuit Courts be increased in line with the Courts and Court Officers Act 2002 (excluding personal injuries claims).

<sup>12</sup> See pp 254-9 of the Consultation Paper.

<sup>13</sup> At page 259 of the Consultation Paper.

<sup>14</sup> See pp 264-5 of the Consultation Paper.

## Conclusion

The Commission welcomes submission on any aspect of its Consultation Paper, in particular its provisional recommendations. Any submissions received will be taken into account during the consultation period prior to the publication of its final report which will contain a final Consolidated Courts Act. The date for the receipt of submissions in respect of the Consultation Paper is 30 November 2007 and can be made by email to [info@lawreform.ie](mailto:info@lawreform.ie) or by post to Secretary/Head of Administration, The Law Reform Commission, 35-39 Shelbourne Road, Ballsbridge, Dublin 4.

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## Launch of New Book on Discovery and Disclosure



*Pictured at the launch of Discovery and Disclosure in The Law Library Distillery Building are: L-R: Andrew Fitzpatrick BL; William Abrahamson BL; James Hamilton The DPP; James Dwyer BL; The Hon. Mr Justice Adrian Hardiman, The Supreme Court; and Catherine Dolan, Commercial Manager, Thomson Round Hall.*

# The Pupil-Exchange Programme

*Inga Ryan, CPD Manager*

In June 2007, the Bar Council of Ireland piloted an International Pupil Exchange Programme for barristers. Open to barristers in their first and second years, the programme was devised under the CPD umbrella to increase the legal knowledge of the Bar, and to create bonds and links with our foreign colleagues. It is hoped this will broaden the lines of communication and lead to the sharing of knowledge among jurisdictions.

In June, barristers Sandra Walshe, Rachel McCrossan, Miriam Delahunt and Vivien Barror, traveled to foreign jurisdictions for a period of three weeks to participate in the programme, whilst the Bar of Ireland hosted two London based barristers. This was an exciting experience for all participants as despite months of preparation, partaking in the pilot was stepping into the unknown.

We devised a programme of activities for our guests that offered insights into the Irish legal system and culture. Inge Clissman SC and Brendan Grehan SC acted as ‘masters’ and looked after our guests exceptionally well. Irish members who participated have written brief articles giving insights into their experiences. Should Bars from other jurisdictions be willing to participate, we hope to host a similar programme again this year.

## The Barcelona Experience

*Sandra Walshe BL*

My experience of the legal system in Barcelona was rather similar to that of being a devil in the Law Library in the first month to six weeks. I did a lot of observing and following lawyers around. During the three weeks I spent in the office, I was principally involved in criminal law cases although my mentor would normally have practised civil law. I discovered there were some quite glaring differences between the Spanish and Irish legal system.

Firstly, on a general level, prior to ever going to trial each party to an action not only has a lawyer but also a “procurador de los tribunales”. We do not have an exact equivalent of the “procurador” here but the nearest would be a commissioner for oaths or notary public although the roles are quite different. A “procurador” has no formal legal training or qualifications but they are involved in all cases. I have to admit that at one level I felt this role was nothing more than a money-printing machine!

The next thing that struck me was the relative informality of the day to day running of the system. The dress code I discovered was very informal with it not being an unusual occurrence for lawyers to turn up for their court appearance in jeans and to just robe up before entering court – robes are hired free of charge on the day as opposed to having personal robes like we do. The judge is generally sitting in court before the parties enter and does not seem to command the same level of respect as an Irish judge as there is no bowing, etc. My colleagues in the firm where I worked couldn’t understand why we put so much emphasis on formality here. One area where the system in Barcelona seemed to pip our own is in the organisation of the daily lists. Each hearing is assigned a time for hearing on a particular day, thus there is no need for a call over each morning and no waiting around from around 10am decorating the corridors when other valuable work could be taking place. While the lists in Barcelona may not run exactly on time, they do at least pretty much guarantee that your case will be heard on the assigned date.

Regarding actual legal experience, I was fully integrated in the work within the office. My most surreal and hands on experience was in a domestic violence trial under the penal code where the accused was a British national. I found myself heavily involved in two-way translation at the pre-trial consultation and in witness question preparation based on the evidence of our client, the accused person, which had all been prepared in English. Luckily my mentor also spoke quite good English therefore there was a minimal risk of nuances in language being lost in translation.

Being a civil system, the most important factor in Spanish law is whether a particular action is codified or not. This primarily decides whether an action may be tried through the civil or criminal systems, as, if an action is not codified it is almost impossible to find a cause of action. This differs significantly from this jurisdiction where we may not have statute covering all causes of action and rely instead on the common law.

Having sat in on a number of criminal trials I came away with very mixed views on the Spanish criminal legal system. On one end, I was appalled at the way the defendant is first up in a criminal trial. Not only is he the first witness to take the stand but he is questioned in the first instance by the lawyer representing the “Ministerio Fiscal”, the Spanish equivalent of the DPP, as opposed to his own defence counsel. (The “Ministerio Fiscal” is a full time role in the permanent paid employment of the State). This did not sit well with my idea of justice from our constitutional perspective where one is presumed innocent until proven otherwise beyond a reasonable doubt by the prosecution. Further, by going first, a defendant does not know what case he has to answer and is most likely going to show all his cards before the prosecution gets to wheel in their own witnesses to prove its case. In addition, judgment is not handed down on the day in a majority of cases and an accused may have to wait several weeks, or even months, before finding out his fate. This would leave a person who is potentially innocent with serious charges and a possible custodial sentence hanging over them for far longer than is necessary in my opinion. It does

not reconcile easily with the Art 6 ECHR requirement for a fair and speedy trial I would posit. It is also my understanding from the lawyers I spoke to that jury trials are far less common in Spain than they are here. However, I would caution that I only went to trials in the courts of First Instance, the equivalent of our District Courts.

On a more positive note I was very impressed with one particular aspect of the Spanish criminal legal system, that being victim representation during the trial. Previously I would have been a vociferous opponent of a victim being legally represented during a trial. In Spain, a victim is entitled to have their own lawyer present at a criminal trial. This lawyer is not only there to observe proceedings but has full rights to cross examine the accused and can put questions to their own client also. Having seen this in operation I now feel that having a victim's lawyer in court can be useful in assisting the court to see in a clearer context the circumstances in which the crime allegedly occurred. In some ways, rightly or wrongly, the victim's lawyer could act as a method of asking questions the prosecution may forget or omit to address.

In conclusion, I truly believe that availing of the opportunity to go on the Pupil Exchange Programme was one of the most positive experiences of my life to date. I was able to learn more about the legal system in Spain in that short space of time with hands on experience than I could have done sitting for months in a classroom.

## The Bar of England and Wales

*Rachel McCrossan BL and Miriam Delahunt BL*

Each week, we were attached to either a criminal or civil chambers in London. Both of us were lucky to have been exposed to a wide range of civil and criminal proceedings.

On the Monday and Friday of each week, we had activities, such as a visit to Snaresbrook Crown Court, the Royal Courts of Justice and the Old Bailey, a meeting with Geoffrey Vos, Chairman of the Bar Council, a visit to Camberwell Green Magistrates Court to shadow a Crown Prosecution Service barrister, and last but not least, a tour of the Houses of Parliament.

One of the abiding memories that we have of London is the amazing hospitality we received and the social diary that was organised for us - a classical concert and supper in Gray's Inns, a private guest night in Middle Temple, the Legal Charities Garden Party in Lincoln's Inns, the tour of the Inner Temple by fellow countryman Eamon O'Reilly. We were also very honoured to be invited to dinner at the home of Judge Radford and Nadine Radford QC. We were privileged not only to attend a Young Barristers Committee meeting but also to be taken to dinner by the Committee afterwards. We were overwhelmed by the genuine warmth and kindness we received at every quarter.

The Bar of England and Wales' Young Barrister's Committee has been in existence for over 50 years and it is obviously an important vehicle for the promotion of interests of junior members. There isn't a Young Barristers Committee in Ireland and perhaps this is something that should be considered in light of the large numbers of junior barristers joining the profession each year.

Unlike in Ireland, pupils in England receive compulsory

payment. It was interesting to see how the progress of pupils in England and Wales was monitored and that a checklist was used to ensure that pupils received a good overview of various aspects of practice.

We found it very interesting to meet Karen Squibb Williams of the Employed Barristers Committee to hear about the role of employed barristers working with the Government, in-house in solicitor's firms and with the Crown Prosecution Service. Karen explained to us that although such barristers are employed, they are still independent and owe their primary responsibility to the principles of the Code of Ethics. Perhaps there is more scope for the existence of an Employed Bar in England and Wales given the much larger population and proportionate number of barristers.

We were privileged to have the experience of marshalling in Snaresbrook Crown Court. Miriam with Judge Zeidmann and Rachel with Recorder Patricia Lees. It was interesting to witness the court process from the point of view of the bench.

## Italian Pupil Exchange Programme

*Vivien Barror BL*

In Italy, there is no distinction in the legal profession between barristers and solicitors, rather there is the single profession of lawyer (*avvocato*) and accordingly they perform broadly the same functions as both solicitors and barristers here. Italian lawyers operate in a legal studio (*studio legale*) and clients have direct access to lawyers. Currently in Italy, there are approximately 200,000 lawyers in a population of 59 million with approximately 20,000 of these practising in Rome, which itself has a population of just over four million inhabitants. A view shared by many lawyers is that there are simply too many lawyers in Italy, in spite of the fact that demand for their services has increased in response to the steady rise in litigation over the last number of years.

On completion of their law degree, students go on to become trainees (*praticanti*) and are admitted to the Trainee Bar (*Albo dei Praticanti*) in their first year. They work in a legal studio for two years and are assigned to a Master-type figure called a *dominus* who acts as their mentor, though not necessarily for the whole two years. During the first year trainees must always be accompanied by their master or by another lawyer and they would rarely appear in court. After the first year, they become 'qualified' trainees (*praticanti abilitati*) and are admitted to the Qualified Trainee Bar (*Albo dei Praticanti Abilitati*) and can appear in cases with a monetary value not greater than €25,000. During those two years they attend hearings and consultations, join interminable queues to lodge documents in court and generally perform the less exciting tasks of their profession. All trainees must attend ten hearings each of civil and criminal law and a further ten hearings of either each semester. They must also complete essays on the various aspects of law they encounter.

On completion of the two years, the trainee is eligible to sit the final *avvocatura* exams which are notoriously difficult and often require more than one attempt. If they are successful, they are admitted to the Bar and are free to practice as fully fledged lawyers, with an audience in every court apart from the Italian equivalent of the Supreme Court

*(Corte della Cassazione)*. Only *Cassazionisti* may appear in this court. Italian lawyers either automatically become *Cassazionisti* after 10 years of practice as a lawyer or they may opt to do exams after 5 years in order to acquire that status.

Financially speaking, the situation for trainees very much depends on the legal studio in which they carry out their training. Arrangements vary, with some legal studios offering time in lieu of payment, leaving trainees free to earn money from other pursuits, while others offer varying levels of salary or payment of expenses. However, legal studios are under no obligation to pay their trainees.

**Those barristers in their first and second year of practice who are interested in participating in an exchange scheme this year should email [cpd@lawlibrary.ie](mailto:cpd@lawlibrary.ie), stating their year of call, for which jurisdiction(s) they would like to be considered, in what foreign languages they are fluent and a brief Resume or CV.**

# Costs in family law proceedings

Paul Hutchinson BL

## Introduction

Legal costs are the elephant in the corner in family law proceedings – the protagonists are acutely aware of the issue, but the law can be opaque as to how the costs burden is ultimately to be distributed. In this regard, a distinction can be drawn between the issue of the level of costs to be levied in family law proceedings and the legal principles governing the issue of who ultimately pays and in what proportion.

There are mixed views as to what application, if any, the general rule in civil proceedings that costs follow the event has in the context of family law. In the English Court of Appeal decision of *Gojković v. Gojković*<sup>1</sup>, Butler-Sloss LJ. considered that the “...starting point...is that costs *prima facie* follow the event...but may be displaced much more easily than, and in circumstances which would not apply, in other Divisions of the High Court”<sup>2</sup>. It is less clear whether this represents the position in this jurisdiction<sup>3</sup> given that the recent Supreme Court decision of *M.K. v. J.K. (No. 3)(Divorce: currency)*<sup>4</sup> confirms that the impact of legal costs upon parties cannot be distinguished from the concept of “proper provision”<sup>5</sup> insofar as<sup>6</sup>:

“In the circumstances of family law cases the court must look at the effect of the award of costs on both parties.”

Additionally, there is a certain lack of realism involved in attempting to define the successful “event” in family law proceedings to say nothing of the public policy arguments against framing family law proceedings in such starkly adversarial terms. In any event, the question must be posed as to what principles are to be applied by a court in deciding which party bears the burden of legal costs.

## The *Calderbank* Rule in England and Wales – “Playing Poker” with Costs

Beyond the starting point highlighted by Butler-Sloss LJ. in

*Gojković*<sup>7</sup>, the courts in England and Wales have demonstrated a willingness to re-distribute the costs burden other than in accordance with the “event” in certain circumstances, of which litigation misconduct is the most prominent. In *P. v. P. (Financial Relief: Non-Disclosure)*<sup>8</sup>, Thorpe J. held that<sup>9</sup>:

“It seems to me that in that case such price as is to be paid by the dishonest litigant is a price in costs, not in reduction of the appropriate share of the available assets.”

Conversely, in *M. v. M. (Financial Provision: Party incurring Excessive Costs)*<sup>10</sup>, Thorpe J. elaborated on the circumstances where litigation misconduct might, in exceptional circumstances, only equitably be re-balanced in the award of ancillary relief as opposed to the re-distribution of the costs burden<sup>11</sup>:

“Ordinarily speaking, it seems to me that the manner in which proceedings are misconducted is to be reflected in orders for costs rather than directly in the scale of the awarded sum. However, this seems to me to be the exceptional case where the husband’s strategy has been so extreme that it would be inequitable to disregard it. It seems to me that it is appropriate to look at the quantification of the wife’s share not of what remains today but of what would remain today had that policy of waste and destruction not been pursued.”<sup>12</sup>

Leaving aside the question of financial non-disclosure, the principal example of litigation misconduct occurs where one party unnecessarily extends the litigation process and dissipates the pool of assets accordingly. In the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Calderbank v. Calderbank*<sup>13</sup>, Cairns LJ. approved the practice in family litigation of putting a settlement proposal to the other side on a “without prejudice” basis, save in respect of the costs of the proceedings<sup>14</sup>:

“It is common practice for an offer to be made by one party to another of a certain apportionment. If that is not accepted, no reference is made to that offer in the course of the hearing until it comes to costs, and

1 [1992] Fam 40

2 *Ibid.*, at 57.

3 Shannon, *Divorce: The Changing Landscape of Divorce in Ireland*, (Roundhall Sweet & Maxwell, 2001) at E-192; see also Shannon (Ed.), *Family Law Practitioner*, (Roundall Sweet & Maxwell, 2000) at E-192. Furthermore, McCracken J. in *M.K. v. J.P.K. (No. 3)(Divorce: Currency)* [2006] 1 IR 283 at 291 states that: “In my view, therefore, the general rule does not necessarily apply in family law proceedings”.

4 [2006] 1 IR 283.

5 Article 41.3.2° of the Constitution; Section 5(1)(c) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act, 1996; Section 3(2)(a) of the Judicial Separation and Family Law Reform Act, 1989.

6 *Ibid.*, at 291 (*per* McCracken J.).

7 *Supra*.

8 [1994] 2 FLR 381.

9 *Ibid.*, at 392.

10 [1995] 3 FLR 321.

11 *Ibid.*, at 330; see also *Taloulareas v. Tavoulareas* [1998] 2 FLR 418 where Thorpe LJ. approved both statements in the Court of Appeal, *ibid.*, at 426-427.

12 See also: *Young v. Young* [1998] 2 FLR 1131 for a re-statement of the difference in effect of marital misconduct and litigation misconduct on ancillary relief (quantum) and costs respectively.

13 [1976] Fam 93.

14 *Ibid.*, at 106.

then if the court's apportionment is as favourable to the party who made the offer as what was offered, or more favourable to him, then costs will be awarded on the same basis as if there had been a payment in.

I see no reason why some similar practice should not be adopted in relation to such matrimonial proceedings in relation to finances..."

This approach very soon became a standard litigation tactic in family law proceedings in England and Wales where ancillary relief and financial provision were at issue<sup>15</sup>. However, in recent years, the *Calderbank* letter has been criticised for the impossible, "poker-like" position in which it places a recipient who has to judge whether the potentially complex suite of relief being offered to him or her in the *Calderbank* letter corresponds to what will ultimately be awarded by the court of trial<sup>16</sup>. The difficulty here is that the suite of relief available to a court in ancillary relief cases is so varied, and the consequent valuation of a settlement proposal is made extremely difficult because of this (in contrast to the valuation of a personal injury, for example). As such, it was described as "poker" by Holman J. in *H. v. H. (Financial Relief: Costs)*<sup>17</sup> who went on to suggest that the time was "fast approaching"<sup>18</sup> for the practice to be removed altogether. Nicholas Mostyn QC, sitting as a deputy High Court judge in the case of *G.W. v. R.W. (Financial Provision: Departure from Equality)*<sup>19</sup>, extended the gambling analogy as follows<sup>20</sup>:

"...it seems to me that the present system in effect forces the parties to engage in a mandatory form of spread betting. The parties are required to guess the outcome of the case and to take a position. If they have guessed correctly then they win a large amount; if they have not then they lose. But there is one significant difference to a spread bet. With a spread bet the amount the gambler wins or loses is the difference between the result and the position-maker's spread...The orthodox *Calderbank* theory in ancillary relief proceedings is, however, different in that it does not reflect the closeness of the litigant's call. Instead, the mere fact of beating his guess by even a tiny amount entitles the maker of the offer to call for payment of the entirety of his costs from 28 days after the date of his offer. Similarly, if his guess is a fraction less than the result, then the other party

can call for all her costs to be paid by the maker of the offer. So it can be seen that vast sums can swing on even the smallest failure to guess accurately. And there is no premium for guessing really well."

The criticism of the *Calderbank* approach was further considered by the Court of Appeal in the decision of *Norris v. Norris; Haskins v. Haskins*<sup>21</sup> where Dame Butler-Sloss P. stated that<sup>22</sup>:

"The difficulties which undoubtedly arise from [the rules relating to costs] set out by Mr Mostyn QC with clarity in his judgment in *GW v. RW (Financial Provision: Departure from Equality)*...now urgently require a rethink and it is time for further amendments to the rules governing awards of costs in ancillary relief cases. The present rules may affect disproportionately the payers in big money cases. The effect of costs is, however, to be felt across all ancillary relief claims. Although I have criticised Mr Mostyn QC for the cavalier way in which he dismissed the Family Proceedings Rules 1991, his approach to the reconsideration of costs requires careful thought, and I agree with the overall direction of his judgment for the future."

## The Family Proceedings (Amendment) Rules 2006

As of the 3<sup>rd</sup> April 2006, the Family Proceedings (Amendment) Rules 2006 altered the English Family Proceedings Rules, 1991 governing the award of costs in ancillary relief proceedings<sup>23</sup>. In brief, the new rules apply to applications for ancillary relief under Section 10 of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973, and Section 48 of the Civil Partnership Act 2004, and abolish the practice of *Calderbank* letters with a preference for "open offer" letters in their stead.

The amended Rule directs a court to start from the position that in ancillary relief proceedings there should generally be no order as to costs, but with discretion to direct that costs be paid<sup>24</sup>:

"...at any stage of the proceedings where it considers it appropriate to do so because of the conduct of a party in relation to the proceedings (whether before or during them)"

In this context, "conduct" is given an extremely broad meaning beyond what had traditionally been understood at common law as constituting marital misconduct that might, if sufficiently grave, affect the level of ancillary relief to be awarded by the court<sup>25</sup>. Under the amended Rules, if a

15 See *McDonnell v. McDonnell* [1977] 1 WLR 34; *Young v. Young* [1998] 2 FLR 1131; and *Butcher v. Wolfe and Wolfe* [1999] 1 FLR 334. In the decision of the Court of Appeal in *Butcher*, Mummery I.J. summarised the position as follows (at 340): "A *Calderbank* offer is made for the same reason as a payment into court is made; to encourage a settlement and, failing a settlement, to protect the position on costs of the person making the payment in or the *Calderbank* offer. But a *Calderbank* offer...requires a greater degree of flexibility. The proper approach to a *Calderbank* offer, when it is taken into account on a later argument on costs, is to ask whether the party to whom the offer was made 'ought reasonably to have accepted the proposal in the letter?'"

16 See Lowe & Douglas, *Bromley's Family Law*, (10<sup>th</sup> Ed.), (Oxford University Press, 2006) at 1056-1058.

17 [1997] 2 FLR 57 at 59.

18 *Ibid.*

19 [2003] 2 FLR 108.

20 *Ibid.*, at 134-135.

21 [2003] 2 FLR 1124.

22 *Ibid.*, at 1134 (amendment by author).

23 See Hodson, "Calderbanks Past their Sell-by Date: The New Costs Rules", <http://www.familylawweek.co.uk/library.asp?i=1806> (viewed February 19, 2007).

24 Rule 2.71(4)(b) of the amended Family Proceedings Rules 1991.

25 Section 25(2)(g) of the Matrimonial Causes Act 1973.



court determines that an order as to costs is justified under the circumstances of the case, regard must be had to certain listed factors<sup>26</sup> which include:

- The failure by a party to comply with the Family Proceedings Rules, any court order or any relevant practice direction;
- Any open offer made;
- The issue of whether it was reasonable for a party to pursue a particular issue (clearly, “reasonableness” in this context is more subtle than merely whether a party has succeeded on a particular point);
- The manner in which a particular allegation or issue was pursued in fact;
- Any other aspect of a party’s conduct which the court considers relevant; and
- The financial implications of a costs order on the individual parties.

Additionally, particular reference is made to whether or not a party has fully disclosed his or her financial assets under the prescribed forms at the outset of the litigation<sup>27</sup>. Clearly then, there is a relatively low “conduct” threshold to be breached before a court will consider making a costs award<sup>28</sup>.

In the short term at least, it has been suggested that the new rules may lead to an increase in litigation regarding the situations where it is legitimate for the trial judge to depart from the default position of making no order as to costs<sup>29</sup>. What is clear at this stage is that the practice of sending *Calderbank* letters will now become entirely redundant. Attempts by litigants to reduce their exposure to the costs burden by demonstrating a willingness to settle contentious issues of ancillary relief will inevitably take the form of open offers.

## The Irish Position

By contrast to the law and practice relating to costs in England and Wales, the position in this jurisdiction is somewhat less sophisticated<sup>30</sup>. The issue of the distribution of the costs burden is touched upon by a number of the relevant statutes<sup>31</sup> and by a recent Practice Direction in the High Court<sup>32</sup>. With the exception of the Practice Direction, the majority of the relevant statutory schemes, together with the applicable rules of court, provide little more assistance in answering the question of where the costs burden should lie than merely

stating that the issue is “at the discretion of the court”<sup>33</sup>. This discretion does not extend, according to the decision of Walsh J. in *M.B. v. R.B.*<sup>34</sup>, to distributing the costs burden to non-parties even where “...domestic peace [is] shattered by the intervention of a third party”<sup>35</sup> (speaking in the context of petitions for divorce *a mensa et thoro*).

The otherwise broad, discretionary power may well have its origins in the High Court’s power to award costs “as may seem just”<sup>36</sup> under Section 27 of the Matrimonial Causes and Marriage Law (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1870<sup>37</sup>. The premise upon which the law originally operated was the presumption that, in matrimonial litigation, the wife will have no independent means. The point is well illustrated by comments made in the decision of *Flower v. Flower*<sup>38</sup> where it was concluded that<sup>39</sup>:

“...unfortunately in the vast majority of cases the wife has no means of her own. She has to find an attorney to take up her case for her, and if she could not obtain from her husband the means of employing him she would be powerless, and however good a cause she might have for taking proceedings, she would be unable to enforce her rights...”

Notwithstanding, it appears from the decision in *Sullivan v. Sullivan*<sup>40</sup> that the law did not prescribe the wife’s costs to be subsidised by her husband absolutely *de die in diem*. In this case, Madden J. elected not to follow the rule in *Flower* on the basis that there was “evidence of the existence of unfettered separate property within the control of the Petitioner [wife]”<sup>41</sup>, and this ruling was left undisturbed on appeal. Despite this, the decision in *Sullivan* did not disturb the clear policy in favour of awarding costs to the wife in litigation. In *McK. v. McK.*<sup>42</sup>, Hanna J. awarded the wife her costs in a nullity suit brought at the suit of the Petitioner

26 Practice Direction (Ancillary Relief: Costs) [2006] 2 FCR 292.

27 Rule 2.61 D (2)(e) of the Family Proceedings Rules 1991 (known as Form E).

28 Hodson, *loc. cit.*

29 See: Sheppard, “Farewell to *Calderbanks*”, [2005] Fam Law 933 and Segal, “The *Calderbank* Procedure: New Developments”, [2004] Fam Law 107.

30 Shatter, *Shatter’s Family Law*, (4th Ed.), (Butterworths, 1997) at 120-122; and Liston, *Family Law Negotiations: An Alternative Approach*, (Thomson Round Hall, 2005) at 322-330.

31 See Duncan & Scully, *Marriage Breakdown in Ireland: Law and Practice*, (Butterworths, 1990) at 492-494.

32 October 6, 2005 (having effect as of November 10, 2005).

33 See: Section 26 of the Family Law (Maintenance of Spouses and Children) Act, 1976; Section 35 of the Judicial Separation and Family Law Reform Act, 1989 Section 19 of the Domestic Violence Act, 1996; and Order 59; rule 34 of the Circuit Court Rules 2001. Section 38(5) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act, 1996 provides that “Section 32 of the Act of 1989 shall apply to proceedings under this Act in the Circuit Family Court and sections 33 to 36 of that Act shall apply to proceedings under this Act in that Court and in the High Court” and, as such, the position is the same in High Court divorce proceedings. See Walls and Bergin, *The Law of Divorce in Ireland*, (Jordan Publishing Ltd., 1997) at 13.10.

34 [1989] 1 IR 412.

35 *Ibid.*, at 420 (amendment by author). Walsh J. pointed out that (*supra*). “...[a Court] cannot bring before it a co-respondent and order him or her as the case may be to pay damages or costs. This point was emphasized by the Oireachtas in recent years when it abolished the action of criminal conversion.”

36 Section 27 of the 1870 Act reads: “The said Court for Matrimonial Causes and Matters, on the hearing of any suit, proceeding, or petition under this Act, and the Court of Appeal in Chancery and the House of Lords, on the hearing of any appeal under this Act, may make such order as to costs as to such Court, Court of Appeal, or House respectively may seem just: Provided always, that there shall be no appeal on the subject of costs only.”

37 Duncan & Scully, *op. cit.* at 492.

38 (1873) LR 3 P. & D. 132.

39 *Ibid.*, at 133.

40 [1912] 2 IR 116.

41 *Ibid.*, at 124 (amendment by author).

42 [1936] IR 177.

husband, and applied what he terms the “ordinary practice in divorce cases”<sup>43</sup> on the basis that<sup>44</sup>:

“... she is still his wife, ...she has no private property of her own, [and] that the test must be from the solicitor’s point of view, whether he could maintain a suit against the husband for these costs, as having been reasonably incurred.”<sup>45</sup>

What has since become clear is that this presumption no longer enjoys weight in Irish law. In the decision of *F. v. L.*<sup>46</sup>, Barron J. considered the (then) existing practice and rejected it on the basis that<sup>47</sup>:

“...times have changed. In particular since the passing of the Married Women’s Status Act, 1957, any fetters which may have existed in relation to a married woman’s right to own property were removed. In my view the practice of allowing a wife her costs as against her husband in all circumstances is no longer justified. In each individual case, it is the duty of the court to make such order as is just in the circumstances.”

There can be little argument against the view that the rule in *Flower* represented an anachronism, however the alteration of the rule leaves Irish law in this area somewhat in the wilderness as regards the guiding principle to be applied. Shatter takes the view that the law does not assist in predicting how the costs burden will ultimately be distributed<sup>48</sup>:

“The ultimate outcome of an application for costs very much depends not only on the background to proceedings and the decision reached but also on the individual trial judge’s perception of the overall matter.”

With respect to this view, it is submitted that, whilst distilling concrete legal rules in this area is a difficult task, certain tentative indicators can be deduced:

### **a) The costs burden is an aspect of “proper provision”**

What is beyond any doubt is that the costs burden, and how it will financially affect the spouse(s) who bears it, is an aspect

of “proper provision”<sup>49</sup> to be considered by a trial judge prior to the determination of asset division and other ancillary relief in a given case. In her *ex tempore* judgment in *E.P. v. C.P.*<sup>50</sup>, McGuinness J. considered it “a tragedy” that:

“[t]he end result of this unfortunate history is that the considerable pot of capital which was available at the beginning of this case to both parties and for the future of their children is now dissipated either in borrowings or in legal costs.”

As such, the costs burden is a liability to be considered as diminishing the total pool of assets available to litigating parties. Furthermore, it is submitted that the effect of this diminution should properly be considered alongside the division of marital assets and other ancillary relief<sup>51</sup>. This point is underlined by the judgment of McCracken J. in the Supreme Court decision of *M.K. v. J.P.K. (No. 3)(Divorce: Currency)*<sup>52</sup> where it was held that<sup>53</sup>:

“These are family law proceedings in which the court must have regard to the interests of both parties. This is not a case in which damages have been awarded to the applicant for some wrongdoing or injury caused to her by the respondent. In family law cases there is a pool of assets, comprising those of both the respondent and the applicant, which assets are to be used both to make proper provision for both spouses and any dependant members of the family and to pay the costs of both parties.”

The default position therefore regarding distribution of the costs burden in family law cases is for the trial judge to refrain from drawing a correlation between costs and blame. Accordingly, in *T.T. v. T.T.*<sup>54</sup>, Abbott J. elected to make no Order as to costs in an appeal from the Circuit Court but pointed out that

“The failure to make such Orders is not intended as an adjudication on the merits of the case rather as an element of compensation to Mr. T.”

### **b) Where one party cannot afford to pay legal costs, the other party may be directed to discharge the costs in their entirety or in appropriate proportions**

If legal costs are to be considered a liability to be discharged from the total pool of assets, the remainder of which must comprise “proper provision” for each individual, it logically

43 *Ibid.*, at 221.

44 *Supra.*

45 See also *Bradley v. Bradley* Unreported, High Court (Murnaghan J.), January 11, 1971. Also, in the Court of Appeal decision of *Courtney v. Courtney* [1923] 2 IR 31, Dodd J. held that (at 41): “...the practice still prevails that a husband who succeeds is yet bound to pay his wife’s costs. The Matrimonial Judges have endeavoured to modify the stringency of this rule, and in exceptional cases, as where the wife has separate goods, depart from it. The wife here has no separate estate; the money she got was in lieu of alimony, and there are no exceptional circumstances affording grounds for departing from settled practice as to costs.”

46 [1991] 1 IR 40.

47 *Ibid.*, at 42.

48 Shatter, *op. cit.* at 121-122.

49 Article 41.3.2° of the Constitution; Section 5(1)(c) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act, 1996; Section 3(2)(a) of the Judicial Separation and Family Law Reform Act, 1989.

50 *E.P. v. C.P.* Unreported, High Court (McGuinness J.), *ex tempore* November 27, 1998.

51 See also: *R.F. v. J.F.* Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.) August 23, 1995; and *Singer (formerly Sharegin) v. Sharegin* [1984] FLR 114.

52 [2006] 1 IR 283.

53 *Ibid.*, at 291 (*per* McCracken J.).

54 Unreported, High Court (Abbott J.), June 26, 2002.

follows that the financially-stronger party might be called upon to discharge all or a proportion<sup>55</sup> of *both* parties' legal costs. Whilst this may be unpalatable for the indebted party (especially in circumstances where there is no question of assigning blame) it remains an unavoidable fact of family litigation, and a common occurrence<sup>56</sup>.

By way of example, in the Circuit Court case of *S.B. v. R.B.*<sup>57</sup>, Judge McGuinness was swayed by the fact that the husband was meeting some of his legal costs as a business expense and directed a contribution in favour of the wife, notwithstanding the fact that the wife had already been granted generous ancillary relief:

“While the wife is getting the lion’s share of the proceeds of sale of the family home, she needs to use the vast majority of this to purchase an alternative home for herself and she has no other resource from which to meet legal costs. I am therefore ordering that the husband should pay a contribution of £2,000 towards the wife’s costs.”

### **c) Where both parties are equally impecunious, it may be appropriate to make no order as to costs**

It follows from both previous propositions that where discharge of the costs burden would “cause unnecessary hardship”<sup>58</sup> on either party, a trial judge should make no order as to costs<sup>59</sup>. In a sense, this can be viewed as an extension of the “equal misery” principle whereby lower standards of living as a result of marital breakdown is acknowledged as inevitable on the basis of an economy of scale<sup>60</sup>. For example, in the Circuit Court decision of *R.S. v. R.S.*<sup>61</sup>, Judge McGuinness made no order as to maintenance against the husband and no order as to costs as the means simply did not exist to satisfy such orders.

An interesting corollary of this principle arises where the parties are equally well-off. In such situations, there appears to be no reason why the same approach should not be adopted, and the parties left to discharge their respective legal costs from their own resources. In the alternative, a marital asset may be liquidated to discharge the respective debts. As such, in *J.D. v. P.D.*<sup>62</sup> Lynch J. made no order as to costs on the basis that there was a capital fund available to meet this end.

55 See *C.O.C. v. E.D.* Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.), December 14, 1995.

56 See: *H. v. H.* Unreported, High Court (Keane J.), July 25, 1979; *S.W. v. F.W.*, Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.) November 24, 1994; *M.Y. v. A.Y.* Unreported, High Court (Budd J.), December 11, 1995; *B.J.M. v. C.M.* [1996] 2 IR 574 (at 580); *M.M. v. G.M.* Unreported, High Court (O’Donovan J.), November 25, 1999; and *E.H. v. J.M.* Unreported, High Court (Kinlen J.), April 4, 2000.

57 Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.), May 10, 1996.

58 *Per* Barron J. in *Keena v. Keena* Unreported, High Court (Barron J.), October 25, 1990.

59 See: *V.S. v. R.S.* Unreported, High Court (Lynch J.), June 10, 1991; and *E.M. v. W.M.* Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.), October 25, 1994.

60 Shatter, *op. cit.* at 666; see also the decision of the Supreme Court in *R.H. v. N.H.* [1986] ILRM 352.

61 Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.), December 14, 1995.

62 Unreported, High Court (Lynch J.), August 9, 1994.

Similarly, in *D. v. D.*<sup>63</sup> O’Hanlon J. directed that the proceeds from the sale of a particular property were to be used to discharge the parties’ respective costs.

### **d) Litigation conduct can affect where the costs burden lies**

Perhaps the most contentious issue in this area is where a party’s conduct can have an influence on the ultimate distribution of the costs burden. In this regard, three preliminary points should be made. First, situations where this issue arises are the exception, and not the rule<sup>64</sup>. Second, such situations are distinct from the situations where marital misconduct<sup>65</sup> influences the level of ancillary relief to be awarded<sup>66</sup>. Third, such situations are distinct from cases where contempt of court comes into play.

Put simply, where a party misconducts themselves in the litigation process, they may suffer a costs penalty (*in toto* or in part)<sup>67</sup>. McKechnie J. made the point in *B.D. v. J.D.*<sup>68</sup> that the exigencies of making “proper provision” do not give the litigating parties licence to misconduct themselves with impunity:

“Given the obligation to make proper provision under the 1995 and 1996 Acts, many parties believe that as a result of this requirement they are in effect financially immune from participating in litigation no matter how lengthy the process may be or how unreasonably they may act. For this to be the situation or even perceived to be the situation, is not in my view in the public interest or in the interest of the administration of justice.”

Litigation conduct can take a variety of forms in this context. For example, in *C.O.R. v. M.O.R.*<sup>69</sup>, O’Donovan J. in the High Court was unimpressed by the time wastage caused by the wife’s pursuit of irrelevant issues, and she suffered a proportionate costs penalty<sup>70</sup>. Similarly, the failure of expert witnesses to attend when expected<sup>71</sup>, the unwillingness to consider negotiated settlement<sup>72</sup>, the failure to make adequate or honest financial disclosure<sup>73</sup>, and a general absence of

63 Unreported, High Court (O’Hanlon J.), December 10, 1982.

64 It is submitted that older authorities from England and Wales to the effect that a court should pose the question “whose conduct gave rise to the litigation?” no longer have any relevance. For comparative purposes, see: *Goody v. Goody* [1969] P. 1; and *Povey v. Povey* [1972] Fam 40.

65 *P. v. P. (Financial Relief: Non-Disclosure)* [1994] 2 FLR 381.

66 See: Section 16(2)(i) of the Family Law Act, 1995; Section 20(2)(i) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act, 1996; *Wachtel v. Wachtel* [1973] 2 WLR 366; and *D.T. v. C.T.* [2002] 3 IR 334.

67 See: *E. v. E. (Financial Provision)* [1990] 2 FLR 233; *C. v. C. (Costs: Ancillary Relief)* [2004] 1 FLR 291; and Walls and Bergin, *The Law of Divorce in Ireland*, (Jordan Publishing Ltd., 1997) at 12.6.2.

68 Unreported, High Court (McKechnie J.), May 4, 2005.

69 Unreported, High Court (O’Donovan J.), September 19, 2000.

70 See also: *S. v. B. (Ancillary Relief: Costs)* [2005] 1 FLR 474.

71 *M.McD. v. P.McD.* Unreported, High Court (MacKenzie J.), April 22, 1986.

72 *R.F. v. J.F.*, Unreported, Circuit Court, (McGuinness J.), August 23, 1995.

73 See Clissmann and Fay, “Financial Non-Disclosure in Judicial Separation and Divorce Cases”, (2003) 8(1) *Bar Review* 3.

candour in the conduct of a case<sup>74</sup> have all attracted adverse costs implications for the offending parties. On the issue of lack of candour, Budd J. colourfully describes “a tangled web of deceit” and general sense of “devious dissembling” (meriting an adverse costs award) on the part of the Respondent in the High Court case of *P.O’D. v. J.O’D.*<sup>75</sup>

In this context, Section 25 of the High Court Practice Direction of the 6<sup>th</sup> October 2005 outlines certain other conduct which might attract an adverse costs order. Section 25 states that, without prejudice to Order 99, a court should take account of and give appropriate weight to:

- Any demand, offer, or counter-offer made by the Applicant or the Respondent in open court or marked “without prejudice save as to costs”; and
- The observance, compliance and implementation of the Practice Direction by the parties.

Interestingly, this puts *Calderbank*-type offers onto something of an official footing in this jurisdiction<sup>76</sup> just as they are falling out of favour in England and Wales. Although the “proper provision” consideration makes it unlikely that such offers will operate as mechanically here as they did in the jurisdiction in which they were devised, the same criticisms can be raised regarding the “poker-like” position in which a recipient is placed.

Finally, it will be interesting to see whether the law develops in this area regarding the choice of court in which judicial separation or divorce proceedings are initiated (i.e. the High Court as opposed to the Circuit Court) in light of the comments of McGuinness J. in the Supreme Court decision of *C.F. v. J.D.F.*<sup>77</sup> or whether an individual’s right of access to the courts would prevent an adverse costs consequence<sup>78</sup>:

“The Oireachtas, in framing our family law statutes, has given a wide ranging and virtually unlimited jurisdiction to the Circuit Court. No doubt this was done in order to enable litigants to avoid the very high costs that are inevitable in a prolonged High Court action...it is difficult to understand why the decision was taken to risk the cost implications of a High Court action in the light of the limited financial resources of this family.”

### **e) A trial judge’s view on where the costs burden lies is unlikely to be disturbed on appeal**

As with comparative judicial decisions which largely depend on findings of fact, the issue of the distribution of the costs burden in family law proceedings tends to remain

undisturbed on appeal<sup>79</sup> following the logic that the trial judge will generally be in the best position to decide the issue (save in circumstances where there are “strong arguments to the contrary”<sup>80</sup>).

Notwithstanding, where there is an error in legal principle by a trial judge, an appellate court will not abdicate responsibility on this basis. For example, in the decision of the Supreme Court in *M.K. v. J.K. (No. 3) (Divorce: currency)*,<sup>81</sup> McCracken J. (delivering the unanimous decision of the court) considered the distribution of the costs burden where the Respondent husband successfully appealed the parties’ original divorce application to the Supreme Court, whereupon the matter had to be re-heard in the High Court. As such, the costs burden for two High Court actions and two Supreme Court actions ultimately fell to be distributed. It was held that whilst the Supreme Court was traditionally reluctant to interfere with the discretion of a trial judge in the awarding of costs<sup>82</sup>:

“...it would be unfair and unjust if the respondent had to bear both sets of costs of the first trial out of the assets remaining to him after the provisions to be made for the applicant. In my view, neither party was to blame for the outcome of the first trial. It was successfully appealed by the respondent in that a retrial was ordered, and justice would be served by each party bearing his or her own costs of the first trial.”

### **f) Special costs provisions apply in certain situations**

Whilst the above comments relate to generally to maintenance (including maintenance pending suit<sup>83</sup>), domestic violence, judicial separation, divorce and ancillary relief variation cases, certain specific costs rules apply in other types of family law proceedings:

- *Adoption*: The Adoption Act 1988 provides that the health board concerned shall pay the costs of the adopters of the child concerned where an application is made to adopt in lieu of failure of parental duty where such costs are not discharged by another party to proceedings or by a legal aid scheme<sup>84</sup>. There does not appear to be an equivalent provision under the Adoption Act, 1974<sup>85</sup>.
- *Guardianship/Custody*: There is provision for orders to be made regarding the costs of any mediation or counselling services at the

74 *A.O’L. v. B.O’L.* Unreported, Circuit Court (McGuinness J.), November 23, 1995.

75 Unreported, High Court (Budd J.), March 31, 2000.

76 In *B.D. v. J.D.* Unreported, High Court, May 4, 2005, McKechnie J. stated that: “...the availability and use of the *Calderbank* procedure...is undeveloped”.

77 [2005] 4 IR 154.

78 *Ibid.*, at 173; see Article 40.3; *MacAuley v. Minister for Posts and Telegraphs* [1966] IR 345 *et seq.*

79 See: *M. v. M.* Unreported, High Court (McCracken J.), May 23, 2000; *P.F. v. G.O’M.* Unreported, Supreme Court, November 28, 2000; *R.B. v. A.S. (or se. A.B.) (Nullity: Domicile)* [2002] 2 IR 428; and *S. v. S. (Financial Provision)* [1990] 2 FLR 252.

80 *B.F. v. V.F.* Unreported, High Court (Lynch J.) May 20, 1993.

81 [2006] 1 IR 283.

82 *Ibid.*, at 292.

83 See: *G. v. G. (Maintenance Pending Suit: Costs)* [2003] 2 FLR 71.

84 Section 5 of the Adoption Act, 1988.

85 See *J.B. v. An Bord Uchtála* Unreported, High Court (McGuinness J.), January 15, 1999.

discretion of the court<sup>86</sup>. Beyond this, there is English authority from the Court of Appeal in *Re: T. (Order for Costs)*<sup>87</sup> for the proposition that the reasonableness of the parties can be decisive in guardianship and custody cases.

- *Child abduction*: In addition to the general discretion of a trial judge to award costs in child abduction cases<sup>88</sup>, an order regarding costs can include travel expenses and any expenses involved in locating the child<sup>89</sup>.
- *Declarations of parentage*: Where the Attorney General is party to declaration of parentage proceedings and costs are incurred, the court may direct that these costs are borne by the other parties to proceedings as it sees just<sup>90</sup>.
- *Declarations as to marital status*: Where the Attorney General is party to declaration as to marital status proceedings and costs are incurred, the court may direct that these costs are borne by the other parties to proceedings as it sees just<sup>91</sup>.
- *Pension adjustment orders*: Where the trustees of a pension scheme incur costs in compliance with a pension adjustment order (or related

direction), the trial judge can order these costs to be borne by either party to proceedings<sup>92</sup>.

## Conclusions

In light of the above, it is submitted that any argument to the effect that costs in family law proceedings should be distributed without reference to established legal principle is a redundant one. Though admittedly tentative, certain patterns have developed and it would be wrong to dismiss them. The advent of the Family Proceedings (Amendment) Rules 2006 will tend to reduce the persuasiveness of decisions from England and Wales as the new scheme is interpreted and applied into the future (save in respect of the treatment of “open offers”).

Notwithstanding, maintaining a degree of structure in the law relating to the distribution of the costs burden in family law proceedings is an important consideration, not least because an element of predictability gives the parties impetus to settle proceedings. Though perhaps trite, the observation of Holman J. in *H. v. H. (Financial Relief: Costs)*<sup>93</sup> reflects a truism<sup>94</sup>:

“There is only one ‘cake’ and it is unrealistic to have to divide it on two separate occasions, first substantively and then in relation to costs.”

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86 Section 29 of the Guardianship of Infants Act, 1964.

87 [2005] EWCA Civ 311.

88 For example, in *A.S. v. E.H. and M.H.* Unreported, High Court (Budd J.), May 8, 1996 and in *W. v. W.* Unreported, High Court (Lardner J.), February 19, 1992 respectively no order was made as to costs, whilst in *E. C.-L. v. D.M. (Child Abduction: Costs)* [2005] EWHC 588, Ryder J. in the Family Division held that it was appropriate to make an adverse costs order against the applicant mother who had failed in her application.

89 Section 40(2) of the Child Abduction and Enforcement of Custody Orders Act, 1991.

90 Section 36(2) of the Status of Children Act, 1987.

91 Section 30(2) of the Family Law Act, 1995.

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92 Section 12(22)(a) of the Family Law Act, 1995; and Section 17(22)(a) of the Family Law (Divorce) Act, 1996.

93 [1997] 2 FLR 57.

94 *Ibid.*, at 59.