Is it legitimate and beneficial for judges to compare?

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I. Introduction

In the early 21st century, it might seem surprising to still ask the question whether it is legitimate for judges to use the comparative method in their reasoning. The experience of teaching comparative law shows, however, that students, i.e. the judges and lawyers of tomorrow, despite the insights and the intellectual pleasure they derive from comparing laws, often doubt whether it is legitimate for courts to use comparative methodology. They also have doubts concerning the benefits they might be able to derive from the comparative method in their future practical life as lawyers. In contrast, they quickly recognize the use of comparative law with regard to legislation, whether on a national or international level, given that national and international legislators regularly rely on comparative studies when preparing legislation. Judges and lawyers in some countries also still question the legitimacy of the use of comparative methodology by the courts.

The following reflections address the question of whether it is legitimate for the judge to resort to the comparative method in addition to the classic methods of determining and interpreting domestic law. If it is legitimate, is it beneficial for the courts to use the comparative method? And if so, do the benefits of the comparative method justify the sometimes considerable effort that the comparative approach demands?

A practical example serves to illustrate that these questions are far from purely theoretical. The economy of a central European state undertakes privatization. A foreign investor buys one of the largest companies in that country. The company,
which is of national importance (and too big to fail), risks bankruptcy but is saved by state investment in the region of several billion dollars. The state accuses the foreign investor of not having taken necessary measures to save the company, measures that the investor had been obliged to take under the privatization contract. The state therefore claims damages in the region of several billion dollars for the investments made to save the company.

The case is to be decided on the application of provisions of the civil code of the state concerned. There is little doctrine and no case law interpreting the applicable articles (provisions concerning contractual and tortious liability). That said, in neighbouring countries' codes, there are similar provisions which have been widely commented on and often applied by their courts. These codes served as an inspiration to the state's legislator at the time of codification of its domestic civil law.³

In such a case, is it legitimate for the court to take inspiration from foreign statutory law, case law, and legal doctrine when dealing with the issue under the applicable domestic law? Would lawyers be able to use, in the interest of their clients, other legal systems as a source of inspiration and support when proposing a certain interpretation of the law to the judges?

These questions are not limited to Europe. A very animated discussion among judges of the Supreme Court of the United States has helped in putting this issue on the agenda of judges, comparatists, and lawyers.⁴

This contribution firstly analyses the arguments against and for the legitimacy of the comparative method when it comes to applying domestic law (section II). Then, the benefits that may be derived from comparison by the judge are demonstrated. Numerous decisions of courts in Europe illustrate the reasons that lead to the use of comparative methodology and the multiple aims that the courts pursue by using this method (section III).

### II. Comparative law—a method at the disposal of the courts?

1. Is it legitimate to use comparative law?—Arguments against the use of comparative methodology by courts

Some arguments seem to speak against the use of the comparative method by the courts when interpreting national law.⁵

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⁵ For an emphatic statement against the use of comparative law by US Federal courts, see A. Scalia, ‘Keynote Address: Foreign Legal Authority in the Federal courts’, in American Society of International Law,
a) A lack of democratic legitimacy

According to a first argument, the judge is bound by the law, but only his domestic law as well as international law in force in his country. Only the national legislator and, where required, an international legislator, would have the necessary democratic legitimacy to guide the judge in his decision. Foreign law failed to respect this democratic legitimacy and would not, in light of this fact, be capable of neither binding, nor convincing, nor even serving as an inspiration to the national judge in the interpretation of his own domestic law.⁶

b) The legal system—a national system

According to a second argument, every domestic legal provision or precedent should be interpreted within its own context, that of a national system.⁷ In many continental legal systems, civil law is codified in a coherent system, the system of the national code, whereas in common law countries, case law constitutes a body of jurisprudence with its own coherence. It is claimed that an interpretation that takes inspiration from foreign sources is potentially harmful to national legal systems.

c) Specifics of the national situation

According to another argument, each legal provision as well as each judgment interpreting a provision and applying the law in a specific case is always the result of a weighing of interests. It is argued that this weighing of interests necessarily takes place within the national context, taking into account the specifics of the situation in the country concerned and the cultural context in which the decision will take effect. In this sense, Antonin Scalia, judge of the Supreme Court of the United States, in a judgment concerning US constitutional law, expressed the opinion that looking at foreign law is, at best, of no importance, and, at worst, dangerous. According to him, the Supreme Court of the United States ‘should not impose foreign moods, fads or

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⁶ A. Scalia, 'Commentary', 40 St. Louis U. L. J. [1996] 1119 at 1122: '[w]e, judges of the American democracies are servants of our peoples, sworn to apply... the laws that those peoples deem appropriate. We are not some international priesthood empowered to impose upon our free and independent citizen supra-national values that contradict their own.' In the USA, some critics have argued that an 'unchecked comparative practice' was 'subversive of the whole concept of sovereignty', see: Appropriate Role of Foreign Judgments in the Interpretation of American Law: Hearing on H.R. Res. 568 before the Subcomm. on the Constitution of the House Comm. on the Judiciary, 108th Cong., 2d Sess. 77 (2004) at 72 (testimony of Prof. Jeremy Rabkin, Cornell Univ.); see also E. Young, 'Foreign Law and the Denominator Problem', 119 Harv. L. Rev. [2005] 148 at 163: '[i]mporting foreign law into the domestic legal system through constitutional interpretation circumvents the institutional mechanism by which the political branches ordinarily control the interaction between the domestic and the foreign'; D. Pfeffer, 'Depriving America of Evolving Its Own Standards of Decency? An Analysis of The Use of Foreign Law In Eighth Amendment Jurisprudence and Its Effect On Democracy', 51 Saint Louis U. L. J. [2007] 855 ff., e.g. at 879; Z. Larsen, 'Discounting Foreign Imports: Foreign Authority in Constitutional Interpretation & the Curb of Popular Sovereignty', 45 Williamette L. Rev. [2009] 767, e.g. at 784.

⁷ In this sense see A. Scalia, ibid.
fashions on Americans'. In the majority opinion of the Court, Justice Kennedy, who frequently uses the comparative method, had referred to English law and the case law of the European Court of Human Rights. According to Scalia, in his dissenting opinion, such considerations of foreign law would be 'meaningless dicta'.

d) Legal science—a largely national science

Over the last few years, certain courts have once again emphasized the fact that, although comparativa est omnis investigatio and 'all forms of higher knowledge consist of comparison', the law remains a largely national science. The Federal Supreme Administrative Court of Germany accordingly declared in a 1993 judgment that '[d]ie Rechtswissenschaft ist eine national geprägte Wissenschaft' (legal science is a nationally characterized science). A German court of appeal expressly supported this view in a judgment in 2004. This case related to the legitimacy of an agreement reached between a lawyer and his client concerning legal fees calculated according to the final result, Erfolghonorare or contingency fees, valid in US law but prohibited and hitherto deemed contrary to moral and legal standards by German law.

8 In Lawrence et al. v Texas 539 US 558 [2003] 598 (on the constitutionality of a statute of the State of Texas prohibiting certain sexual acts between persons of the same sex; held that this law violates the ‘Due Process Clause’ of the US Constitution), p. 598: 'The Court's discussion of these foreign views (ignoring, of course, the many countries that have retained criminal prohibitions on sodomy) is therefore meaningless dicta. Dangerous dicta, however, since “this Court . . . should not impose foreign moods, fads, or fashions on Americans.” With reference to Foster v Florida, 537 US 990, note (2002) (J. Thomas): ‘Justice Breyer has only added another foreign court to his list while still failing to ground support for his theory in any decision by an American court. Ibid., at 990. While Congress, as a legislatura, may wish to consider the actions of other nations on any issue it likes, this Court’s Eighth Amendment jurisprudence should not impose foreign moods, fads, or fashions on Americans'.

9 Ibid., p. 573; see also L. Blum, ‘Mixed Signals: The Limited Role of Comparative Analysis in Constitutional Adjudication’, 39 San Diego L. Rev. [2002] 157 ff., e.g. at 163; B. Lucas, 'Structural Exceptionalism and Comparative Constitutional Law', 96 Virginia L. Rev. [2010] 1965 ff.; E. Young, n. 6, 148 ff. The US Supreme Court has, however, a long tradition when it comes to using the comparative method, see e.g. M. Minow, 'The Controversial Status of International and Comparative Law in the United States', 52 Harv. Int. L. J. Online, 27.08.2010, 1.: ‘[N]o one disagrees that United States judges have long consulted and referred materials from other countries as well as international sources; yet for the past nine or so years, citing foreign and international sources provoked intense controversy’; V. Jackson, 'Comparative Adjudication', 39 Texas L. Rev. 990. While Congress, as a legislatura, may wish to consider the actions of other nations on any issue it likes, this Court’s Eighth Amendment jurisprudence should not impose foreign moods, fads, or fashions on Americans’.


e) Lack of knowledge of foreign law and linguistic barriers

According to yet another argument, it is evident that the national legislator would not expect courts to have knowledge of foreign law. This knowledge would, however, be necessary to correctly employ the comparative method. Given that judges did not know or, at best, only knew a little foreign law, use of the comparative method would open the route to error, to danger of an incorrect understanding and a false interpretation of foreign law.13 Added to which, there were often also linguistic barriers that made understanding foreign law particularly difficult and multiplied the risks of error.14 Because of language barriers one US-author (and comparatist) has made the proposal to leave aside ‘foreign-language law’ when comparing.15 Last but not least, the judge would simply not have the time and resources necessary to systematically carry out comparative research.16

f) The danger of cherry picking

Some have voiced criticism of the courts over selective citing of foreign law. It would always be possible to find support in some countries for a solution that is favoured by the courts. In contrast, diverging solutions in other countries would not always be invoked. In certain cases, the courts relied on the comparative argument, whereas they rejected comparison when the solution found in foreign law differs from that which is preferred by the court. Here the argument in question is that of cherry picking. It is used
frequently by critics of the comparative approach in recent discussion in the USA and notably by judge Antonin Scalia.\textsuperscript{17} All of these arguments therefore seem to speak against the use of the comparative method by the courts.

2. Widening horizons—Arguments in favour of the use of comparative methodology by the courts

The question thus is, on the one hand, whether, and to what extent these arguments are convincing; and on the other hand, whether there are arguments favouring the use of comparative law by the judge when interpreting and applying domestic law.

\textit{a) Cherry picking—an apprehension that has not been confirmed by court practice}

The danger of \textit{cherry picking} is not unique to the comparative argument. The risk exists just as well in relation to differing opinions in doctrine and case law that also can be used and cited very selectively by courts.\textsuperscript{18} Therefore, provided that the comparative method is used as seriously and balanced as every other method of interpretation, the danger of \textit{cherry picking} does not question the legitimacy of comparison. In fact, numerous examples show that courts choose the jurisdictions for comparison very carefully and do not hesitate to cite foreign law in situations where the solution under foreign law differs from that preferred by the court. In these cases, comparative law is used in order to highlight the specificities of one’s own domestic law.\textsuperscript{19}

\textsuperscript{17} A. Scalia, n. 5, at 309: ‘Adding foreign law … is much like legislative history, which ordinarily contains something for everybody and can be used or not used, used in one part or in another, deemed controlling or pronounced inconclusive, depending upon the result the court wishes to reach … The Court’s reliance has also been selective as to when foreign law is consulted at all’; ibid.: ‘To invoke alien law when it agrees with one’s own thinking, and ignore it otherwise, is not reasoned decision-making but sophistry’, dissenting opinion in \textit{Roper v Simmons}, US S.Ct., 543 US 551 [2005] 627; see also Chief Justice of the US S.Ct. John Roberts: ‘Foreign law, you can find anything you want. If you don’t find it in the decisions of France or Italy, it’s in the decisions of Somalia or Japan or Indonesia or wherever. As somebody said in another context, looking at foreign law for support is like looking over a crowd for support and picking out your friends … And that actually expands the discretion of the judge. It allows the judge to incorporate his or her own personal preferences, cloak them with the authority of precedent … and use that to determine the meaning of the Constitution’, in US Senate Judiciary Committee, Hearing on the Nomination of John Roberts to be Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Transcript, Day Two, Part III, 13.09.2005, at <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2005/09/13/AR2005091301210.html> (last accessed: 10.02.2015); see also R. Posner, \textit{Legal Affairs}, July/August 2004, at <http://www.legalaffairs.org/issues/July-August-2004/feature_posner_julaug04.msp> (last accessed: 10.02.2015).


\textsuperscript{19} For examples and references see section III.2.d). For criteria for choosing the jurisdiction for comparison, see e.g. C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 517 ff.; R. Reed, n. 4, at 264, 271; R. Glensy, n. 18, at 401 ff;
b) Information on foreign law increasingly accessible

In order to avoid error and misunderstanding as to the content of foreign law, and so that the court has a solid basis for the use of the comparative method, it is effectively essential that the judge is provided with trustworthy, sound, and reliable information on the substance of foreign law.20

For numerous points of law, this information is now available. First of all and most obviously, the Internet makes access to information on foreign law as well as access to foreign case law much easier. Moreover, several institutions and research groups and numerous comparatists substantially contribute to the circulation of knowledge on foreign law. To name just some of the particularly active institutions and groups, it is possible to mention the International Institute for the Unification of Private Law (UNIDROIT), the Commission on European Contract Law, the Study Group on a European Civil Code, the Research Group on Existing EC Private Law, the Academy of European Private Lawyers, the Trento Group working on a Common Core of European Private Law, the European Group of Tort Law, the European Centre of Tort and Insurance Law (ECTIL), as well as the Leuven and Maastricht group of researchers working under the leadership of Walter van Gerven on the 'Ius Commune Casebooks for the Common Law of Europe'. Some of these groups count among their members researchers from all European jurisdictions, others researchers from around the world. They seek to make available entire libraries containing reliable and up-to-date information on foreign laws. A large majority of this information is published in English, thus facilitating access.21 It is also possible to mention the numerous comparative analyses that are published in European law journals, such as the European Review of Private Law (ERPL), the Maastricht Journal of European and Comparative Law, the Columbia Journal of European Law, the Zeitschrift für Europäisches Privatrecht (ZEuP), and the Rivista di diritto pubblico comparato ed europeo, published in English, German, and Italian respectively.

Providing reliable information on foreign and comparative law, in languages easily accessible, is therefore the responsibility of comparatists and researchers using a comparative approach in their publications. English judges have expressly noted that without these publications, comparison would not have been possible for the court.22


20 C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 527: '(in general) a judge or court in one jurisdiction will not use case law from another jurisdiction unless it is considered to be comparable, and unless the judge or court feels adequately informed about the other jurisdiction'; see also T. Bingham, Widening Horizons—The Influence of Comparative Law and International Law on Domestic Law (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010), p. 5, who reminds us incidentally that 'few human activities are free from the risk of error and judicial decision-making is no exception'.

21 A reading proficiency in English, French, and German gives access to the law of nine European jurisdictions in the original language, and beyond that to further common law jurisdictions as well as to further jurisdictions belonging to the French legal tradition.

22 See e.g. Lord Goff of Chieveley in White v Jones [1995] 2 AC 207, 1 All ER 691 at 705 (House of Lords): '[]In the present case, thanks to material published in our language by distinguished comparatists, German as well as English, we have direct access to publications which should sufficiently dispel our ignorance of German law and so by comparison illuminate our understanding of our own.'
In a case brought before the court, it is also possible for this comparative research to be carried out on an ad hoc basis by comparative law institutions and lawyers\(^{23}\) (or their trainees) trained in comparative law.\(^{24}\) Christopher McCrudden recalls that 'where lawyers appearing before the courts, or clerks assisting the judge, give the judge confidence, then the decisions of foreign systems are more likely to be cited.'\(^{25}\)

Thanks to this information on foreign law, error and misunderstanding in the substance of foreign law can be avoided. Consequently, this argument does not question the legitimacy and practicability of comparison either.

Ruth Bader Ginsburg, judge at the US Supreme Court, has stated in this respect: '[W]e should approach foreign legal materials with sensitivity to our differences, deficiencies, and imperfect understanding, but imperfection, I believe, should not lead us to abandon the effort to learn what we can from the experience and good thinking foreign sources may convey.'\(^{26}\)

c) Access to foreign law— the private international law argument

In cross border cases which present closer links with a foreign legal system than with the law of the jurisdiction in which a legal action is brought, the forum’s private international law sometimes obliges the court to resolve the case solely on the application of foreign law. The existence of private international law rules clearly shows that the legislators believe it is possible for the national judge to be informed about the substance of foreign law in a reliable and trustworthy way.\(^{27}\)

d) The comparative methodology—a method of interpretation like the others

It is clear that the national legislator does not expect courts or lawyers to know foreign law as they know domestic law. It is equally clear that judges and lawyers cannot resort to the comparative method in every case.

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\(^{23}\) This was the case e.g. in Tabet v Gett, [2010] High Court of Australia 12, at <http://www.austlii.edu.au/au/cases/cth/HCA/2010/12.html>, or the English case A and others v the National Blood Authority [2001] 3 All ER 289. See also Hein Kötz, 'Alte und neue Aufgaben der Rechtsvergleichung', JZ [2002] 257 at 259: lawyers 'sind sich offenbar noch nicht genügend des Umstands bewusst, dass ein für ihre Mandanten günstiger Rechtsstandpunkt sich in vielen Fällen auf rechtsvergleichende Argumente stützen lässt' (apparently lawyers are not yet sufficiently aware that they can use comparative law in order to further the interests of their clients); E. Hondius, n. 13, p. 759 at 777; for England e.g. Lord Steyn, Public Law 1999, 51 at 58: 'Law Lords expect a high standard of research and interpretation from barristers... For example, if the appeal involves a statutory offence we would expect counsel to be familiar with... comparative material from, say, Australia and New Zealand'.

\(^{24}\) For a method of teaching comparative law that prepares the students for this task, see the author of this contribution, 'Comment enseigner le droit comparé?', n. 3.

\(^{25}\) C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 526.


\(^{27}\) In some jurisdictions, such as Switzerland, the judge establishes the content of foreign law ex officio, see Art. 16 sect. 1 of the Swiss Code on Private International Law (LDIP); in other jurisdictions, he can require that the parties contribute to the establishment of the content of foreign law or, for certain areas of law, that they establish its content altogether, see Dicey, Morris & Collins on The Conflict of Laws, 14th edn. (London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2006), Vol. I, §§ 9-001 et seq.; see also E. Örüçü, 'Comparative Law in Practice: The Courts and the Legislator', in E. Örüçü/D. Nelken (eds.), Comparative Law—A Handbook (Oxford: Hart, 2007) 411 at 414, 418.
In situations where such knowledge is not available or accessible, the court cannot be expected to use the comparative approach. However, in cases where content of foreign law is brought to the attention of the court, the judges are in a position to build on this knowledge and to use the comparative arguments when interpreting domestic law.\(^{28}\)

The fact that the comparative method can be used in some cases and not in others is not unique to this method. While the literal rule and perhaps also the purposive approach are methods of interpretation that are always available to the court, this is not the case for other methods of statutory interpretation. This is true notably in relation to the historical interpretation, which draws inspiration from the legislative history of the law, and the systematic interpretation, both of which will assist the judge, much like the comparative method, in his search for a solution to specific problems in some cases and not in others.

e) Revival of a European legal science

The argument that legal science is a largely national science is another argument against the use of comparative law that barely convinces. Throughout a large part of the 20th century, in countries such as Germany and France, legal science was effectively a widely national science. However, in other countries, notably the UK as well as some countries in continental Europe, such as the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, and Switzerland, legal science has never been limited to a single national law. On the contrary, the doctrine in these jurisdictions, and to some extent also the court practice, has a long history of using the comparative approach.\(^{29}\) In the second half of the 20th century, more and more legal scientists have been arguing in favour of an internationalization (or more accurately, a re-internationalization\(^{30}\)) of legal science.\(^{31}\) These pleas were eventually successful and we observe today a renaissance of a truly international science of law in Europe. In law, ideas and solutions are circulating across borders again. From a US perspective, Matthias Reimann has observed in this respect: 'In Western Europe, comparative legal studies have... gained a momentum and a significance unprecedented in the last hundred years... From an American perspective, one may... look across the Atlantic with envy these days. Comparative law in Europe is a hot topic. It is practically relevant, self-confident, and enjoys a high profile.'\(^{32}\)

\(^{28}\) For the important role that lawyers might play in this respect, see section II.2.b).

\(^{29}\) References in section III. See also E. Hondius, n. 13, p. 759 at 765: 'It has been suggested that, if one wishes to consider legal research a science, [focusing on domestic developments] is the wrong attitude. Science knows no borders, and legal science is no exception.'


\(^{31}\) For references see e.g. T. Kadner Graziano, European Contract Law (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2009), p. 7 et seq.

Thomas Kadner Graziano

The judge’s freedom to choose his methods of determining the law—revival of the idea of justice that transcends borders

Another argument against the use of the comparative method asserts that every law and judgment is the result of a weighing of interests which would necessarily have to take place within each country’s own cultural context. This argument overlooks the fact that these days, the national legislators themselves rely on extensive comparative research in practically every important legislative procedure and, at any rate, in matters of private law. To cite just a few recent examples: The recent codifications in the Baltic States have largely taken inspiration from comparative studies. The Estonian legislator has followed the example of the German civil code in his new codification of the law of obligations (and has introduced, for example, a general part in the new Law of Obligations and has, e.g. in torts, codified the essence of a century of German case law). The legislator has also widely taken inspiration from Swiss law, Dutch law, the laws of Quebec and Louisiana, the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (CISG), the Principles of European Contract Law, and the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts. The new Lithuanian Civil Code of 2000 takes inspiration, amongst others, from the codifications and statutes of the Netherlands, Quebec, Germany, France, Italy, Switzerland, Sweden, Latvia, Japan, and Russia, as well as from the CISG and the UNIDROIT Principles. Polish law has recently taken inspiration from German and Dutch law, as well as the CISG and the Principles of European Contract Law. In Central and Eastern European countries, the comparative method plays such an important role in modern legislation that it was affirmed that ‘the main method used for private law in today’s legislative drafting is the comparative method’. In 2002, the German civil code (the BGB) experienced the most important reform since it came into force in 1900. Initiated by a European Directive, the drafting process of this reform took inspiration from a wide range of European jurisdictions. In China, important law reforms have taken place over the last 15 years, in particular with the adoption of the Chinese Contract Act of 1999, the Law of Property Act of 2007, and the Tort Law Act of 2010. Among the sources of inspiration for the Contract Act were the codifications of Germany, Japan, and Taiwan, the English Common Law, and US law, as well as the CISG, the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts and the Principles of European Contract Law. The new Law of Property Act drew inspiration from the laws of Germany, France, Japan, and Taiwan.

See section III.1.c) with references.


P. Varul, n. 34, at 107.


and from some aspects of English and US law. These varied examples show that preparing legislation in the field of private law does not take place in a context that is purely specific to each state, but within the context of a European-wide discussion, or, in the case of Chinese law, the CISG and the UNIDROIT Principles, in a worldwide context.

The fact that the legislator himself uses the comparative method in the preparation of domestic law has an important implication for its interpretation: if the legislator takes inspiration from foreign law, because he is inspired by an idea of justice existing beyond state borders, the judge must be able to follow this approach when applying the law. In this sense, article 1 section 2 of the Swiss Civil Code expressly states that ‘à défaut d’une disposition applicable, le juge prononce selon le droit coutumier et, à défaut d’une coutume, selon les règles qu’il établirait s’il avait à faire acte de législateur’ (in the absence of a provision, the court shall decide in accordance with customary law and, in the absence of customary law, in accordance with the rule that it would make as legislator). This provision expresses a general idea according to which the judge is invited to resort to the same sources of inspiration and methods used by the legislator, notably including the comparative method. This is true, as is explicitly stated in article 1 section 2 of the Swiss Civil Code, in the absence of a legal provision. In many jurisdictions, it is recognized today that this also applies in cases of uncertainty of the law and when interpreting it, since filling gaps in the law and interpreting it are merely two sides of the same coin. The Swiss Federal Court has consequently stated that ‘when interpreting the law, all traditional methods of interpretation are to be taken into consideration (systematic, purposive, and historic... as well as comparative), all of which are used by the Federal Court in a pragmatic way without giving priority or preference to one of these methods over the others’. In the same spirit, the highest court in Germany, the Federal Constitutional Court, has repeatedly confirmed that the judge is not bound when it comes to choosing his methods of determining the law. In the 1990s the Constitutional Court held: ‘Artikel 20 III of the Fundamental Law [Grundgesetz, i.e. the German Constitution] requires that the judge decides “according to law and justice”. The Constitution does not prescribe a particular method of interpretation (or even a purely literal inter-

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40 Ibid., p. XX.  
41 Ibid., p. XXII.  
42 Article 1 sect. 2 of the Swiss Civil Code was inspired by the works of the French legal scientist François Gény and thus is itself the fruit of an influence across borders, see F. Gény, Méthode d’interprétation et sources en droit privé positif, Vol. 2, 2nd edn. (Paris: Libr. général de droit et de jurisprudence, 1919), p. 326 et seq. no. 204; see also T. Henninger, Europäisches Privatrecht und Methode (Tübingen: Mohr Siebeck, 2009), p. 80, with further references.  
The court further held that '[t]he courts are bound only by the law and they are not required to follow an opinion that is prevailing in legal doctrine, nor are they obliged to follow the precedents of higher courts; on the contrary, they can follow their own legal opinion and perception of the law... The judge is required to decide according to law and justice (Art. 20 III GG); with respect to the prohibition to render arbitrary decisions, the judge has to give reasons for his decision... In any case, the judge must show that the decision is based on an in depth legal analysis; his view also must not be deprived of objective reasons.'

In a 1953 ruling, the Federal Constitutional Court expressly recognized the use of the comparative method by the courts to fill gaps in domestic law and to interpret it.

In other jurisdictions on the continent, legal provisions defining methods of statutory interpretation by the judge are limited to stating general principles, emphasizing the freedom of the judge to interpret and, if necessary, to develop the law.

For common law and mixed jurisdictions, Robert Reed, judge at the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom, has noted with respect to the freedom of judges to choose their sources of inspiration:

Scottish and English judges have for centuries drawn on ideas developed in other jurisdictions (both common law and civilian)... Judicial reasoning has been seen as a process of rational inquiry, in which there are not in principle any sources of ideas which are off-limit. Judicial reasoning in this country has not been thought of in national terms, with non-national sources of ideas being regarded as suspect: on the contrary, it has long been thought sensible to consider how others, from Ancient Rome onwards, have resolved similar problems. If judges are free to take account of the views of academic lawyers writing in law reviews, whether they are based in Cambridge, England, or Cambridge, Massachusetts, there would seem to be no reason why the opinions of foreign courts should be off-limits.

The courts consequently benefit from a substantial freedom in their choice of the methods they apply to determine the law and they are free with respect to the choice of their sources of inspiration. Numerous examples cited in the third part of this contribution show that in many jurisdictions, judges use the comparative method to fill gaps in domestic law and when interpreting it, without questioning the legitimacy of comparison.

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45 BVerfG 30.03.1993, BVerfGE 88, 145; NJW 1993, 2861 (2863).
47 18.12.1953, BVerfE 3, 225 at 244: 'Im übrigen haben die Gerichte sich der erprobten Hilfsmittel, nämlich der Interpretation und Lückenfüllung, unter Verwertung auch der rechtsvergleichenden Methode bedient.'
48 See e.g. §§ 6 et seq. of the Austrian Civil Code (ABGB), Art. 1 et seq. of the Spanish Civil Code (Código civil), Art. 1 et seq. of the Portuguese Civil Code (Código civil), Art. 1 of the introductory provisions of the Italian Civil Code (Codice civile), Art. 6 of the Russian Civil Code, Art. 1.3 et seq. of the Lithuanian Civil Code Art. 4 et seq. of the Latvian Civil Code; see also T. Henninger, n. 42, e.g. p. 437 et seq. with further references.
49 R. Reed, n. 4, at 261-2; C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 527: 'the decision whether to use foreign judicial decisions seems largely in the realm of judicial discretion'.
50 For references see section III.
g) Choice of the most convincing solution while respecting the national legal system

The argument that the use of the comparative method risks harming the national legal systems is also not convincing. It is true that, in every interpretation of domestic law, the system of the domestic law (be it a national codification or a case law system) must be respected as far as possible. This aim can be achieved through systematic interpretation which is one of the principal methods of interpretation of law. Indeed, like every other method of interpretation, the comparative interpretation must allow an interpretation and development of the law so that, out of the possible solutions, the most convincing is chosen while preserving coherence within the domestic system of law.51

h) The authority of foreign law—a persuasive authority

It is clear that the judge is bound by domestic law as well as by any provisions of international law in force in his country. Neither foreign statutory law nor foreign case law has democratic legitimacy in the judge’s country. In relation to the use of the comparative method, two consequences follow from this:

Firstly, when the text of domestic law in force in the judge’s country is clear and its interpretation does not leave any room for doubt, the judge is bound by his country’s law. In principle, he cannot deviate from the result prescribed by the law in order to reach another result by using the comparative method; this is even true in cases where the judge finds this other result more adequate, appropriate, and fair, taking into account all the interests at stake.52 In such a case, it is in principle53 the role of the


52 See e.g. Bell v Peter Browne & Co. [1990] 2 QB 495 (Mustill LJ) with respect to the concurrence of liability in contract and tort: ‘Other legal systems seem to manage quite well by limiting attention to the contractual obligations which are, after all, the foundation of the relationship between the professional man and his client [citing French law] … Nevertheless the [English] law is clear and we must apply it’; see for the discussion in the USA, V. Jackson, n. 9, at 125: ‘[T]he legitimacy of looking to foreign experience will vary with the issue, depending on the specificity and history or our constitutional text, the degree to which the issue is genuinely unsettled, and the strength of other interpretative sources.’

53 For this rule and its limits, see e.g. the Swiss Federal Court 28.11.2006, ATF 133 III 257 (‘parrots’ case), 265 cons. 2.4: 'Ergibt die Auslegung eines Bundesgesetzes auf eine Rechtsfrage eine eindeutige Antwort, so ist diese gemäss Art. 19 Bundesverfassung für das Bundesgericht und die anderen rechtsanwendenden Behörden massgebend. Diese dürfen daher nicht mit der Begründung von Bundesrecht abweichen, es … entspreche nicht dem (künftig) wünschbaren Recht ... Eine Abweichung von einer Gesetzesnorm ist jedoch zulässig, wenn der Gesetzgeber sich offenkundig über gewisse Tatsachen geirrt hat oder sich die Verhältnisse seit Erlass des Gesetzes in einem solchen Masse gewandelt haben, dass die Anwendung einer Rechtsvorschrift rechtmissbräuchlich wird' (Translation: If the interpretation of a federal law leads to a clear result, then, according to Art. 19 of the Federal Constitution, the Federal courts and all other law-applying authorities are bound by it. They cannot deviate from federal law arguing that the result under this legal provision is ... undesirable. It is however possible to deviate from a legal provision in cases where the legislator has obviously committed an
legislator (national or international) to solve the problem (if there is a problem). But aren’t situations rare where interpretation of domestic law doesn’t leave space for doubt or a margin of appreciation for the judge? Numerous uncertainties in domestic law, the demands of interpretation, as well as, in some cases, conflicts between traditional rules of civil law and constitutional values, make the scope of application of the comparative methodology very large.

Secondly, foreign legislation and case law can never bind the national judge. The authority of foreign law can only be a persuasive authority. The more the values in one country and another are similar or shared, the more important is the persuasive authority of the other country’s law. The more a certain issue is politically sensitive, and the more particular circumstances in a given country led to the adoption of a specific rule or result, the less willing will judges be to draw inspiration from foreign law and experience. This is possibly the reason why the use of comparative law in certain constitutional issues before the US Supreme Court has been particularly controversial and disputed over the last years, whereas the use of this same method goes without saying in matters of private law in the USA.

i) Soft harmonization of the law within the context of regional integration

Finally, the use of the comparative method is justified nowadays, in member countries of the European Union, by the membership of these countries in the Union. According to article 3, section 3 of the Treaty on European Union, the Union sets itself the objective, among others, of establishing an internal market and promoting economic cohesion among Member States. The convergence of provisions applicable to economic relations contributes notably to the achievement of this aim, in areas such as contract law, tort law, and, for certain questions, property law. In such matters, a comparative interpretation can result in ‘soft harmonization’ of the law which constitutes, at least for some matters, an interesting alternative to harmonization through enacting legislation. In relation to this, Walter Odersky, the former President of the German Federal Court, has written:

error or when the circumstances have changed since the enactment of the provision to the point that its application would constitute an abuse of right).

54 See e.g. P. K. Tripathi, 'Foreign Precedents and Constitutional Law', 57 Columbia L. Rev. [1957] 319 at 346: 'When a judge looks to foreign legal systems for analogies that shed light on any of the new cases before him, he is looking to legal material which he is absolutely free to reject unless it appeals to his reason'; V. Jackson, n. 9, at 114: 'Transnational sources are seen as interlocutors, offering a way of testing and understanding one’s own traditions and possibilities by examining them in the reflection of others'; A. Parrish, 'Storm in a Teacup: The U.S. Supreme Court's Use of Foreign Law', U. Illinois L. Rev. [2007] 637 at 674: 'Foreign law is persuasive authority: nothing more, nothing less'; and S. Yeazell, 'When and How U.S. Courts Should Cite Foreign Law', 26 Constitutional Commentary [2009] 59 at 69: '[I]ts persuasiveness has nothing to do with its origin.'

55 For criteria for choosing the jurisdiction for comparison, see n. 19.

56 See n. 9. The persuasive authority of the comparative argument loses weight if the fundamental values differ from one jurisdiction to the other, see e.g. A. Scalia, n. 5, p. 310: 'If there was any thought absolutely foreign to the founders of our country, surely it was the notion that we Americans should be governed the way Europeans are. And nothing has changed.'
The national judge has not only the right to rely on interpretations from other legal systems and courts in his judgment, but also the right, when applying domestic law, and naturally when weighing up all interests and points of view to be taken into consideration in the interpretation and development of the law, to attach a certain importance to the fact that the solution in consideration contributes to the harmonization of European law. Following this reasoning, the judge may, if need be, follow the solution from another legal system as the result of a weighing of interests. With the progressive process of European integration, the judge should use this reasoning more and more often.57

According to Christopher McCrudden the impulse to use comparative law ‘will be strongest…when the integration is set out explicitly as a political programme, with institutional characteristics, such as in Europe. Indeed, the comparative method is there explicitly built into the fabric of judicial decision-making’.58

3. Intermediate conclusions

In the search for a fair solution, the judge benefits from substantial freedom to choose his sources of legal knowledge and inspiration. In a large number of countries, judges are nowadays convinced that comparative law is one of the legitimate methods of interpretation of domestic law, and rightly so. The examples cited in the third section of this contribution will show that national courts draw inspiration from foreign solutions when interpreting domestic law. Indeed, important innovations notably in English, German, Austrian, Swiss, and US judicial law have taken inspiration from comparison with solutions that are in force abroad.59

In current US discussion, Ruth Bader Ginsburg, judge of the US Supreme Court, has written: ‘The US judicial system will be poorer, I believe, if we do not both share our experience with, and learn from, legal systems with values and a commitment to democracy similar to our own…[W]e are not so wise that we have nothing to learn from other democratic legal systems newer to judicial review for constitutionality.’60 Sonia Sotomayor, appointed in 2009 to the US Supreme Court, stated in the year of her appointment: ‘[T]o the extent that we have freedom of ideas, international law and foreign law will be very important in the discussion of how to think about the unsettled issues of our legal system’.61 Sandra Day O’Connor expressed the opinion that the judges on the court will ‘find [them]selves looking more frequently to the decisions of

58 C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 521f (quote on p. 522).
59 See the references in section III.
other constitutional courts... All of these courts have something to teach... about the civilizing functions of constitutional law.\textsuperscript{62}

Following an analysis of the use of the comparative method by courts in Europe, undertaken at the British Institute of International and Comparative Law, Mads Andenas, Duncan Fairgrieve, Guy Canivet (at that time Premier Président of the French Cour de Cassation), and the English judge of the House of Lords, Lord Goff of Chieveley, have summarized the analysis in relation to the current role of the comparative method before European courts: 'Comparative law is increasingly recognized as an essential reference point for judicial decision-making.'\textsuperscript{63} According to Canivet, 'the use of comparative law is essential to the fulfilment of a supreme court’s role in a modern democracy'.\textsuperscript{64} Andenas and Fairgrieve come to the conclusion that, '[c]ourts make use of comparative law, and make open reference to it, to an unprecedented extent... Comparative law has become a source of law.'\textsuperscript{65} Tom Bingham concludes that: 'Judicial horizons have widened and are widening.'\textsuperscript{66}

III. Comparative law in court practice

1. Introduction

If it is legitimate to compare, is it beneficial and appropriate for the courts to resort to the comparative method? Do the benefits of the comparative method justify the sometimes considerable effort that the comparative approach demands?

In some countries, judges are nowadays convinced of the benefits of this method. An analysis of around 1500 judgments of the Swiss Federal Court has shown that in around 10 per cent of cases the court refers to one or more foreign legal systems for the purpose of comparison.\textsuperscript{67} In matters concerning tort law, over the last few years, the percentage of the Federal Court’s judgments that use the comparative approach has exceeded 20 per cent.\textsuperscript{68} In other countries on the continent, the courts occasionally resort to the comparative method.\textsuperscript{69}

\textsuperscript{62} 'Broadening our Horizons: Why American Judges and Lawyers Must Learn About Foreign Law', Int'l. Jud. Observer, June 1997, p. 2. The following judges of the US Supreme Court have favoured the use of the comparative method by the court in recent years; Justices Day O'Connor, Stevens, Souters, Kennedy, Bader Ginsburg, Breyer, and Sotomayor. Have spoken against the use of this method: Chief Justices Rehnquist and Roberts and Justices Scalia, Thomas, and Alito.

\textsuperscript{63} In G. Canivet/M. Andenas/D. Fairgrieve (eds.), n. 10, p. v and vii.

\textsuperscript{64} In G. Canivet/M. Andenas/D. Fairgrieve (eds.), n. 10, p. 181.

\textsuperscript{65} In G. Canivet/M. Andenas/D. Fairgrieve (eds.), n. 10, p. xxvii.

\textsuperscript{66} T. Bingham, n. 20, p. 3.


\textsuperscript{69} For France see R. Legeais, 'L’utilisation du droit comparé par les tribunaux', 46 Revue Internationale de Droit Comparé [1994] 347; G. Canivet, n. 51, p. 181, in particular p. 190 et seq. Canivet reminds us, however, that the very particular style of reasoning of the French Cour de cassation does not allow the judge to reveal his sources of inspiration, p. 187; see also Cour de cassation, Bulletin d’information no. 648 du 15/10/2006, Jurisprudence—Arrêts publiés intégralement, Arrêt du 7 juillet 2006 rendu par l’Assemblée.
In English law, judgments in which the judges not only cite decisions from other common law jurisdictions, but also the laws, judgments, and doctrine from continental Europe, have multiplied over the last few years. Authorities have, from the founding of the nation to the present day, referenced foreign legal sources in a Supreme Court, has benefited, among others, from foreign input; see also stresses that BVBA v Air Europe McFarlane v Tayside Health Board German law; Hunter v Canary Wharf Ltd [1992] 3 All ER 737 (HL): citing German law; Henderson v Merrill Syndicates Ltd [1995] 2 AC 145; White v Jones [1995] 2 AC 207, 1 All ER 691, comparison with the laws of Germany, New Zealand, California, the USA, France, and the Netherlands; Antwerp United Diamonds BVBA v Air Europe [1996] QB 317, [1995] 3 All ER 424, comparison with Dutch and Belgian case law; Hunter v Canary Wharf Ltd [1997] AC 655; Kleinwort Benson Ltd v Lincoln CC [1999] 2 AC 349; McFarlane v Tayside Health Board [2000] 2 AC 59; Arthur JS Hall & Co v Simons [2002] 1 AC 615, [2000] 3 All ER 673; Alfred McAlpine Construction Ltd v Panattoni Ltd [2001] 1 AC 518; comparison with German law; Greatorex v Greatorex [2000] 4 All ER 769, [2000] 1 WLR 1970; A v National Blood Authority [2001] 3 All ER 289; Fairchild v Glenhaven Funeral Services Ltd [2003] 1 AC 32, [2002] UKHL 22, [2002] 3 All ER 305 (HL), damage following exposure to asbestos, comparison with the laws of Germany, Austria, Norway, Canada, Australia, Italy, South Africa, and Switzerland; Campbell v Mirror Group Newspapers Ltd [2004] AC 457, [2004] 2 All ER 995, liability for the invasion of personality rights and the violation of a person’s privacy, comparison with German and French law; The Starliner [2004] 1 AC 715, [2003] 2 All ER 785; Douglas and others v Hello! Ltd [2005] EWCA Civ 595; National Westminster Bank plc v Spectrum Plus Ltd [2005] UKHL 41, comparison with the laws of the USA, India, Ireland, Canada.


71 M. Nounckele, n. 70. 72 [1854] 9 Ex Ch 341.

73 T. Bingham, n. 20, p. 5. See for the USA e.g. M. Minow, n. 9, III. (text following n. 135 and 136). She stresses that Brown v Board of Education, 347 US 483 (1954), one of the most famous decisions of the US Supreme Court, has, among others, from foreign input; see also R. Glensy, n. 18, at 361: ‘United States Courts have, from the founding of the nation to the present day, referenced foreign legal sources in a
Comparison is no longer limited to private law. An increasing number of public or constitutional law courts have also resorted to the comparative method. In the USA, Justice Scalia, despite being opposed to the comparative approach, has stated:

In many... cases, opinions for the Court have used foreign law for the purpose of interpreting the Constitution... I expect... that the Court’s use of foreign law in the interpretation of the Constitution will continue at an accelerating pace...[U]se of comparative law in our constitutional decisions is the wave of the future.

Based on an international survey Christopher McCrudden, constitutional lawyer at Queen’s College, University of Belfast, found:

It is now commonplace in many jurisdictions as well as for courts to refer extensively to the decisions of foreign jurisdictions when interpreting human rights guarantees.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 expressly invites courts to use the comparative method in matters concerning fundamental rights. The provision states: ‘When interpreting the Bill of Rights, a court, tribunal or forum... (b) must consider international law; and (c) may consider foreign law.’ The Constitutional Court of South Africa is consequently today among the most active actors regarding a transnational judicial discourse.

2. Benefits of using the comparative methodology

The reasons to resort to the comparative method, the aims pursued by the courts by comparing, and the assets of this method are plentiful.

variety of different contexts... Examples can be taken from almost every period of this nation’s history, with numerous references.


75 A. Scalia, n. 5, p. 307–9; see also Justice Ruth Bader Ginsburg, n. 26, at 591: ‘Recognizing that forecasts are risky, I nonetheless continue to accord “a decent Respect to the Opinions of [Human] kind” as a matter of comity in a spirit of humility.’

76 C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 506.

77 Full text: ‘When interpreting the Bill of Rights, a court, tribunal or forum (a) must promote the values that underlie an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom; (b) must consider international law; and (c) may consider foreign law.’

78 See C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 506 with references in n. 26.

79 See A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 150 et seq. (‘Gründe für das Heranziehen ausländischen Rechts’).
a) Positioning the national law in the international legal landscape

In some cases, courts cite foreign and international law in order to show that the national law is fully in line with modern solutions or international trends. This is frequently the case in Central or Eastern European countries that have recently reformed and re-codified their law. An example is the case law of the Lithuanian Supreme Court. The court has frequently referred to the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts, the Principles of European Contract Law, the Principles of European Tort Law, and the Draft Common Frame of Reference, usually with the aim of showing that the new Lithuanian Civil Code is fully in line with these modern soft law principles.80

b) Complementary to the historical method of interpretation

Courts often cite foreign law or soft law principles that have served as an inspiration to the national legislator for their own legislation. In these cases the comparative method plays a support role which complements the historical method of interpretation of domestic law.81

In two decisions of 2010 and 2011, the Supreme Court of Lithuania has stated that the provisions of the Lithuanian Civil Code which were adopted under the influence of the UNIDROIT Principles shall be interpreted in the light of the Principles.82

To cite another example: in a landmark case of 2006, the Federal Court of Switzerland had to rule on the scope of damages for breach of contract. A parrot breeder had bought six parrots for his breeding farm. They were infected with a virus that was subsequently transmitted to the other birds in the breeding farm. As a result, all birds died and the breeder suffered a loss of around two million Swiss francs. He brought a claim for damages against the seller of the infected birds. The claim raised the issue of the scope and the limits of the seller's contractual liability.

The Swiss Federal Court awarded damages and, in defining the scope of contractual liability under article 208, sections 2 and 3 of the Swiss Code of Obligations, drew inspiration from the French author Pothier's Treatise on the Law of Obligations as well as from article 1150 of the French Civil Code, which were already known and had inspired the legislator when the Swiss Code of Obligations was being prepared.83 The

80 The Court has referred to the UNIDROIT Principles on International Commercial Contracts in 20 cases, to the Principles of European Contract Law in 11 cases, to the Draft Common Frame of Reference in one case, and to Principles of European Tort Law in three cases explicitly, in others implicitly; see S. Selelonyte-Drukteiniene/V. Jurkevicius/T. Kadner Graziano, n. 35, with references; C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 518, diagnoses a 'pedagogical impulse' in comparative constitutionalism; see also A.-M. Slaughter, 'A Typology of Transjudicial Communication', 29 U. Richmond L. Rev. [1994] 99 at 134: 'The court of a fledgling democracy, for instance, might look to the opinions of courts in older and more established democracies as a way of binding its country to this existing community of states.'

81 A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 151. See e.g. the Swiss cases TF 03.04.1914, ATF 40 II 249 at 256; TF 05.04.1938, ATF 64 II 121 at 129, or the German cases BGHZ 21, 112 at 119, and BGHZ 24, 214 at 218 f.

82 See S. Selelonyte-Drukteiniene/V. Jurkevicius/T. Kadner Graziano, n. 35, with references.

83 TF 28.11.2006, ATF 133 III 257. For the opposite situation, see the Swiss case TF 22.5.2008, ATF 134, 497 c. 4.2.3, 4.3, 4.4.2: Swiss law, notably Art. 418 of the Swiss CO, served as a source of inspiration for Art. 89b of the German Commercial Code (HGB); the Swiss Federal Court then took inspiration from German legal doctrine and case law on Art. 89b HGB when interpreting Art. 418 of the Swiss CO.
most well-known English case concerning the scope of damages for breach of contract, *Hadley v Baxendale*, dating back to 1854, equally takes inspiration from Pothier’s Treatise on the Law of Obligations and article 1150 of the French Civil Code. In 1894, the Supreme Court of the United States in turn adopted the principles from *Hadley* for US law.

Pothier’s work, article 1150 of the French Civil Code, the English case of *Hadley v Baxendale*, American case law and notably that of the Supreme Court of the United States, and, last but not least, the Swiss Federal Court’s judgment in 2006, are thus all based on the same idea of justice concerning the scope of contractual liability, an idea of justice existing well beyond national borders.

c) Discovering the diversity of solutions from which the court can choose

Courts use the comparative approach in order to discover and demonstrate the diversity of solutions in force in different jurisdictions and from which the court can choose when interpreting domestic law.

Recent English case law has given, in some cases, an impressive comparative overview. For example, in *Fairchild v Glenhaven*, the House of Lords found inspiration in not only Californian, Canadian, Australian, and South African law, and in the US Restatement of the Law, but also cited German, Greek, Austrian, Dutch, Norwegian, French, Italian, and Swiss law. In *Kleinwort Benson Ltd v Lincoln City Council*, the court referred to US law, and notably, the Restatement of the Law, as well as Canadian, Australian, South African, German, Italian, and French law. In *Arthur Hall v Simons*, the House of Lords compared with US and Canadian law and other continental European legal systems, as well as Australian and New Zealand case law. In *White v Jones*, the House of Lords referred to New Zealand, Australian, US, Canadian, German, French, and Dutch law.

The Supreme Federal Court of Switzerland frequently analyses and cites the laws of countries that border Switzerland, namely, French, German, Austrian, and Italian law.

Sometimes, the comparative overview is established by the court itself. More frequently the courts rely on comparative studies previously published by comparatists. Comparison thus widens the horizon and completes the picture of possible interpretations and solutions that are available to the courts to resolve a specific question. By using the comparative method, judges complete and improve the quality of their reasoning. Anne-Marie Slaughter observed in this respect:

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84 See n. 72. 85 *Primrose v Western Union Tel. Co.*, 154 US 1 [1894].
86 See also A. Scalia, n. 5, p. 309: ‘Adding foreign law to the box of available legal tools is enormously attractive to judges because it vastly increases the scope of their discretion.’
89 [2002] 1 AC 615. 90 [1995] 2 AC 207, 1 All ER 691.
91 Out of numerous examples, see e.g. the cases TF 20.04.1972, ATF 98 II 73 (*Kienast c. Gabler*) (validity of a testament); TF 23.04.2009, ATF 135 III 433, c. 3.3 (contractual penal clauses): change of case law inspired by Italian and German law and legal doctrine.
For...judges, looking abroad simply helps them to do a better job at home, in the sense that they can approach a particular problem more creatively or with greater insight. Foreign authority...provides a broader range of ideas and experience that makes for better, more reflective opinions. This is the most frequent cited rationale advanced by judges regarding the virtues of looking abroad."92

d) Illustrating the aims and particularities of the domestic solution

In numerous judgments, courts cite foreign solutions in order to confront them with the solution that they have found for their own domestic law. They thereby illustrate the aims and particularities of their domestic law.93

By way of example, it’s possible to mention a decision of the Federal Court of Germany (BGH) concerning the protection of personality rights and the right to privacy (Caroline de Monaco). Here the court compared German and French law, observing that the scope of the right to privacy is more limited in German law than in French law when opposed to the freedom of the press.94 A German court of appeal provides another illustration in which the court cited US practice with respect to contingency fee agreements (i.e. agreements according to which the lawyer’s fees depend on the outcome of the case). The court ultimately sets out that such agreements would be irreconcilable with the role of lawyers in German civil procedure.95

In Kuddus v Chief Constable of Leicestershire Constabulary, the English House of Lords notes that exemplary or punitive damages do not exist either in continental civil law systems, such as German and French law, nor in mixed legal systems which are influenced by both civil and common laws, such as Scots and South African law. The court therefore observes that, for the matter in question, it is ‘unhelpful to look at the position in other jurisdictions’.96

In Awoyomi v Radford, the Queen’s Bench Division of the English High Court refers to case law from the European Court of Justice (ECJ) concerning the immediate or future effects of a change in case law (the question of prospective overruling), before deciding that the case law of the ECJ could be materially distinguished from English law.97

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92 A.-M. Slaughter, n. 74, at 201.
93 Compare A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 154; V. Jackson, n. 9, at 117: ‘[C]omparison can shed light on the distinctive functioning of one’s own system...considering the questions other systems pose may sharpen understanding of how we are different’, 128: ‘engagement with foreign law...does not necessarily mean adoption, but thoughtful, well-informed consideration’; M. Minow, n. 9, text following n. 56: ‘Looking at what others do may sharpen our sense of our differences rather than produce a sense of pressure to conform’; E. Young, n. 6, at 158: ‘If American courts were to conclude that only domestic practice is relevant, then their judges might feel pressure to distinguish American mores...from the views they encounter on their European sabbaticals.’
94 BGH 19.12.1995, BGHZ 131, 332 at 337 (taking inspiration from US law) and at 344 (opposing French law); for this use of the comparative method, see also the Swiss cases TF 04.06.1981, ATF 107 II 105 at 111; TF 18.05.1973, ATF 99 IV 75 at 76.
95 OLG Celle 26.11.2004, NJW 2005, 2160. See, however, the German case: Constitutional Court 12.12.2006, 1 BvR 2576/04, BVerfGE 117, 163, NJW 2007, 979 (contingency fees admitted under specific circumstances).
The question of pre-contractual liability was addressed in the case of Chartbrook v Persimmon Homes. The House of Lords invoked the Principles of European Contract Law, the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts, and the CISG to highlight that the philosophy on which these regulations are founded differs from English contract law.98

It is also possible to mention judgments from the Swiss Federal Court concerning the conditions for the transfer of personal property. The court decided that, in contrast to German law (expressly indicating article 931 of the BGB), in Swiss law the ownership of movables cannot be passed on by the assignment of an action for recovery of the object.99 The Federal Court therefore demonstrates that another outcome would be possible and practicable, but that there are reasons why it is not favoured by the court.

In another, nowadays classic, case, the Swiss Federal Court explicitly abandoned a solution formerly taken from German law according to which the transfer of ownership is separate from the validity of the contract of sale. The court thus discarded the abstraction principle, a pillar of German property law.100

In a case concerning a legal action brought by an environmental protection foundation, the Swiss Federal Court came to the conclusion that French legislation and case law, which was cited by the court of first instance, 'ne se concilient pas avec l'état actuel de notre législation'101 (cannot be reconciled with the current state of our legislation).

These examples show that the use of comparative law by courts is not at all limited to situations where the foreign solution is the one favoured by the courts. On the contrary, when the court's solution differs from another country's solution, the comparative approach can cause the court to expose national particularities and historical and cultural divergences that lead the court to favour one solution over another. In these cases, the comparative method contributes to a greater transparency and a better quality of reasoning. McCrudden concludes with respect to this purpose of judicial comparison:

a use of foreign...law does not mean that the approach taken in the other jurisdiction will necessarily be adopted, just that it is considered...Even where the result of the foreign judicial approach has not been adopted, it has often been influential in sharpening the understanding of the court’s view on domestic law.102

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98 Chartbrook Ltd v Persimmon Homes Ltd [2009] AC 1101, [2009] UKHL 38, no. 39 (per Lord Hoffmann). See also the case Agnew v Länsförsäkringsbolagens [2001] 1 AC 223 (House of Lords): Lord Millet states that with respect to pre-contractual liability there is a fundamental difference between English law on the one hand and French and German law on the other.


100 29.11.1929 (Grimm c. Masse en faillite Naf-Ackermann), ATF 55 II 302.

101 TF 20.02.2004, 4C.317/2002/ech (La Fondation X c. La Masse en faillite de feu A, ou 'Gypaète barbu République V').

102 C. McCrudden, n. 4, at 512.
e) Countering the argument that a certain solution will lead to harmful results

The experiences in other jurisdictions are frequently cited by courts to counter the argument that a certain solution or interpretation of the law would have harmful or disastrous results.

Illustrations of this use of the comparative method are particularly common in English and US case law. For example, according to an old common law rule, someone who makes a payment following a mistake of law rather than a mistake of fact cannot seek restitution of the payment. In *Kleinwort Benson Ltd v Lincoln City Council*, the House of Lords abandoned this solution. The comparative approach was used to counter the argument that a right to restitution would result in a flood of litigation.\(^{103}\)

In the English case *Arthur Hall v Simons*, the court considered the question of immunity of legal professionals for conduct during legal procedures. The court referred to the experiences of other countries in order to show that such immunity is not justified by practical needs, and the court subsequently abandoned the immunity.\(^{104}\)

This use of the comparative method has furthermore been considered legitimate even by those who are in general opposed to the use of comparative law by the courts. In this respect, Justice Scalia has written:

> I suppose foreign statutory and judicial law can be consulted in assessing the argument that a particular construction of an ambiguous provision in a federal statute would be disastrous. If foreign courts have long been applying precisely the rule argues against, and disaster has not ensued, unless there is some countervailing factor at work, the argument can safely be rejected.\(^{105}\)

f) Legal support for value judgments of the court

Often references to foreign law also play a role in highlighting that the solution favoured by the court is already recognized by other legal systems as being unbiased and fair, even if the legal approach to reaching this solution may differ from one country to another. This use of the comparative argument is particularly common and useful for the court when the decision is based on value judgments. In these situations, references to foreign legislation and case law provide legal support for the court's balancing of conflicting values.\(^{106}\)

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\(^{103}\) [2002] 2 AC 349, 375 C (per Lord Goff): 'For the present purpose, however, the importance of this comparative material is to reveal that, in civil law systems, a blanket exclusion of recovery of money paid under a mistake of law is not regarded as necessary. In particular, the experience of these systems assists to dispel the fears expressed in the early English cases that a right of recovery on the ground of mistake of law may lead to a flood of litigation'.

\(^{104}\) *Arthur JS Hall & Co v Simons* [2002] 1 AC 615 (see the opinions of Lord Bingham and Lord Hope).

\(^{105}\) A. Scalia, n. 5, p. 306, see also p. 307: '[T]he argument is sometimes made that a particular holding will be disastrous. Here...I think it entirely proper to point out that other countries have long applied the same rule without disastrous consequences.'

\(^{106}\) See e.g. A. Barak, 'Constitutional Human Rights and Private Law', 3 Review of Constitutional Studies [1996] 218 at 242: Comparative law 'grants comfort to the judge and gives him the feeling that he is treading on safe ground, and it also gives legitimacy to the chosen solution'; A.-M. Slaughter, n. 74, at 201: 'Evidence of like-minded foreign decisions could enhance the legitimacy of a particular opinion on the domestic constituency that a particular court seeks to persuade'; V. Jackson, n. 9, at 119.
Thomas Kadner Graziano

Ltd v Panatown Ltd, Lord Goff of Chieveley stated in this sense: ‘I find it comforting (though not surprising) to be told that in German law the same conclusion would be reached as I have myself reached on the facts of the present case.’

Here it is possible to refer once again to the famous English case of Fairchild v Glenhaven Funeral Services Ltd. In this case, the court discussed liability of employers following the exposure of their employees to asbestos. Inhaling asbestos fibres caused the employees to develop cancer. However, they had worked consecutively for several employers who had all exposed them to asbestos. This resulted in uncertainty as to where they had contracted the illness. According to traditional rules, the claim would have been rejected because the employees could not prove causation with the probability which is traditionally required. While searching for a solution that was favourable to the claim, the House of Lords found support in numerous foreign jurisdictions. In relation to this litigation, Lord Bingham observed:

Development of the law…cannot of course depend on a head-count of decisions and codes adopted in other countries of the world, often against a background of different rules and traditions. The law must be developed coherently, in accordance with principles so as to serve, even-handedly, the ends of justice. If, however, a decision…offends one’s basic sense of justice, and if consideration of international sources suggests that a different and more acceptable decision would be given in most other jurisdictions, whatever their legal tradition, this must prompt anxious review of the decision in question. In a shrinking world…there must be some virtue of uniformity of outcome whatever the diversity of approach in reaching that outcome.

This use of the comparative method can also be found in a recent judgment of the Swiss Federal Court which concerned the capacity of beneficiaries of a will. The court found confirmation for its solution in three out of four of its bordering countries’ legal systems (German, Austrian, and Italian law, in contrast with French law).

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107 Alfred McAlpine Construction Ltd v Panatown Ltd [2001] 1 AC 518 (per Lord Goff of Chieveley). For other recent examples of this use of the comparative method, see the English cases Robinson v Jones (Contractors) Ltd [2012] QB 44, [2011] EWCA Civ 9, nos. 49 and 78 (L Jackson); D v East Berkshire Community Health NHS Trust MAK v Dewsbury Healthcare NHS Trust, RK v Oldham NHS Trust [2005] 2 AC 373, [2005] UKHL 23: same outcome in Australian law (no. 89, Lord Nicholls) and the law of New Zealand (no. 113 and 114, Lord Rodger), dissenting opinion by Lord Bingham who refers to French and German law (no. 49): ‘no flood of claims in these countries’. See, on this use of the comparative method, and criticizing it, A. Scalia, n. 5, p. 309: ‘It will seem much more like a real legal opinion if one can cite authority to support the philosophic, moral, or religious conclusions pronounced. Foreign authority can serve that purpose’. See for Switzerland A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 157.

108 [2003] 1 AC 32. On this and the following cases T. Bingham, n. 20, p. 9 et seq.


110 06.02.2006, ATF 132 III 305: ‘Auch in ausländischen Rechtsordnungen wird…die rechtswidrige Beeinträchtigung des freien Erlasserwillsens als Erbunwürdigkeit erfasst (z.B. in § 2339 des deutschen BGB, in § 542 des österreichischen ABGB und in Art. 463 des italienischen Codice civile, nicht hingesen in den Art. 727 ff. des französischen Code civil).’ For other examples of the use of the comparative method for the same purpose, see A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 155 et seq.
Legal support when changing an established case law or when confronting new problems

In some of the most famous examples of comparison in case law, courts have resorted to the comparative method in order to justify fundamental changes to domestic case law or to confront new problems and to introduce new institutions or remedies.

It is possible to mention many cases where courts have used the comparative method to justify changes to the law: we have already referred to the case *Kleinwort Benson Ltd v Lincoln City Council*, in which the House of Lords abandoned the common law rule according to which it was only possible to claim restitution of money paid following a mistake in fact as opposed to a mistake of law. Here the court also found support in several foreign jurisdictions for overturning the precedent.

In *White v Jones*, the court considered the question of contractual or tortious liability of a solicitor in relation to pure economic losses suffered by the claimant following the solicitor’s professional negligence. The House of Lords observed that despite the conceptual difficulties, in many jurisdictions (the court cited German, French, Dutch, Canadian, US, Australian, and New Zealand law), it is possible to find a favourable solution for the claimant in either the law of contract or the law of tort ('Many jurisdictions have found a remedy in the situation in which the present plaintiffs find themselves'). The court subsequently introduced liability for negligence of legal professionals in English tort law.

In two landmark cases, the Supreme Court of Austria consecutively allowed, in Austrian law, liability for nervous shock and damages for immaterial harm following the loss of a close relation (damages for bereavement). The court cited, as sources of inspiration and to support overruling previous case law, Swiss, French, Italian, Spanish, Scots, Greek, Yugoslavian, Belgian, and Turkish law. The court found information on these laws in the writings of comparatists. It seems that the desire to avoid isolation and to support majority trends in Europe was not the least of motivations for the Austrian Supreme Court.

In some decisions, foreign solutions are cited *obiter dictum* to draw attention to new problems that have not yet been dealt with by the national legislator or by domestic case law. In these situations, the aim is to encourage the legislator and doctrine to examine the problem and to work out a solution.

More commonly, the court itself will introduce a new solution. A well-known illustration can be found in decisions in Germany that recognized personality rights and the right to privacy as an absolute right, protected by the means of tort liability (§ 823, section 1 of the BGB and article 2, section 1 of the Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany). The Federal Court of Germany as well as the German

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111 [2002] 2 AC 349.
112 *White v Jones* [1995] 2 AC 207, 1 All ER 691, see the opinion of Lord Goff of Chieveley.
114 See A. Gerber, n. 67, p. 152 and e.g. the cases TF 10.05.1932, ATF 58 II 151 at 156 (company law); 20.01.1981, ATF 107 II 57 at 66 (copyright); 21.12.1982, ATF 108 II 475 at 484 s.
115 BGH 05.03.1963, BGHZ 39, 124 at 132; BGH 19.12.1995, BGHZ 131, 332 (*Caroline de Monaco*): protection of privacy, reference to US law. For further examples, see H. Kötz, n. 69, p. 832 et seq.
Constitutional Court\textsuperscript{116} found support in foreign laws when introducing a protection of personality rights and of privacy (‘Allgemeines Persönlichkeitsrecht’).\textsuperscript{117}

In an English case in 1991 the court still stated that ‘[i]t is well known that in English law there is no right to privacy’.\textsuperscript{118} If the judgments of the Court of Appeal and the House of Lords, notably in \textit{Douglas and others v Hello! Ltd}\textsuperscript{119} and \textit{Naomi Campbell v Mirror Group Newspapers Ltd},\textsuperscript{120} were to change the law, it would be largely thanks to the case law of the European Court of Human Rights and—last but not least—the influence of comparative law.\textsuperscript{121}

Another example is provided by the decisions concerning claims brought by parents, and indeed children, against doctors for damages following an unwanted birth. The issue of medical malpractice for ‘wrongful life’, ‘wrongful birth’, or ‘wrongful pregnancy’ has been considered by the courts in many jurisdictions over the last few years.

In Germany, the landmark case in this matter, published in the official collection under the English title ‘wrongful life’, drew inspiration from the case law of the English Court of Appeal as well as US law.\textsuperscript{122} The Swiss Federal Court took inspiration from German and Dutch case law, distinguishing itself from case law of the English House of Lords and the Supreme Court of Austria.\textsuperscript{123} In another landmark decision, the Supreme Court of Austria in turn took inspiration from French, Italian, Scots, and Danish law, while distinguishing German, Dutch, Belgian, and Spanish law.\textsuperscript{124} Dutch case law took German law into consideration, and in turn, exerted an influence on Scots law.\textsuperscript{125} In France, on the initiative of the judges of the \textit{Cour de Cassation}, the case ‘Perruche’ was preceded by comparative studies on liability for wrongful life and wrongful birth, from which it drew inspiration.\textsuperscript{126} In truth, judgments relating to this issue that have not referred to foreign case law are very rare.

In Germany, an important procedural innovation, namely the publication of dissenting opinions of judges in the Federal Constitutional Court’s judgments, has drawn inspiration from Anglo-Saxon law.\textsuperscript{127}

\textit{h) Legal discourse on an international scale and ‘soft harmonization’}

It is possible to identify an eighth and final effect (and perhaps also a final objective) of comparison by the courts. In the aforementioned decisions, as well as in many others,

\textsuperscript{116} BVerfG 14.02.1973, BVerfGE 34, 269 at 289, 291.


\textsuperscript{118} Kaye v Robertson [1991] FSR 62 (Glidewell, LJ).

\textsuperscript{119} [2005] EWCA Civ 595.

\textsuperscript{120} [2002] EWCA Civ 1373.

\textsuperscript{121} Starting with the case \textit{Von Hannover c l’Allemagne}, no. 59320/00, CEDH 2004-VI.

\textsuperscript{122} 18.01.1983 (‘wrongful life’), BGHZ 86, 240 at 249–51.


\textsuperscript{124} 14.09.2006, 6 Ob 101/06f; see also OGH 25.05.1999, 1Ob 91/99k (comparison with German law).

\textsuperscript{125} E. Hondius, n. 13, p. 764.


courts draw inspiration from the laws of jurisdictions sharing the same values. In some cases, the courts adopt in their case law a truly European or even a global perspective. By demonstrating such open-mindedness, judges pave the way for discussion of legal problems on a European, or indeed a global, scale, thus creating a genuine European or even global community of lawyers who are able to comfortably discuss with each other. In situations where this discussion leads to shared beliefs and solutions, comparison contributes to ‘soft harmonization’ of the law on a supranational scale.

IV. Conclusions

From these reflections, a number of conclusions can be drawn:

1. If the applicable domestic law is clear and does not lend itself to interpretation, the judge is bound and can only with great difficulty and exceptionally deviate from the result prescribed by his domestic law by using the comparative approach.

2. None of the arguments against the legitimacy of the comparative approach are convincing. For the numerous cases in which domestic law has gaps or lends itself to interpretation, the comparative method is at the disposal of judges who may use it to find inspiration when interpreting domestic law.

3. Nowadays, it is possible that the comparative method constitutes (as it already does in a certain number of countries) a fifth method of interpretation, alongside the classical methods of interpretation, namely the literal, historical, systematic, and purposive approaches (or, depending on the country, alongside interpretation in conformity with principles of the national constitution or EU law also).

4. Neither foreign legislation nor foreign case law binds the judge when interpreting his country’s law. Consequently, foreign law is only a persuasive authority and may only guide the judge as such.

128 With regard to transnational judicial comparison in the field of human rights A.-M. Slaughter, n. 80, at 121 f.: 'courts around the world [are] in colloquy with each other'; Slaughter, n. 74, at 193: with respect to certain questions she observes a 'constitutional cross-fertilization' and an 'emerging global jurisprudence'; ibid. at 202: 'The practice of citing foreign decisions reflects a spirit of genuine transjudicial deliberation within a newly self-conscious transnational community'; see in Europe: C. Witz, 'Plaidoyer pour un code européen des obligations', in Recueil Dalloz 2000, Chroniques, p. 79 at 81.

129 See e.g. Cheah v Equiticorp Finance Group Ltd [1992] 1 AC 472, [1991] 4 All ER 989 (Lord Browne-Wilkinson): 'It is manifestly desirable that the law on this subject should be the same in all common law jurisdictions'; Attorney General v Sport Newspapers Ltd [1992] 1 All ER 503 (High Court, QBD); Smith v Bank of Scotland [1997] SC 111 (120) (HL); E. Örüncü, n. 27, pp. 415, 421, 425.
5. The aforementioned case law bears witness to the fact that courts, and notably supreme courts, pursue several objectives when using the comparative approach. Courts use the comparative approach:

- in order to demonstrate that the domestic law is fully in line with modern international trends;
- to complement the historical method of interpretation of domestic law;
- to discover and demonstrate the diversity of solutions from which the courts may choose;
- to benefit from experiences made abroad and to avoid reinventing the wheel again and again;
- to sharpen one’s own understanding of certain legal problems and to compare the national solution with differing foreign solutions in order to highlight the particularities of the domestic law;
- to counter arguments that a given solution will lead to harmful or disastrous results;
- to find legal support for a value judgment by the court; and finally,
- to justify changes to domestic case law or to confront new problems, introduce new institutions or remedies.

6. Insofar as judges agree to take inspiration from foreign law or international principles derived from comparison, the comparative method will also become an important tool for lawyers who wish to use it in court in the interest of their clients.

7. So that the court has a solid base for use of the comparative method, it is essential to provide judges with reliable, solid, and trustworthy information as to the content of foreign law. This responsibility falls with the researchers and comparatists who use the comparative approach in their publications. Regarding a case before the court, this comparative research could also be undertaken, and information provided, on an ad hoc basis by comparative law institutions or by lawyers or their staff trained in comparative law.

8. With the progressive programme of European integration, and notably in matters affecting economic relationships, the judge could use the comparative interpretation while pursuing the aim of soft harmonization which provides an alternative to legislative harmonization (‘bottom up’ instead of ‘top down’ approach to harmonization).

9. By using the comparative method, courts contribute to the establishment of a legal discourse that transcends borders. They hereby contribute to the creation of a genuine European or even global community of lawyers who are able to comfortably communicate with each other about topical legal issues.

Thus, the widespread belief in the judiciary of the legitimacy and the multiple benefits of judicial comparison is well founded. With respect to this topic, Thomas Bingham has most aptly made the following point:

In no other field of intellectual endeavour—be it science, medicine, philosophy, literature, architecture, art, music, engineering or sociology—would ideas or insights
be rejected simply because they were of foreign origin... [I]t would be strange if [in the field of law] alone practitioners and academics were obliged to ignore developments elsewhere, or at least to regard them as of no practical consequence. Such an approach can only impoverish our law; it cannot enrich it.130

130 T. Bingham, Widening Horizons, n. 20, p. 6; in the same sense e.g. Aharon Barak, judge of the Supreme Court of Israel, 'A Judge on Judging: The Role of a Supreme Court in a Democracy', 116 Harv. L. Rev. [2002], 16 at 111: 'Indeed, the importance of comparative law lies in extending the judge's horizons'; Martha Minow, Dean of Harvard Law School, n. 9, III. Reclaiming the Chance to Learn: 'Neglecting development in international and comparative law could vitiate the vitality, nimbleness, and effectiveness of American law or simply leave us without the best tools and insights as we design and run institutions, pass legislation, and work to govern ourselves.'