

Laura Ervo · Anna Nylund *Editors*

The Future of Civil Litigation

Access to Courts and Court-annexed
Mediation in the Nordic Countries

 Springer

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Preface

The Nordic research project “The outlooks of the Nordic dispute resolution—The future of civil litigation” was funded by the NOS-HS (Joint Committee for Nordic Research Councils for Humanities and the Social Sciences) in 2011–2014. The project was based on the workshops where the topic was studied from different perspectives by the project members and several European guests. This book is the fruit of that project.

The project was planned mainly by the principal applicant Professor Dr. Laura Ervo of the University of Örebro, Sweden, and associate professor (docent) at the Universities of Helsinki, Eastern Finland, and Turku, Finland. Professors Anna Nylund (the University of Tromsø, Norway) and Clement Petersen (the University of Copenhagen, Denmark) were enthusiastic enough to join in the project as coapplicants. All the applicants were interested in the theme, how the traditional court proceedings in civil litigation can respond to the challenges of the modern society and what kind of role the state courts will have in the future in comparison to alternative dispute resolution. Anna Nylund has been one of the editors, and all of us have organised one of the named workshops at our home universities in Örebro, Tromsø and Copenhagen.

The project team otherwise consisted of Nordic academics and practitioners (Anna-Liisa Autio, associate judge at the Turku Court of Appeals, PhD student at the University of Turku; Amie Dahlqvist, plaintiff counsel, university teacher at the University of Örebro, Sweden; Professor Dr. Sigurður Tómas Magnússon, the University of Reykjavik, Satu Saarensola, judge at the Pirkanmaa District Court, PhD student at the University of Turku; and Liisa Sippel, senior lecturer, Turku University of Applied Sciences, LL.Lic student at the University of Turku. In addition, Dr. Jan Malte von Bargen, University of Freiburg, Germany; Dr. Kaijus Ervasti, Head of Administrative Unit, National Research Institute of Legal Policy, Finland; Professor Dr. Elena Martínez García, University of València, Spain; and Dr. Anna Piszcz, University of Białystok, Poland, were invited to give presentations as guest stars in some of our workshops. Dr. Lin Adrian and district court attorney Katrín Oddsdóttir joined us later and contributed to our anthology with their academic and practical expertise. All applicants and project members, as well as

our guest stars, have put excellent effort into the workshops and the project anthology. Therefore, we want to thank you all very warmly for your wonderful cooperation during these recent years.

Professor Dr. Aleš Galič, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, and Professor and Dr. Bart Krans, University of Groningen, the Netherlands, have worked as peer reviewers. Professor Galič is the great expert in mediation, among others, civil procedural issues, and Professor Krans has given his contribution on class actions available to the project. Despite their other duties and busy time schedules, they have been working hard and rapidly, and their effort to the project publication has been of great help. Thank you very much indeed!

Satu Svahn, who holds a juris doctor degree from Brooklyn Law School and a master's degree in urban planning from New York University and who is a member of the New York State Bar Association, has worked hard and in a surprisingly rapid way in order to check the English language of those articles that were not written by fluent English speakers.

Research assistant, law student Tomas Lindblom has effectively fixed all the technical problems and unified the manuscript written by so many authors and several computers with different settings. Thank you for your patience and technical skills.

The project publication has been published by Springer, and we are very grateful for this possibility to make results known in English and outside the Nordic countries. It is rather difficult to find an English material on Nordic law. We hope that this volume could be of help for foreign readers and cover this lack from its side. Executive director Dr. iur. Brigitte Reschke and other colleagues at Springer have been both effective and professional and made it much easier for us to publish our final product, thanks to these wonderful characteristics.

It is time to finish the pleasant project and fruitful cooperation with this book, but we do hope the discussion will continue and cause new possibilities for further researches, projects and cooperation.

In the end of October,
After a nice cranberry-picking trip

Örebro, Sweden

Laura Ervo

In the wintery and snowy Tromsø

Tromsø, Norway

Anna Nylund

Contents

1 Introduction	1
Laura Ervo	
Part I Understanding the Civil Justice in the Nordic Countries	
2 A Comparative Perspective on Recent Nordic Reforms of Civil Justice	9
Clement Salung Petersen	
3 European Integration and Nordic Civil Procedure	31
Anna Nylund	
4 Between America and Europe: Does Geographical Location Affect the Legal Culture of Iceland?	53
Sigurður Tómas Magnússon and Katrín Oddsdóttir	
Part II Mediation and the Role of Courts	
5 In-Court Mediation in Germany: A Basic Function of the Judiciary	77
Jan Malte von Barga	
6 The Many Ways of Civil Mediation in Norway	97
Anna Nylund	
7 Court-Connected Mediation in Finland: Experiences and Visions	121
Kaijus Ervasti	
8 Mediation in the Swedish Courts: Change by EU Directive?	137
Amie Dahlqvist	

9 Court-Connected Mediation in Danish Civil Justice: A Happy Marriage of a Strained Relationship	157
Lin Adrian	
10 Comparative Aspects Between the Nordic Countries and Austria: Court Mediation in or Out?	185
Liisa Sippel	
Part III Access to Court: Problems and Solutions	
11 The Main Problems in Access to Court Regarding the Dispute Resolution of Finnish Companies	213
Anna-Liisa Autio	
12 The Risk of Legal Costs and Its Effects on Access to Court	231
Satu Saarensola	
13 Delays in Civil Proceedings: Comparative Studies Between Finland and Sweden	249
Laura Ervo and Amie Dahlqvist	
14 Access to the Danish Civil Justice System: Recent Reforms and Current Challenges	281
Clement Salung Petersen	
15 Is There a Snake in an Icelandic Paradise? The Abuse of the “Ideal” System	307
Sigurður Tómas Magnússon	
16 Access to Justice: Is ADR a Help or Hindrance?	325
Anna Nylund	
17 Class Actions or Collective Redress: The Need for an Efficient European Tool	345
Elena Martínez García	
18 “Class Actions” in the Court Culture of Eastern Europe	357
Anna Piszcz	
Part IV Outlook and Conclusion	
19 Nordic Court Culture in Progress: Historical and Futuristic Perspectives	383
Laura Ervo	
20 Conclusions on the Future of Civil Litigation in the Nordic Countries	409
Anna Nylund	
Index	429

Chapter 1

Introduction

Laura Ervo

1.1 Background

This anthology is the project publication of the Nordic research project “The outlooks of the Nordic dispute resolution – The future of civil litigation” funded by NOS-HS (Joint Committee for Nordic Research Councils for Humanities and the Social Sciences) in 2011–2014. The project was based on workshops that studied the topic from different perspectives. All five Nordic countries, namely Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, were involved. There were academics and practitioners as project members. Also, some additional experts participated in a couple of seminars in order to widen the discussion from the comparative point of view. The broad-based background of project members was extremely important to promote the discussion between the doctrine and practice, especially now when the topic is very strongly related to the societal situation of the court proceedings and fulfilling the aim to guarantee access to the courts and access to justice. Without practical points of view, the discussion would have been too academic and would not maximally help the courts, judges and, especially, the legislator in the future. Our main aim was to help the legislative procedures in the future and to reach results that respond to the question what kind of dispute resolution is the best. Therefore, we invited into the project ‘especially’ those kinds of colleagues who work in the practice of law and have much experience working as judges or advocates but who, at the same time, have experience on the scientific work and academic discussion. In that way, we aimed at the best results and achieved the results that will also work well in practice.

The project focused on civil litigation. We did not cover family disputes or other special procedures as such. The starting point was how the traditional court proceedings in civil litigation can respond to the challenges of the contemporary

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society and what kind of role the courts will have in the future in comparison with alternative dispute resolution. The theme was and still is very current and important for each Nordic country, and the results achieved benefit legislators and practitioners in all countries.

The first seminar was held at the University of Örebro in Sweden in autumn 2011 on the topic “The mediation and the role of courts – Nordic approaches and comparative studies”. The first workshop discussed the alternative dispute resolution, especially court-connected mediation, and its effects and needs to change the role of the courts.

During the first workshop, the following presentations were given: Dr. Jan Malte von Bargen, University of Freiburg, Germany: “In-Court Mediation – A Basic Function of the Judiciary”; Professor, Dr. Anna Nylund, University of Tromsø, Norway: “The mediation in the Norwegian tradition”; Dr., Head of Administrative Unit Kaijus Ervasti, National Research Institute of Legal Policy, Finland: “The Finnish experiences and visions”; Senior Lecturer Liisa Sippel, Turku University of Applied Sciences & University of Turku, Finland: “Comparative aspects between the Nordic Countries and Austria”; University teacher Amie Dahlqvist, Örebro University, Sweden: “Is Sweden an exception?”

The second workshop was held in spring 2012 at the University of Tromsø in Norway. The second seminar discussed what kind of obstacles there are in the Nordic countries to achieve the access to courts and justice in the best way. In Finland, for instance, the big problems are the risk of legal costs and the delays in court procedures. Costs have been too high also in Norway, and the aim to lower them was one of the main reasons for the latest procedural reform in Norway in 2008. However, the delays are not such a significant problem in the other Nordic countries, and therefore the Finnish situation was compared with the other, especially the Swedish system. During the second workshop, the participants also discussed if mediation is the solution to the problems of this kind (costs, delays and so on) or if the state court system should be effective in its traditional form. The theme of the second workshop was “The obstacles in civil proceedings – Is the access to court in danger?”, and the following presentations were given: Associate judge, PhD student Anna-Liisa Autio, Turku Court of Appeals, University of Turku, Finland: “The main problems in the access of court in the dispute resolution of the Finnish listed companies”; Professor, Dr. Laura Ervo, University of Örebro, Sweden, and University Teacher Amie Dahlqvist, University of Örebro, Sweden: “Delays in civil proceedings – comparative studies between Finland and Sweden”; Judge, PhD student Satu Saarensola, Pirkanmaa District Court, University of Turku, Finland: “The risk of legal costs and its effects into access to court”; Associate Professor, Dr. Clement Petersen, University of Copenhagen, Denmark, “The current Danish problems and good practices in the civil litigation”; Professor, Dr. Anna Nylund, University of Tromsø, Norway, “ADR and Access to Justice”; and Professor Sigurður T. Magnússon, Reykjavik University, Iceland, “Is there a snake in an Icelandic paradise? The abuse of the ‘ideal’ system”.

The third workshop was held in autumn 2012 at the University of Copenhagen in Denmark, where the topic was “The Scandinavian court culture in progress”. There,

Professor, Dr. Laura Ervo, University of Örebro, Sweden, gave a presentation on the historical point of view: “Coming from and going to? The procedural progress from the historical point of view”. In addition, Professor, Dr. Elena Martínez García, University of València, Spain, talked about “Class actions on the continent, the Spanish example – the Anglo-American leaven or an efficient tool?” and Professor, Dr. Anna Piszcz, University of Białystok, Poland, had the topic “Class actions in the East European court culture”. Associate professor, Dr. Clement Petersen, University of Copenhagen, Denmark, talked about “Danish dispute resolution in 2035 – fears and visions” and Professor, Dr. Anna Nylund, University of Tromsø, Norway, about “European integration in the field of civil procedure from the Nordic point of view – Is there any space for individual policy?” whereas Professor Sigurður T. Magnússon, Reykjavik University, Iceland, touched the theme “Between America and Europe – how the geographical situation affects the legal culture”. The third seminar discussed the Nordic legal cultures *de lege lata* and *de lege ferenda*.

The anthology is mainly based on presentations given by project members and guests at workshops. Lin Adrian as the best Danish expert on court-connected mediation and district court attorney Katrín Oddsdóttir joined us later, and their practical expertise supplements the anthology in a wonderful way.

1.2 Aims and Methods

What the status of state courts, the future of civil proceedings and the outlooks of the Nordic dispute resolution are concerned is that the situation has been dramatically changed during the latest decades, and it also varies in each Nordic country. Even if there have recently been huge civil procedural reforms in Nordic countries, the current problems and main trends are not identical. The trend to use mediation and ADR instead of traditional court proceedings is very strong in Norway and Denmark, as well as in Finland. At the same time, the atmosphere in Sweden has been more sceptical, and the traditional court proceedings have still preserved their strong role in the dispute resolution. On the other hand, there has been very much discussion on the functions of the civil proceedings in Sweden, and many scholars think that the most important function of civil proceedings is to solve conflicts, which means something much more than to only resolve the dispute.

In this book we use court-connected mediation to describe the mediation activities offered by courts in civil matters. This type of mediation is based on the generic definition of mediation as a facilitative and interest-based process, where the role of the mediator is to help the parties find a solution to their dispute or conflict. It is court-connected as the parties are referred to mediation by the court and because the program is operated by the court. The mediator might be a judge, an attorney or another professional who is paid by the court to mediate the case. If a judge acts as a mediator (s)he does it “out of robe”, not in her/his role as a judge, but in a role as a mediator, and cannot usually decide the case should the mediation process fail.

National rules in the Nordic countries have some variation but are based on the same idea. Additionally, the way court-connected mediation is practiced might vary from one country to another, from one court to another and from one mediator to another, but system is built on the same ideas and same basic structure. The parts on mediation in Germany and Austria will use different terminology, as mediation is based on a different model and the Nordic terminology is not appropriate.

In addition to court-connected mediation, Nordic judges are allowed, and indeed encouraged, to promote settlements. In judicial settlement activities, the judge acts “in robe”, in her/his role as a judge, and will decide the case if the parties do not settle. The judicial settlement activities are not a distinct service of the court, but rather a part of the general process is civil litigation.

The book will discuss the alternative dispute resolution, especially court-connected mediation, and its effects and needs to change the role of the courts. The Nordic point of view will especially be discussed in comparison with the continental perspective because there is a hot discussion even in the continent on the same topic, not least because of the mediation directive 2008/52/EU given by EU. In addition, the differences between the Nordic countries are taken separately into discussion.

Comparisons between the countries, their positive experiences and good practices, as well as the drawbacks and failures, should be discussed more at the Nordic level. By doing so, the best solutions, in other words, the best civil proceedings for the Nordic society and legal culture can be found. Such benchmarking will guarantee the best practices for the Nordic legal family and strengthen its position in the future. Therefore, one of our aims was to promote the Nordic comparisons and discussion and to make it familiar even outside the Nordic countries.

In addition, the book will discuss what kind of obstacles there are in the Nordic countries to achieve access to court and justice in the best way. In Finland, for instance, the big problems are the risk of legal costs and the delays in court procedures. However, the delays are not such big problems in the other Nordic countries. We can ask if mediation is the solution to the problems of this kind or if the state court system should be effective in its traditional form. The results of the project were assessments the Nordic legal culture *de lege lata* and *de lege ferenda*. At last, the project answered the questions from where we are coming and going to.

1.3 The Nordic Added Value

Before the European integration, the Nordic countries used to co-operate in a very effective way among legislative matters. The comparative studies and consultation on the experiences between the Nordic countries were really common when legislative reforms in some of the countries were under discussion. Unfortunately, this kind of co-operation has become lowered after the European integration, where Sweden, Denmark and Finland are as member states actively involved in. However,

Norway and Iceland are not member countries, and even Denmark has very often followed its own policy in the European matters and will not participate in co-operation in civil justice. Therefore, the Nordic co-operation could still have its role in legislative and jurisprudential issues. In addition, the European culture varies very much. There are countries based on common law or continental system within the same Union. Also, society and legal culture vary significantly, for instance, between the Southern Europe, Eastern Europe (especially between the former socialist countries) and the Nordic countries. The Nordic legal family is, however, still quite homogenous and therefore also unique. Also, the society in all Nordic countries is quite similar, which makes comparative studies easier and even judicial transplants possible. For these reasons, the comparative studies on dispute resolution would be very fruitful. If the comparative studies are made at the Nordic level, it is also possible to go into details. The reason is the same: similar legal and societal cultures. When comparative studies are made at the European level or from a global point of view, the context does not enable such detailed comparisons.

The system of class actions has got much criticism just because many think that it is an Anglo-American transplant, which does not fit into the Nordic or continental legal cultures as such. Professor Dr. Elena Martínez García has researched the class actions from a comparative point of view. This discussion will be fruitful also from a global point of view. There has been a discussion if the common law and continental systems will become closer to each other. That is why it is important to discuss if this phenomenon exists and how it effects the continental legal system. Professor Dr. Anna Piszcz will take up similar aspects from the East European point of view.

1.4 Contents of the Book

Two subjects arose above the rest, namely, court-connected mediation and problems in access to courts. The anthology is, therefore, called “The Future of Civil Litigation – Access to courts and court-connected mediation in the Nordic countries”. It consists of five thematically organised chapters. After Laura Ervo’s introduction where the background of the book, as well as the methods and aims of the research, are presented, the first main chapter covers understanding the civil justice in the Nordic countries. In that chapter, the recent Nordic reforms in civil justice are presented by a comparative perspective written by Clement Petersen, and after that the Nordic civil procedure is put in the context of European integration by Anna Nylund. Iceland is the link between the Nordic countries and the United States due to its geographical situation. Therefore, Americanisation is as its strongest in Iceland, and that phenomenon and its meaning in the North are researched ‘especially from the Icelandic point of view’ by Sigurður Tómas Magnússon and Katrín Oddsdóttir.

The second main chapter focuses on the current trend of mediation and how it affects the role of courts. The chapter starts with the continental point of view, and the German model for mediation is presented as a background for the mediation

mode. Traditionally, Norway has been a good example of different ways of mediation, and there the court-connected mediation is not a new phenomenon but originates already from the latter part of 1800s. Norwegian traditions are presented in Chap. 6. In Finland, the fashion of mediation is a new phenomenon, but the trend is quite strong, especially among the legislator and the doctrine. Kaijus Ervasti presents the Finnish situation in Chap. 7, especially with the help of empirical studies. Even if Sweden is geographically situated between Norway and Finland, it has not followed their example in this mediation progress. In Sweden, about 60 % of civil cases are settled during the preparation, but the court-connected mediation is not that common in practice or very popular topic in the legal literature. The Swedish situation is introduced in Chap. 8. However, in Denmark there is a strong school of mediation, which is presented by Lin Adrian in Chap. 9. The chapter is finished by Liisa Sippel's comparative analysis, where the Nordic mediation is compared with the Austrian one.

The next part focuses on access to courts and its problems and solutions. In Finland, there are no longer civil cases at courts, and this lacking trend has been frozen only, thanks to economic crisis and therefore growing debt cases. Especially, companies do not use courts to solve their disputes any longer. Anna-Liisa Auto has studied 'by using empirical method' the reasons behind this trend and taken up possibilities to make the access to courts of big companies better in the future. The other big problem in Finland is the high risk of legal costs. Parties will not take this risk to start the court procedure, but they tend to bear the loss even if having such right just to avoid the risk of legal expenses. This current situation is said to be a hindrance to access to courts and access to justice. Satu Saarensola will touch this problem in Chap. 12. The third big problem in Finland is delays of proceedings, whereas in Sweden the court procedures are working quite well from this perspective. The societal and legal backgrounds of these countries are very similar, and therefore it is fruitful to compare the countries with each other to find out the reasons and possible solutions to this difference and problem. Chapter 13, written by Laura Ervo and Amie Dahlqvist, covers therefore delays in civil proceedings—comparative studies between Finland and Sweden. After these specific perspectives to access to court problems, the topic is touched by Danish and Icelandic points of views by Clement Petersen and Sigurður T. Magnússon. In the end, the solutions to access to court problems, namely mediation and class actions, are discussed by Anna Nylund, Elena Martínez García and Anna Piszcz. Nylund discusses the positive points of mediation, at the same time, with its drawbacks, whereas Martínez Gracia and Piszcz focus on consumer protection and the consumers' access to court with the help of class actions. The latter discusses also if the system of class actions are compared from the local legal cultural point of view with the idea if this solution fits well in the current legal system or not.

The whole book is ended with historical and futuristic Chap. 19, written by Laura Ervo, where the changing court culture is discussed from historical and societal points of view. In Chap. 20, the main results are presented and the fruits of the project are put together by Anna Nylund.

Part I
Understanding the Civil Justice in the
Nordic Countries

Chapter 2

A Comparative Perspective on Recent Nordic Reforms of Civil Justice

Clement Salung Petersen

Abstract The civil justice systems of Denmark, Norway and Sweden have much in common even though they, unlike other important areas of law, have not been subject to a formal Nordic legislative cooperation. This paper explores recent reforms of civil justice in Denmark, Norway and Sweden from a comparative perspective. The purpose is to identify and compare the general purposes and fundamental values, as well as some important general principles behind these Nordic civil justice systems, and to discuss to what extent they reflect a common Nordic approach to civil justice. The analyses show that these civil justice systems today generally aim to fulfill the same purposes and are essentially based on the same fundamental values and general principles and that these purposes, values and principles largely reflect a common Nordic approach to civil justice.

2.1 Introduction

The civil justice systems of Denmark, Norway and Sweden¹ have much in common even though they, unlike other important areas of law, have not been subject to a (formal) Nordic legislative cooperation. A modern civil justice system was introduced by historic reforms of civil justice enacted in Denmark (1916), Norway (1915) and Sweden (1942). These reforms were, to a large extent, inspired by the same procedural thinking from continental Europe and, in particular, by judicial codes of Germany and Austria.² The reforms were based, *inter alia*, on the fundamental principle that the administration of justice should be *public* and on a preference for *oral* proceedings where the judge should be free to assess evidence

¹The analyses in this paper will not comprise the civil justice systems of Finland and Iceland.

²See Chap. 2.2, *infra*.

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based on his inner conviction, thus abolishing formal rules on assessment of evidence found in previous Nordic laws.

The Nordic countries have since then gone through significant societal developments. This has also influenced the nature of civil disputes which are today often international in nature and significantly more complex. International law is also increasingly affecting the Nordic civil justice systems.³ It is therefore not surprising that the Nordic countries have made numerous amendments to their civil justice systems to accommodate the changing needs stemming from this development. Many of these reforms have been based on thorough considerations in law commissions that have often considered developments in other Nordic countries.⁴ Civil justice issues have also been on the agenda at several meetings of the Nordic Congress of Jurists (*Nordisk Juristmøde*) since they began in 1872.⁵ A Nordic Association for Procedural Law was established in 1981 and is still active.⁶

During this period of time, the Nordic countries have maintained a close cultural relationship sharing the same democratic and social values, as well as a distinct legal culture.⁷ Since it is often held that a specific culture and its ways of disputing are closely interconnected,⁸ it is reasonable to assume that the development of the Nordic civil justice systems since the historic reforms of the twentieth century has much in common. There is, however, not much comparative legal research within this area. This paper seeks to fillout this gap by exploring recent reforms of civil justice in Denmark, Norway and Sweden from a comparative perspective. The purpose is to identify and compare the general purposes and fundamental values, as well as some important general principles behind these Nordic civil justice systems, and to discuss to what extent they reflect a common Nordic approach to civil justice.

2.2 Recent Nordic Reforms of Civil Justice: An Overview

Before exploring the Nordic reforms from a comparative perspective, it is pertinent to first give a brief overview of the recent developments of the civil justice systems in Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

³ See Sect. 2.2.4, *infra*.

⁴ See Chap. 2.3, *infra*.

⁵ See, *inter alia*, Tamm (1972), p. 175 et seq.

⁶ See <http://nffp.info> (last visited 10 August 2013) and Bylander (2013), pp. 337–342.

⁷ See, *inter alia*, Bernitz (2007) and Tamm (1998).

⁸ See, *inter alia*, Jolowicz (2000), p. 7, and Chase (2005).

2.2.1 Denmark

The modern Danish civil justice system originates from an Administration of Justice Act (*Retsplejeloven*), which was enacted in 1916 and entered into force in 1919.⁹ The preparation of this Act began as early as 1852, and most of the preparatory works were finalized in 1899. Even though this Administration of Justice Act introduced a more modern system of civil justice in Denmark, it was thus largely based on procedural ideas and thinking of the nineteenth century.¹⁰

The Danish Administration of Justice Act has been subject to several partial reforms since it was enacted in 1916.¹¹ These include a comprehensive reform of the administration and management of civil cases, which entered into force in 1980.¹² In the 1990s, an increasing pressure for a more comprehensive reform of the civil justice system emerged. This has recently resulted in three significant reforms of the Danish civil justice system.

The first of these reforms concerned the administration of the Danish court system. Historically, the Ministry of Justice has administered the Danish court system, including its funds and the appointment of judges. Even though there is no evidence to suggest that this has had an impact on judicial independence in Denmark, a law committee recommended (in 1996) a number of steps to increase the actual independence of the Danish judiciary from the Danish government and parliament. Based on these recommendations, the Danish legislature has established a new and independent administrative body, the Courts Administration (*Domstolsstyrelsen*), to administrate the Danish courts (*Danmarks Domstole*).¹³ Furthermore, the Danish legislature has established an independent council, the Judicial Appointments Council (*Dommerudnævnelsesrådet*), which submits recommendations to the Minister of Justice about the appointment of judges to the Danish courts.¹⁴ The council is composed of a Supreme Court judge, a High Court judge, a district court judge, a lawyer and two representatives of the public.¹⁵ The council may only recommend one applicant for each position, and in practice the Minister of Justice follows the recommendations from the council.

The second reform concerned the structure of the Danish court system. In 1998, the Danish government asked a committee to look at the structure of the Danish court system and, in particular, the role of the—then 82—district courts. In its report from 2001, this committee recommended a comprehensive structural reform of the Danish court system.¹⁶ To meet the challenges faced by the justice system,

⁹ A general account in English of the Danish civil justice system can be found in Werlauff (2010).

¹⁰ See, e.g., Tamm (1969).

¹¹ For an overview, see, e.g., Gomard and Kistrup (2007), p. 48 et seq.

¹² See Act no 260 of 8 June 1979, which was based on two law committee reports (698/1973 and 871/1979).

¹³ See Act no 401 of 26 June 1998.

¹⁴ See Act no 402 of 26 June 1998.

¹⁵ See Section 43 a of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

¹⁶ Law committee report 1398/2001.

the committee, *inter alia*, recommended a significant reduction of the number of district courts. These recommendations were included in a comprehensive reform enacted in 2005.¹⁷

The third reform also originates from 1998, when the Ministry of Justice asked the Administration of Justice Committee (*Retsplejerådet*), a standing committee under the Ministry of Justice, to prepare a general reform of the entire Danish civil justice system. This work, which (as of 2013) is still ongoing, has so far resulted in seven reports from this committee:

- Report no 1401/2001 on the court system, the composition of district courts and administration of cases in the first instance,
- Report no 1427/2003 on public access to civil and criminal cases,
- Report no 1436/2004 on access to courts,
- Report no 1468/2005 on group actions,
- Report no 1481/2005 on court-connected mediation,
- Report no 1522/2010 on judicial enforcement of civil claims filed and growing out of the prosecution of a criminal offence (*adhæsiionsproces*),
- Report no 1530/2012 on interim injunctions.

Based on the recommendations included in these reports, the Danish parliament has adopted the most comprehensive reforms of the Danish civil justice system since the Administration of Justice Act was enacted in 1916.¹⁸ Other recent reforms also have a bearing on the Danish civil justice system, including a reform of the rules governing lawyer's practice in Denmark, a reform of the rules on the appearance of judges in court meetings and a reform of the rules governing service of documents.¹⁹

2.2.2 Norway

Until recently, the modern Norwegian civil justice system was based on three statutes enacted in 1915: a Courts Act (*Domstolsloven*), a Civil Procedure Act (*Tvistemålsloven*) and an Enforcement Act (*Tvangsfullbyrdelsesloven*). The preparation of this legislation began in 1891, and it was, like the Danish Administration of Justice Act of 1916, influenced by the civil procedure codes of Germany and Austria.²⁰ Most of this legislation entered into force in 1927.

¹⁷ See Act no 538 of 8 June 2006 (general reform of the court system).

¹⁸ See Act no 554 of 24 June 2005 (costs and legal aid), Act no 538 of 8 June 2006 (general reform of the court system), Act no 181 of 28 February 2007 (group actions), Act no 168 of 12 March 2008 (court-connected mediation) and Act no 1387 of 23 December 2012 (interim injunctions).

¹⁹ See law committee report 1479/2006 and Act no 520 of 6 June 2007 (lawyer's practice), Act no 495 of 12 June 2009 (judges' appearance in court meetings), report 1528/2011 and Act no 1242 of 18 December 2012 (service).

²⁰ See law committee report (*Norges offentlige utredninger*) NOU 2001:32 (Part A), p. 124 et seq. For an introduction in English to the history of the Norwegian Civil Procedure Act of 1915, see, *inter alia*, Sunde (2011) and Fredriksen (2011).

The Norwegian civil justice system has remained essentially based on this legislative package throughout most of the twentieth century.²¹ However, a new Enforcement Act was enacted in 1992, and, subsequently, the Norwegian parliament has passed three major reforms of the Norwegian civil justice system.

The first reform concerned the administration of the Norwegian court system. Traditionally, the Norwegian Ministry of Justice has administered the court system, including its staff, budget and other resources. In 1996, a commission (*Domstolkommisjonen*) was established to consider the future administration of the Norwegian court system, and this commission submitted its recommendations in a report in 1999.²² Based on these recommendations, the Norwegian parliament adopted a comprehensive reform of the administration of the Norwegian courts in 2001. The purpose of this reform was to ensure the independence of the Norwegian judiciary. The administration of the Norwegian courts was moved from the Ministry of Justice to a new and independent body, the Norwegian Courts Administration (*Domstoladministrasjonen*). Furthermore, the procedure for appointment of judges was changed: the government now appoints a Council for Nomination of Judges (*Innstillingsrådet for dommere*), which consists of three judges, two lawyers and two lay representatives. Based on interviews of applicants, the council nominates three applicants to each position and lists the nominated applicants in order of priority. The King-in-Council will normally appoint the nominated applicant with the best priority, but it may instead choose one of the other nominated applicants. The reform also included new rules on the extrajudicial activities of judges and establishment of a new Supervisory Council (*Tilsynsrådet for dommere*) to hear complaints against judges (and take up cases on its own initiative in this respect).²³

The second reform concerned the courts of first instance. In 1997, a committee (*Strukturutvalget*) was set up and asked to look at the structure and functions of the courts of instance, and this committee submitted its recommendations in a report in 1999.²⁴ This committee, *inter alia*, recommended a reduction of the number of district courts from 92 to somewhere between 52 and 56.²⁵ Based on the recommendations from the committee, the reform reduced the number of district courts to a total of 66.²⁶

The third reform concerned the rules on civil procedure as a whole: in 1999, the Norwegian Ministry of Justice decided to initiate a comprehensive reform of the rules on civil procedure by setting up a law committee. This committee submitted

²¹ See, *inter alia*, NOU 2001:32 (Part A), pp. 125–126.

²² See report NOU 1999:19 (*Domstolene i Samfunnet*).

²³ The reform was enacted based on Ot.prp.nr. 44 (2000–2001) and Innst. O.nr. 103 (2000–2001). The reform is described in English by Backer (2011), p. 42 et seq. See also Rosseland (2007), pp. 608–628.

²⁴ See report NOU 1999:22 (*Domstolene i første instans*).

²⁵ See report NOU 1999:22, pp. 39–42.

²⁶ See, *inter alia*, the government report St.meld. nr. 23, *Førsteinstansdomstolene i Fremtiden* (2001), Order no 1014 of 31 August 2001 and Order no 1494 of 16 December 2005 (*Forskrift om domssøgs- og lagdømmeinndeling*) with subsequent amendments.

its recommendations in a comprehensive report in 2001.²⁷ Based on these recommendations, the Norwegian parliament adopted an entirely new Dispute Act (*Twisteloven*) in 2005, which completely replaced the Civil Procedure Act of 1915.²⁸ This reform entered into force in 2008 and constitutes a comprehensive reform of the Norwegian civil justice system.

2.2.3 Sweden

Whereas Denmark and Norway both have a single court system with general jurisdiction, Sweden upholds a separate system of administrative courts. This paper will focus only on the Swedish general court system (*allmän domstol*).²⁹

The modern Swedish civil justice system is based on a Code of Judicial Procedure that was enacted in 1942 and entered into force in 1948. This code replaced the old code of judicial procedure that was part of the historic Code of 1734 (*1734 års lag*). Work on the reform that eventually led to the 1942 code began as early as the beginning of the nineteenth century,³⁰ but it would take two different law commissions several decades to finalize the work in the beginning of the twentieth century.³¹

The Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure has been subject to several amendments since it was enacted in 1942.³² In particular, the Swedish legislature enacted significant reforms in 1987 (district courts) and 1989 (courts of appeal), which were based on recommendations from a law committee established in 1977 (*Rättegångsutredningen*).³³

Within the past decade, the Swedish civil justice system has also been subject to significant changes. In 1999, the Swedish government set up a law committee to look at the needs for reform of the Code of Judicial Procedure (*1999 års*

²⁷ See report NOU 2001:32, (*Rett på sak*). Volume B, Chapter 2, includes a summary and overview in English of the report.

²⁸ See Act no 90 of 17 June 2005 (*Lov om mekling og rettergang i sivile tvister*).

²⁹ For an overview of the Swedish court system in English, see, *inter alia*, Unknown (2007). An older comprehensive account in English of Swedish civil procedure can be found in Ginsburg and Bruzelius (1965).

³⁰ See, e.g., Modéer (1999), p. 400.

³¹ A law commission was established in 1911, which submitted its recommendations for a comprehensive reform in a report from 1926; see SOU (*Statens offentliga utredningar*) 1926:31–33, *Processkommissionens betänkande angående rättegångsväsendets ombildning*. Subsequently, another law commission was set up, which presented its recommendations in 1938; see SOU 1938:43–44, *Processlagberedningens förslag till rättegångsbalk*.

³² See, e.g., Gullnäs (1999).

³³ See, in particular, prop. 1986/87:89 (*Ett reformerat tingsrättsförfarande*) and prop. 1988/89:95 (SFS 1989:656). See also the committee reports SOU 1982:25–26, SOU 1986:1, SOU 1987:13 and SOU 1987:46.

rättegångsutredningen). Based on the recommendations of this committee, as well as other important input, the Swedish legislature enacted a comprehensive reform in 2005 (*En modernare rättegång—reformer av processen i allmän domstol*).³⁴ This reform was recently evaluated.³⁵

The structure of the Swedish court system has also been subject to significant changes. A major reform was enacted in 1971, and the number of district courts has subsequently been further reduced from 96 to 48 through several reforms in the period from 1999 through 2007.³⁶ At the same time, the overall role of the Swedish Supreme Court was changed to focus mainly on issues of a general public importance (*precedents*).³⁷

Other significant reforms include the introduction of group actions (*grupprättegång*) in 2003,³⁸ new rules on mediation and settlement³⁹ and new rules on the appointment of judges.⁴⁰

2.2.4 International Influence on Nordic Civil Justice

Civil justice in the Nordic countries is today deeply affected by international law. International human rights law, in particular the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), and the law of the European Union (the European Economic Area) play a significant role in this regard.

Denmark, Norway and Sweden became members of the Council of Europe on 5 May 1949 and ratified the ECHR in 1950. Following an increasing awareness of the obligations under the ECHR, all three countries—which generally follow a dualist approach to international law—chose to incorporate, *inter alia*, the ECHR into their national laws in the 1990s.⁴¹ By doing this, the obligations of the ECHR became an inherent part of the national civil justice systems in these countries. In 1971–1972, Denmark, Norway and Sweden also ratified the UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

³⁴ See prop. 2004/05:131.

³⁵ See law committee report SOU 2012:93 (*En modernare rättegång II—en uppföljning*) and the comments to this report by Ekeberg (2013) and Levén and Wersäll (2011).

³⁶ See *Förordning (1982:996) om rikets indelning i domsagor* as subsequently amended. See also, *inter alia*, SOU 1998:135.

³⁷ See Chap. 2.4.6, *infra*.

³⁸ See Act no 2002:599 (*Lag om grupprättegång*), which is based, *inter alia*, on prop. 2001/02:107 and SOU 1994:151.

³⁹ See, *inter alia*, Prop. 2010/11:128, *Medling och förlikning*.

⁴⁰ See, *inter alia*, Prop. 2007/08:113, Prop. 2009/10:181 and Prop. 2010/11:24.

⁴¹ The legislation incorporating the ECHR was adopted in 1992 Denmark, in 1994 in Sweden and in 1999 in Norway.

It is wellknown that also European Union law is increasingly influencing the national civil justice systems of its member states.⁴² In this regard, there are some important differences between the Nordic countries: Denmark and Sweden are EU member states, but Denmark has been granted certain opt-outs from the European cooperation, including from the area of freedom, security and justice, which, *inter alia*, entails that Denmark participates in the EU judicial cooperation at an intergovernmental level only.⁴³ As a consequence, several important EU instruments within the area of civil justice do not apply directly in relation to Denmark. Some of them instead apply under special agreements between the EU and Denmark.⁴⁴ Norway is not a member of the European Union but an EEA EFTA member country.⁴⁵ This affects Norwegian civil procedure law in many of the same ways as EU law affects the civil procedure of the EU member states.⁴⁶

2.3 Purposes and Fundamental Values

The Nordic judicial codes have traditionally not included any specific provisions about the purposes and fundamental values of their civil justice systems. This was changed with by the recent comprehensive Norwegian reform of civil justice, which introduced a new general provision about the purposes of the Norwegian Dispute Act. The first part of this provision reads as follows:⁴⁷

The Act [...] shall provide a basis for dealing with legal disputes in a fair, sound, swift and confidence inspiring manner through public proceedings before independent and impartial courts. The Act shall attend to individual dispute resolution needs as well as the need of society to have its laws respected and clarified.

This provision will serve as a starting point for the analyses below of the purposes and fundamental values of Nordic civil justice.

⁴² See, *inter alia*, Lenaerts et al. (2006), in particular Chaps. 2 and 3, Storskrubb (2008) and Hess (2012).

⁴³ See www.eu-oplysningen.dk.

⁴⁴ As an example, the Brussels I Regulation (44/2001) does not apply directly in relation to Denmark, but the Agreement between the European Community and the Kingdom of Denmark on jurisdiction and the recognition and enforcement of judgments in civil and commercial matters makes the provisions of the Regulation applicable also in relation to Denmark.

⁴⁵ See www.efta.int.

⁴⁶ See, *inter alia*, Fredriksen (2008).

⁴⁷ §1-1(1) of the Act. See also §1-1(2) of the Act mentioned *infra*, Chap. 4. The English translation is taken from NOU 2001:38.

2.3.1 Purposes of the Civil Justice System

It is explicitly stated in the provision that the civil justice system has two distinct purposes. One purpose is to accommodate the needs of individuals for dispute resolution, *i.e.* for settlement of specific disputes and protection of individual legal interests (access to justice). This is an important aspect of how the civil justice system supports the fundamental function of law as “civilization’s substitute for vengeance”.⁴⁸

Another purpose is to accommodate the need of society to have its laws respected and clarified. This actually covers two distinct and well-known needs of society.⁴⁹ The first is related to the need of any society based on the rule of law to ensure an adequate level of respect for and compliance with its laws. Here, the civil justice system has an important purpose to demonstrate the effectiveness of the law. It may provide “corrective justice” to the individual, and ideally this will have a preventive effect that will support a general respect for the law.⁵⁰ This supports social stability and order.⁵¹ As such, the civil justice system may be regarded as an important instrument to serve the social goals decided by the legislator (behavior modification). This has become particularly pertinent in modern welfare states, which eventually require courts to ensure the web of rights that they create. Indeed, one may regard this as the main societal purpose of the civil justice system.⁵²

The civil justice system also provides an opportunity for judges not only to interpret and apply but also to clarify and develop the law. This accommodates another important societal need. Judge-made law (precedents) is thus common in the Nordic countries not least because of the lack of modern codifications within the area of private law.⁵³ It falls outside this paper to go into a discussion about the extent of this role of the judiciary.⁵⁴

The general purposes discussed so far are also recognized as fundamental to the civil justice systems of Denmark and Sweden.⁵⁵ Whereas these purposes appear to be regarded as uncontroversial in Denmark and Norway, there has been a rather intense scholarly debate in Sweden about the importance of the different societal

⁴⁸ See Couture (1950), p. 7.

⁴⁹ See, *inter alia*, Jolowicz (2000), pp. 71–80, Skoghøy (2010), p. 3, and the works mentioned *infra*.

⁵⁰ See, *inter alia*, Lindblom (1997), p. 606.

⁵¹ See, *inter alia*, NOU 2001:38, vol. A, p. 128.

⁵² This has particularly been emphasized in Swedish legal doctrine; see *infra*.

⁵³ See, *inter alia*, Bernitz (2007), pp. 20–23.

⁵⁴ For a discussion of the limits for such judicial activity under Danish law, see, *inter alia*, Zahle (2005), pp. 134–150, and Gomard (1986).

⁵⁵ For Denmark, see, *inter alia*, law committee report no 1401/2001, pp. 83–84, and Gomard and Kistrup (2007), pp. 19–23. For Sweden, see, *inter alia*, SOU 1982:26, p. 138; SOU 1994:99 (*Domaren i Sverige inför framtiden*), pp. 39–50; and SOU 2007:26, pp. 110–111.

purposes of civil justice mentioned above.⁵⁶ In this debate, some scholars have argued that the *main* societal function of the Swedish civil justice system is to ensure that persons comply with the law and its values, *i.e.* to ensure the *effectiveness* of law and its values in society.⁵⁷ As such, the civil justice system is a social institution that contributes to the upholding of good public morals and cultural integration.⁵⁸ Other scholars have disputed this view and claimed that the main function of the civil justice system is (or should be) to solve specific disputes.⁵⁹ It appears that the Swedish legislator has not clearly addressed this scholarly debate.⁶⁰ However, it seems to be a prevailing view today that the two functions should not be regarded as distinct alternatives and that the Swedish civil justice system generally serves (and should serve) both purposes.⁶¹

The purposes mentioned so far are *intended* general purposes or functions of civil justice. To my knowledge, there is limited research on the *actual* functions and dysfunctions of the Nordic civil justice systems.⁶²

Despite the important societal functions discussed above, it should be noted that the Nordic civil justice systems generally favor settlements based on amicable solutions, including through private measures (ADR). Nordic judges are under an obligation to look for amicable solutions, which in Norway is supplemented by a partly mandatory out-of-court pretrial mediation procedure before the Conciliation Boards (*Forlikråd*).⁶³ This obligation was recently emphasized in Norway and Sweden.⁶⁴ Denmark and Norway have introduced new rules on court-connected

⁵⁶ For an overview of the different views, see, *inter alia*, Ekelöf and Edelstam (2002), pp. 13–30 (in particular, p. 20); Lindell (2012), pp. 21–29; Lindblom (1997), p. 606; Westberg (2012); and the contributions in Rättsfonden (1972). For an account in English, see also Lindblom (2007), pp. 281–310, and Storskrubb (2008), pp. 295–301.

⁵⁷ This was, *inter alia*, the view of Swedish professor Per Olof Ekelöf; see Ekelöf and Edelstam (2002), pp. 13–30 (in particular, p. 20), and Lindell (2012), pp. 21–29.

⁵⁸ Ekelöf and Edelstam (2002), p. 20.

⁵⁹ See Lindell (2012), pp. 21–29. For an overview, see also Westberg (2012), pp. 53–77.

⁶⁰ Lindblom (1997), p. 604 (footnote 39), and Westberg (2012), p. 57. The matter is briefly discussed, *inter alia*, in SOU 1982:26, p. 138; SOU 1994:99, pp. 39–50; and SOU 2007:26, pp. 110–111.

⁶¹ See, *inter alia*, Ekelöf and Edelstam (2002), pp. 13–30; Lindell (2012), pp. 21–29; Lindblom (2007), pp. 281–310; and Bertilsson (2010), pp. 31 et seq.

⁶² Westberg (2012), p. 57, notes that no Swedish scholars have presented empirical data to support their views on the general function(s) of Swedish civil justice. Professor Westberg has provided a comprehensive analysis of (manifest and latent) functions and dysfunctions of preliminary enforcement measures in Sweden in Westberg (2004). I have analyzed functions and dysfunctions of using preliminary injunctions to enforce intellectual property rights in Petersen (2008).

⁶³ The obligation of judges to function as a mediator in civil litigation can be found in Chapter 26 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act, Chapter 42 (Sections 6 and 17) of the Swedish Judicial Code and Chapter 8 (Sections 8-1 and 8-2) of the Norwegian Dispute Act. The special Norwegian rules on Conciliation Boards (*Forlikrådet*) can be found in Chapter 6 of the Norwegian Dispute Act.

⁶⁴ See the general Norwegian reform of civil justice and Swedish Prop. 2010/11:128. The Danish Committee on Administration of Justice has announced that it will later look at the Danish rules on mediation by courts (*forligsmægling*); see Report no 1481/2005 on court-connected mediation.

mediation that also aim to support amicable solutions.⁶⁵ At the same time, there is a strong general support for private dispute resolution. Denmark, Norway and Sweden have enacted new legislation governing arbitration that generally encourages private dispute resolution in the form of arbitration with some exceptions, most notably consumer disputes.⁶⁶ The strong societal support for arbitration is probably based on financial considerations.⁶⁷ These aspects of the Nordic civil justice systems can be perceived as attributing special emphasis on the needs of individuals for dispute resolution to the detriment of the societal needs discussed above.⁶⁸ Recent initiatives from the EU support this development.⁶⁹

The Nordic civil justice systems also serve other purposes than those discussed above. One important purpose is that of *judicial review*. In Denmark and Norway, judicial review is a task entrusted to the civil justice system.⁷⁰ In Sweden, judicial review is, for all practical purposes, a task for the administrative court system.⁷¹ Whereas judicial review of administrative rules and decisions is readily available and quite common, judicial review of legislation is also available but less common, at least in Denmark.⁷²

The Nordic civil justice systems also have an important—and increasing—function in enforcing international law obligations governing relations between states and private individuals (vertical treaty rules) and transnational relations between private individuals (transnational treaty rules).⁷³ This is particularly

⁶⁵ For Denmark, see law committee report no 1481/2005 on court-connected mediation and Act no 168 of 12 March 2008. For Norway, see Section 8-3 et seq. of the Dispute Act. See also the contribution by Lin Adrian elsewhere in this book.

⁶⁶ This legislation is widely based on the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration.

⁶⁷ See in this regard Westberg (2012), p. 76.

⁶⁸ See in this regard Westberg (2012), p. 61.

⁶⁹ See, *inter alia*, Directive 2008/52/EC of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters, which, according to Article 1(1), has the objectives of facilitating access to Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and promoting the amicable settlement of disputes by encouraging the use of mediation and by ensuring a balanced relationship between mediation and judicial proceedings. See the recent Directive on Consumer ADR (Directive 2013/11/EU) and the recent Regulation on Consumer ODR (Online Dispute Resolution) (Regulation No 524/2013). As explained in Sect. 2.4, *supra*, these initiatives do not directly affect Denmark and Norway.

⁷⁰ For an overview of judicial review in Denmark, see, *inter alia*, Report no 1401/2001, pp. 88–91 and 135–142. For an overview of judicial review in Norway, see, *inter alia*, NOU 2001:32, pp. 193–202.

⁷¹ See, *e.g.*, Westberg (2012), pp. 69–70.

⁷² For a comprehensive analyses in English about the role of judicial review in the Nordic countries, see the papers published in *Nordisk Tidsskrift for Menneskerettigheder*, vol. 27 (2009) Issue 2. See also Rytter (2001), pp. 137–174, and Lindblom (2000a), p. 335.

⁷³ For a comparative (non-Nordic) introduction to this topic, see Sloss (2009).

evident as regards EU (and EEA) law where the national court systems of the member states play an essential role in the enforcement of EU law.⁷⁴

2.3.2 *Fundamental Values*

The provision in the Norwegian Dispute Act quoted *supra* (in the introduction to this Chap. 2.3) also lists a number of fundamental values and considerations behind the Norwegian civil justice system.⁷⁵ These values are, to a large extent, overlapping (“fair”, “sound” and “confidence inspiring”), but they can also be contradictory (*e.g.*, “swift” may not always be “fair”, “sound” and “confidence inspiring”).⁷⁶

These values are strongly influenced by international law, in particular the ECHR and its requirements for “a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an independent and impartial tribunal established by law”.⁷⁷ It is therefore no surprise that the Danish and Swedish civil justice systems are essentially based on the same values.

Thus, in connection with the recent general reform of the Danish civil justice system, the Danish Administration of Justice Committee identified four fundamental values:⁷⁸ courts must be available for dispute resolution (access to court), the dispute resolution must be justifiable for the purpose of correct decisions, disputes brought before courts must be settled within a reasonable time and the costs must be acceptable to the parties and the society at large.⁷⁹ The Committee emphasized that it is also important in itself that the civil justice system promotes confidence in this system.⁸⁰ The Committee emphasized the influence of, *inter alia*, the ECHR.⁸¹

Similar values can be found in the Swedish civil justice system. Since the Swedish Judicial Code entered into force in 1948, several reforms have thus focused on making procedures more efficient and less costly without prejudicing

⁷⁴ See, *inter alia*, the *Peterbroeck* judgment of 14 December 1995, Case C-312/95, §12, which includes references to the previous case law of the ECJ on this matter, and the *van der Weerd* judgment of 7 June 2007, Joined Cases C-222/05 to C-225/05, §28.

⁷⁵ See NOU 2001:32, Bind A, pp. 149–150; NOU 2001:32, Bind B, pp. 649–651, prp. pp. 44 and 363 and innst. pp. 11–12. See also Schei (2007), vol. I, pp. 21–26.

⁷⁶ See Schei (2007), vol. 1, p. 23.

⁷⁷ Article 6(1) of the ECHR.

⁷⁸ See, *inter alia*, the Danish law committee report no 1401/2001 (mentioned *supra*), pp. 83–86.

⁷⁹ These values were also mentioned as “especially important” in the Norwegian report NOU 2001:38, p. 129.

⁸⁰ *Op. cit.*

⁸¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 95–104.

the ability to make correct decisions.⁸² Recently, the Swedish government has also focused on promoting public confidence in the (civil) justice system.⁸³

2.4 General Principles

The Norwegian Dispute Act includes a list of general principles that aim to support the purposes and fundamental values discussed *supra*.

Norwegian Dispute Act §1-1(2) states:

In order for the purposes under (1) to be achieved:

- Each party shall be permitted to argue its case and to present evidence,
- Each party shall be permitted access, as well as the opportunity to respond, to the arguments and evidence of the opposite party,
- Each party shall at one stage of the proceedings be permitted to argue its case orally, as well as to make a first-hand presentation of its evidence, before the court,
- The procedure and costs involved shall be in reasonable proportion to the importance of the case,
- Differences between the parties in terms of resources shall not be decisive to the outcome of the case,
- Grounds shall be given for important rulings, and
- Rulings of special importance shall be open to review.

The analysis below will show to what extent these principles can be regarded as general principles of civil justice also in Denmark and Sweden. It should be noted that this analysis does not pretend to comprise *all* general principles of Nordic civil justice and that it falls outside the scope of this paper to discuss what other principles may be identified as general principles of civil justice.⁸⁴

2.4.1 Arguing of the Case and Presentation of Evidence

According to the two first-mentioned principles, each party shall be permitted to argue its case and to present evidence, including in response to the arguments and evidence of the opposite party. Nordic lawyers have traditionally deduced these

⁸² This was one of the overall objectives of the reforms based on *Rättegångsutredningen*; see, *inter alia*, SOU 1982:26, pp. 13–16.

⁸³ See SOU 2008:106 and Ds 2009:66.

⁸⁴ For a discussion of this topic from a Nordic perspective, see, *inter alia*, Lindblom (2000b), pp. 105–155.

principles of civil procedure from three fundamental ideas or principles (*maxims*) behind Nordic civil justice: *dispositionsprincippet* (the dispositive principle), *forhandlingsprincippet* (the principle of party presentation/initiative) and *kontradiktionsprincippet* (*audiatur et altera pars*). It follows, *inter alia*, from these principles that the court must respect the autonomy of the parties, including their right to decide on the content and scope of their litigation; that the court must decide the case on the basis of the claims, allegations and evidence presented by the parties (the court should thus not conduct its own investigations of the facts of the case); and that each party has a right to comment on all arguments and evidence presented by the other parties.⁸⁵

The rights of a party to argue its case and to present evidence are related to the concept of a “fair hearing” under Article 6 of the ECHR.⁸⁶ This concept implies, *inter alia*, the right to adversarial proceedings, according to which the parties must have the opportunity not only to make known any evidence needed for their claims to succeed but also to have knowledge of, and comment on, all evidence adduced or observations filed, with a view to influencing the court’s decision.⁸⁷

2.4.2 Traditional Preference for Oral Communication, Immediacy and Free Evaluation of Evidence

According to the third-mentioned principles, each party shall at one stage of the proceedings be permitted to argue its case orally, as well as to make a first-hand presentation of its evidence, before the court. These principles are also largely protected by Article 6(1) of the ECHR.⁸⁸

The right of a party to argue its case orally is closely associated with the traditional Nordic preference for oral communications in civil litigation (often referred to as the *principle of orality*), which, as already mentioned, was a fundamental principle behind the modern Nordic civil justice systems.⁸⁹ This principle is connected to the principle of *immediacy*, according to which the court can base its

⁸⁵ On these principles in Nordic civil procedure, see, e.g., Lindell (2012), pp. 101–124; Gomard and Kistrup (2007), pp. 500–541; and Skoghøy (2010), pp. 477–526. Compare Jolowicz (2000), pp. 175–182.

⁸⁶ See also Article 47 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union.

⁸⁷ See, *inter alia*, Mantovanelli v. France (ECtHR judgment of 18 March 1997, AppNr 21497/93) at §33 and Krčmář and Others v. the Czech Republic (ECtHR judgment of 3 March 2000, AppNr 35376/97) at §40.

⁸⁸ On the right to an “oral hearing”, see, *inter alia*, GÖÇ v. Turkey (ECtHR judgment of 11 July 2002, AppNr 36590/97) at §47 and Miller v. Sweden (ECtHR judgment of 8 February 2005, AppNr 55853/00) at §29.

⁸⁹ See Chap. 2.1, *supra*.

judgment only on the evidence presented directly to the judges (in its original form) during a main hearing (trial), and the principle of free evaluation of evidence, according to which the judge is free to assess the presented evidence based on his inner conviction (and thus abolishing formal rules on assessment of evidence found in previous Nordic laws).⁹⁰

The introduction of the principle of orality was a cornerstone in the modern Nordic civil justice systems, where it replaced the old procedural codes based on a largely written procedure.⁹¹ With the introduction of new means of communication, including more efficient ways of communicating in writing, the principle of orality in some respects made the “modern” oral communications in civil litigation seem old-fashioned and ineffective. It is therefore no surprise that recent Nordic reforms of civil justice have focused on a more flexible approach to communication in civil litigation, including an increasing use of ICT (information and communication technologies).⁹²

2.4.3 *Proportional Procedure and Costs, Active Case Management*

The Norwegian Dispute Act further sets forth that the procedure and costs involved shall be in reasonable proportion to the importance of the case. This principle is also recognized in Danish and Swedish civil procedure laws.⁹³

In this regard, it can be noted, *inter alia*, that a specific “small claims procedure”, which was introduced in Sweden in 1974, has recently also been introduced in Norway and Denmark.⁹⁴ In Denmark and Sweden, this is supplemented by a special procedure for debt collection (order for payment procedure).⁹⁵ The EU regulations within this area—*i.e.* regulation 805/2004 on a European Enforcement Order for uncontested claims, regulation 1896/2006 on a European order for payment

⁹⁰ On these principles in Nordic civil procedure, see, *e.g.*, Lindell (2012), pp. 116–120; Gomard and Kistrup (2007), pp. 475–484 and 587–591; Skoghøy (2010), pp. 490–500; and Bylander and Lindblom (2005). See also Bylander (2006).

⁹¹ According to Section 65(1) of the Danish Constitution, all court proceedings are public and oral to the greatest possible extent in connection with the administration of justice. However, this provision does not exclude the use of procedural communications in writing to some extent. An overview of these particular constitutional issues can be found in law committee report no 1401/2001.

⁹² See, in particular, Danish report no 1401/2001, Swedish reports SOU 2001:103 and SOU 2012:93 and Norwegian report NOU 2001:32.

⁹³ See, *inter alia*, Danish Report no 1401/2001, pp. 83–84, and Swedish prop. 2004/05:131.

⁹⁴ See Chapter 10 of the Norwegian Dispute Act and chapter 39 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁹⁵ See Chapter 44 a of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and the Swedish Act (1990:746) on orders to pay and assistance (*betalningsföreläggande och handräckning*).

procedure and regulation 861/2007 on a European small claims procedure—apply only in relation to Sweden.⁹⁶

Recent Nordic reforms have generally aimed at making the ordinary civil procedure rules and principles more flexible.⁹⁷ The reforms have also emphasized *active case management* as an important obligation of the courts, *inter alia*, to help ensure a proportional procedure and costs. The recent Nordic reforms have introduced several new tools in this regard, including a requirement that the court—in cooperation with the parties—prepares, and follows up on, a plan for dealing with the case.⁹⁸ Furthermore, there is now a requirement for a written summary—at the end of the preparatory (pretrial) stage—of the parties’ claims and allegations, which (in Denmark and Norway) shall also include a list of the evidence that will be presented at the trial.⁹⁹ In Norwegian civil procedure, the court can also restrict the right of a party to present evidence that may be of importance to the ruling to be made under a proportionality principle, according to which there shall be reasonable degree of proportionality between the importance of the dispute and the scale and scope of presented evidence.¹⁰⁰

A more controversial matter, which is related to the question of ensuring a proportional procedure and costs, is the right to appeal. See Chap. 2.4.6, *infra*.

When it comes to costs related to civil litigation, including court fees, there are substantial differences between the Nordic countries. This is discussed in detail elsewhere in this book.

2.4.4 *Equality of Arms and Access to Justice*

Another general principle set forth in the Norwegian Dispute Act is that differences between the parties in terms of resources shall not be decisive to the outcome of the case. This is, *inter alia*, related to the *equality of arms* principle under Article 6 of the ECHR, according to which each party must be given a reasonable opportunity to present its case under conditions that do not place it at a substantial disadvantage *vis-à-vis* its opponent.¹⁰¹ It is also related to the broader principles of *access to court* and *access to justice*. Reference is made to the discussions of these principles elsewhere in this book.

⁹⁶ As regards Denmark and Norway, see Sect. 2.2.4, *supra*.

⁹⁷ See, *inter alia*, Lindblom (2001), pp. 157 and 166–167.

⁹⁸ See Sections 9-4 and 11-6 of the Norwegian Dispute Act, Section 42:6 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure and Sections 353–354 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁹⁹ In Sweden, this is prepared by the Court; see 42:16 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure. In Norway and Denmark, this is prepared by the parties; see Section 357 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and Section 9–10 of the Norwegian Dispute Act.

¹⁰⁰ See Section 21-8 of the Norwegian Dispute Act.

¹⁰¹ See, *inter alia*, Bulut v. Austria (ECtHR judgment of 22 February 1996, AppNr 17358/90), at §47.

2.4.5 *Reasoned Decision*

It is a fundamental principle of any modern justice system—and a principle protected by Article 6 of the ECHR—that decisions of courts should adequately state the reasons on which they are based.¹⁰² This is important, *inter alia*, because it shows that the parties were heard and because it ensures public scrutiny of the administration of justice.¹⁰³ It is therefore not surprising that this principle is found also in the Danish and Swedish civil justice systems.¹⁰⁴

2.4.6 *Right to Appeal*

The Norwegian Dispute Act also sets forth as a general principle that rulings of special importance shall be open to review. A right to appeal in civil litigation is not required by Article 6 of the ECHR, but the Committee of Ministers (Council of Europe) has adopted a recommendation to its member states that appeal procedures should be available in “civil and commercial cases”.¹⁰⁵ It is therefore no surprise that appeal procedures are available in the Nordic civil justice systems. However, the extent of the right to appeal and the content of appeal proceedings differ substantially between the Nordic countries.

The Danish civil justice system is based on a general right to appeal once (often referred to as the *two-instance principle*).¹⁰⁶ As a point of departure, all cases are tried by a district court in the first instance, and a district court judgment can thus be appealed to one of the two High Courts, whereas further appeal to the Supreme Court will require a leave to appeal.¹⁰⁷ Some cases, including cases of general public importance, can be tried in the first instance by one of the High Courts or the Maritime and Commercial Court.¹⁰⁸ In those cases, there is an unrestricted right to appeal to the Supreme Court. An appellate court (*i.e.* a High Court or the Supreme Court) can try the case in full based on a new full hearing of the case where the

¹⁰² See, *inter alia*, Garcia Ruiz v. Spain (ECtHR judgment of 21 January 1999, AppNr 30544/96), at §26, and Hirvisaari v. Finland (ECtHR judgment of 27 September 2001, AppNr 49684/99), at §30.

¹⁰³ See, *inter alia*, Salov v. Ukraine (ECtHR judgment of 6 September 2005, AppNr 65518/01), at §89.

¹⁰⁴ See Sections 218 and 218 a of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and Chapter 17 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure. See also Section 19-6 of the Norwegian Dispute Act.

¹⁰⁵ Recommendation No. R (95) 5 of the Committee of Ministers to member states concerning the introduction and improvement of the functioning of appeal systems and procedures in civil and commercial cases (Council of Europe, Committee of Ministers, 1995).

¹⁰⁶ See Section 368(1) and (3) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act. A leave to appeal is required only if the appeal concerns a district court judgment and the claim does not exceed DKK 10,000.

¹⁰⁷ See Section 371 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

¹⁰⁸ See, in particular, Sections 225–227 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

parties can present new evidence and, to some extent, also include new claims and allegations.¹⁰⁹ The Danish government has initiated a public consultation concerning a proposal for significant legislative amendments concerning the right to appeal that will, *inter alia*, introduce more restrictions on the two-instance principle, and it will introduce other amendments with an aim to strengthen the role of the Danish Supreme Court as a court hearing cases of a general public importance only.¹¹⁰

In the Norwegian civil justice system, all cases are also as a point of departure tried by a district court in the first instance.¹¹¹ A district court judgment can be appealed to one of the six Courts of Appeal.¹¹² However, a leave to appeal is required if the judgment concerns an asset claim and the value of the appeal claim does not exceed NOK 125,000.¹¹³ Furthermore, the Court of Appeal may deny an appeal in whole or in part if it finds that the appeal will clearly not succeed.¹¹⁴ Appeal of a judgment from a Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court requires a leave to appeal, which can be given, *inter alia*, if the case is of a general public importance.¹¹⁵ As in Denmark, the appellate court can normally try the case in full.

In Sweden, civil disputes are also as a point of departure tried by a district court in the first instance.¹¹⁶ A district court judgment can be appealed to one of the six Courts of Appeal.¹¹⁷ However, leave to appeal is now normally always required for the Court of Appeal to review the judgment.¹¹⁸ The Court of Appeal thus now functions as a “gatekeeper” to exclude appeals where, based on a summary review, there appears to be no basis for review of the district court judgment.¹¹⁹ Leave to appeal can be granted *if* there are reasons to doubt the correctness of the district court judgment, *if* such correctness cannot be properly assessed without granting leave to appeal, *if* it is deemed important to get a precedent from a higher court *or if* there are special circumstances.¹²⁰ A party needs permission from the court to include new claims, allegations and evidence in the appeal. Furthermore, a sound and video recording of the testimonies made before the district court by parties,

¹⁰⁹ See Sections 380–384 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

¹¹⁰ See Udvalget for bedre og mere effektiv behandling af civile sager ved domstolene, *Notat om adgangen til appel i civile sager* (Danish Ministry of Justice, 1 July 2013).

¹¹¹ See Section 4-1 of the Norwegian Dispute Act. Many of these cases must first be presented before a Conciliation Board; see the rules in Chapter 6 of the Dispute Act.

¹¹² Section 29-1 of the Dispute Act. In exceptional circumstances, a district court judgment can be appealed directly to the Supreme Court; see Section 30-2 of the Dispute Act.

¹¹³ See Section 29-13 of the Dispute Act.

¹¹⁴ See Section 29-13 of the Dispute Act.

¹¹⁵ See Section 30-4 of the Dispute Act.

¹¹⁶ See the rules in Chapter 10 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹¹⁷ See Section 49:1 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹¹⁸ See Section 49:12 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹¹⁹ See Westberg (2012), p. 237.

¹²⁰ See Section 49:14 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

witnesses and experts will normally be played back before the Court of Appeal.¹²¹ An appeal of a judgment from a Court of Appeal to the Supreme Court always requires a leave to appeal.¹²² In certain cases, a district court can refer a preliminary question of law directly to the Supreme Court.¹²³

From a comparative perspective, there are currently substantial differences between the Nordic countries when it comes to the question of appeal in civil litigation. The right to appeal is most restricted in the Swedish system, whereas it is always available in the Danish system.¹²⁴ The Norwegian system seems to be somewhere in the middle. With the legislative proposal currently being discussed in Denmark, the Danish system will converge towards the Norwegian system. The Nordic civil justice systems are also clearly converging when it comes to giving the Supreme Courts a more clearly defined role as “precedential courts”.¹²⁵

2.5 Conclusions

Even though the recent reforms of civil justice in Denmark, Norway and Sweden have not been subject to any formal legislative cooperation, it is obvious that these Nordic countries have actively looked for—and to a large extent also found—common solutions to the challenges of the twenty-first century. The analyses in Chap. 3 show that the civil justice systems of Denmark, Norway and Sweden today generally aim to fulfill the same purposes and are essentially based on the same fundamental values and general principles. It thus seems reasonable to conclude that the purposes, values and principles discussed in this paper largely reflect a common Nordic approach to civil justice. Other contributions in this book show that the Nordic civil justice systems today also reflect a common approach to many of the more specific issues of civil justice.

The analyses also show that many of the identified fundamental values and general principles of civil justice are today influenced by international law, in particular European human rights law and European Union law. It is therefore likely that largely similar fundamental values and general principles can be identified in civil justice systems of other (European) countries.¹²⁶ It is thus not claimed that the common approach identified in this paper is *uniquely* Nordic.

¹²¹ See Section 35:13 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹²² See Sections 54:9–10 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹²³ See Section 56:13 of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹²⁴ As mentioned *supra*, a leave to appeal is required only if the appeal concerns a district court judgment and the claim does not exceed DKK 10,000.

¹²⁵ See Lindblom (2007).

¹²⁶ Compare, *e.g.*, Chap. 1 of the UK Civil Procedure Rules (CPR), the ALI/Unidroit Principles of Transnational Civil Procedure (2004) and the current ELI-Unidroit Project “From Transnational Principles to European Rules of Civil Procedure”.

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Chapter 3

European Integration and Nordic Civil Procedure

Anna Nylund

Abstract European integration affects Nordic civil procedure primarily through the European Convention on Human Rights and the European Union. The case law from the European Court on Human Rights has clearly had a major impact on Nordic civil procedure, but so far the case law from the European Court of Justice and legislation from the Union has had only a minor direct impact. The lack of discussion on Europeanization of Nordic civil procedure has been striking. This is intriguing, as the impact of Europeanization is significant in a wider perspective, encompassing both indirect and direct, top-down and bottom-up developments. When Nordic civil procedure is analyzed by using the concept of legal culture, the extent of Europeanization becomes even clearer: Europeanization has altered norm production, conflict resolution, professionalization, internationalization, the idea of justice, methods and concepts and structure of civil procedure in the Nordic countries irrespective of membership in the European Union.

3.1 Europeanization of Nordic Civil Procedure

Civil procedure has often been considered to be deeply imbedded in the national (legal) culture and therefore resistant to outside influences.¹ The emergence of and the subsequent increased legal powers of supranational European organs, more specifically the European Union (EU), the European Court of Justice (ECJ) and the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR), have forced national civil procedure systems to change. The Nordic civil procedure systems are no exception, and

¹ Marcus (2010), pp. 521–522.

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Nordic lawyers have increasingly embraced the idea that their systems are affected by European integration.

European integration causes changes that can be characterized as Europeanization. Europeanization is a subcategory of internationalization, the interaction between different legal cultures across national and jurisdictional borders in a European context. Although Europeanization is thought of as a relative recent phenomenon, it is age old and can be traced back at least to the Middle Ages. Europeanization is often understood as something occurring on the surface level of law through supranational legislation and case law. However, Europeanization is a much more complex phenomenon, occurring through different mechanisms and on different levels.

According to Jan Smits,² Europeanization can be viewed as a bottom-up or top-down process: top-down process describes changes occurring as a consequence of legislation, court decisions and other legal acts of supranational organizations, and bottom-up process describes changes occurring as a consequence of individual persons. An example of bottom-up change is the introduction of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and especially mediation as a consequence of students, attorneys and scholars traveling to the United States and learning from their American colleagues. Top-down processes are generally easier to recognize as Europeanization, but the aim and the extent of them vary. The aim might be complete unity, harmonization or approximation, and the changes might occur through case law, binding legislation or recommendations.³ The bottom-up processes are often more difficult to spot and continue over a long time; in them Europeanization consists of ideas traveling across national borders and jurisdictions, a system of “export and import” of ideas, which are then directly taken into a system, or modified. These ideas can be characterized as legal formants or legal transplants.⁴

Nordic civil procedure has been affected by both top-down and bottom-up developments over centuries. Europeanization has been present since the emergence of primitive courts, *ting*, in the early medieval period. Canon Law had a major impact on the development of the court system during the late Middle Age and early modern period. In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the new Austrian and German Civil Procedure Acts were highly influential on Nordic civil procedure. Nordic civil procedure thinking and legislation has been directly influenced by foreign law: the basic structure, concepts and categories are influenced directly by the Austrian and German laws. However, from the end of World War II until the 1990s there was little direct international influence. More recent changes, such as the introduction of mediation and group actions, are directly influenced by English (and US American) law. The integration of civil procedure is still in its infancy, and therefore the picture might change rapidly. Therefore, when

² Jan Smits (2007). Torbjörn Andersson has a different approach based on levels of approximation (Andersson 2003, pp. 59–62).

³ Gilles (2003), p. 417.

⁴ See, *inter alia*, Watson (1974), Sacco (1991a, b), Mattei (1994), and Legrand (1997).

discussing Europeanization, one should analyze changes on many different levels, not just the direct impact of European legislation and case law.

The current trend in European integration is interesting because it reintroduces a system with overlapping jurisdictions in Europe. In the Middle Ages, the Church had canonical courts all over Europe in addition to national and/or local jurisdictions and court systems. Today, the national jurisdictions and court systems are more developed, and the European regimes are different from the canonical courts because they rely primarily on the national authorities and courts to enforce European legislation. Both jurisdictions have basically one court functioning as a supreme court but lack a three-tiered court structure with local courts. In the US, the federal courts have a classical three-tiered structure and federal laws are applied in federal courts. Therefore, the choice of forum is an important question. In Europe, national courts apply European rules and they have been given the task to ensure equal enforcement of European law. Therefore, application of European law is not a question of choice of law as in classical private law, but interpreting and applying national law in a way that makes it compatible with European law, or when necessary setting aside national law incompatible with European law. This is an important difference to many other regimes with overlapping legal systems: it brings new mechanisms for interaction and influence between the supranational and national civil procedure systems.

This text will focus on the more recent developments in the Europeanization of Nordic civil procedure. The focus is mainly on the impact of legislation and initiatives from the EU and on the impact of bottom-up Europeanization. The ECHR will not be discussed in depth as a source of Europeanization, as its role has been discussed vividly in the Nordic context.⁵

First, a general introduction to Nordic civil procedure will be given to give an introduction to the usefulness, and indeed problems, of discussion Nordic civil procedure. Second, first “direct” and then “indirect” forms of Europeanization will be discussed. Here, direct Europeanization is understood as the changes resulting from EU legislation and indirect Europeanization as changes resulting more indirectly through different activities of lawyers, policy makers and the legislator. Third, civil procedure is analyzed in a wider context by looking at more than the law, the legal provisions and case law. Civil procedure is part of the general legal culture, and changes in legislation will change the other parts of legal culture and vice versa. Finally, the future of Nordic civil procedure will be discussed in terms of the changes emerging from European integration.

⁵ There are numerous articles in the Scandinavian languages on the impact of the ECHR regime on Nordic civil procedure. The topic is perennial in the meetings of the Nordic Association of Procedural Law. Additionally, the topic is discussed on a European level and is therefore available in many languages.

3.2 Is There a “Nordic” Civil Procedure?

The Nordic countries are often referred to as one entity, or a legal family. Generally, most lawyers suppose that the laws and legal practices are very similar, as the historic, cultural, societal and educational ties are close. There are many examples of “Nordic” laws, i.e. laws that are either almost identical, like the law on contracts, or based on a high level of cooperation during the legislative process, such as the original version of the marriage law and the bankruptcy law.⁶

Civil procedure, and indeed criminal procedure as well, is an exception: the Nordic countries form two, surprisingly different, subgroups, the Western and the Eastern groups. The Western group, consisting of Denmark, Iceland and Norway, has a civil procedure partly resembling the Common Law tradition. These three countries were all part of Denmark until 1814, when Norway became a part of Sweden, keeping its Danish-based legal system. Iceland kept its Danish-based system when it became independent. The Eastern group, consisting of Finland and Sweden, is more Continental and more clearly based on a Germanic tradition. Finland was a part of Sweden until 1809, when it became a part of the Russian Empire, keeping its Swedish-based legal system. Consequently, the Western group has one set of courts, but the Eastern group has separate administrative courts; the procedure is more oral in the West, while it has been traditionally relying on more written procedures in the East, and lawyers have a far more important role in the West than in the East.

However, all the systems are based on the late nineteenth century Austrian–German civil procedure. Modern Civil Procedure Acts based on the ideas of Franz Klein were enacted in Denmark and Norway in 1916 and 1915, respectively. Sweden and Finland modernized their legislation far later, in 1948 and 1993 respectively, but the laws are based on the same ideas and Austrian–German influences but with another twist and slightly different structure. The basic structure, ideas and principles are to a high extent similar, as is terminology. After the war, German impact was reduced, especially the direct and highly visible impact.⁷ Later from the 1970s onwards, the United States have been influential. However, the US civil procedure is fundamentally different from Nordic procedure, and therefore the influences have been limited to special forms of procedure, such as class or group actions, arbitration and ADR. English civil procedure has become more influential in the last few decades as a consequence of the Woolf report and the new Civil Procedure Rules. The international influences have been very similar.

There are other similarities based on the general structure of society. Lay judges have been important in the Nordic countries, although they are no longer widely used in general civil cases.⁸ Nordic legislation and legal culture are pragmatic and simple compared to many other European jurisdictions: there are few complex structures, the regulation is seldom very detailed and there is little specialization

⁶ Nylund (2010), pp. 171–177.

⁷ Fredriksen (2011).

⁸ Husa et al. (2007), pp. 15–17.

among legal professionals, including judges.⁹ Settlements have been encouraged over a long time, and Nordic judges will usually feel very comfortable to encourage settlement and even help the parties negotiate a settlement agreement within the limits of the law. Court procedure is not formalistic, as the rest of society is also characterized by relative informality: the tone and form of discussions in the courtroom is informal, although the parties are, naturally, respectful of the court. The rules and the procedure are often flexible, giving the judge discretion to shape the procedure to fit the case.

Today, Denmark, Finland and Sweden are members of the European Union, whereas Iceland and Norway are more loosely tied to the EU through the European Economic Area and EFTA. Denmark has an exception from judicial cooperation, participates on an intergovernmental level only. All five countries are member of the Council of Europe.

Therefore, one can still argue that there is an overarching Nordic legal culture within the field of civil procedure, bridging over the gap between the Eastern and Western cultures.

3.3 “Direct” Europeanization of the Nordic Countries

3.3.1 “Direct” Europeanization

The “direct” form of Europeanization, *i.e.* legislation and decisions from supranational legal entities, is the most obvious form of Europeanization. Regulations and Directives from the EU, case law from the ECJ, and the case law from the ECtHR have added a new dimension to the daily work of Nordic lawyers, judges and legislators. In civil procedure, the direct effect has mainly been through the requirements on a fair trial set forth in article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights. This is a form of a top-down approach emphasizing harmonization or approximation.

So far, the EU has been lagging behind in the field of civil procedure. An important part of the explanation is the lack of competence in civil justice and the doctrine of procedural autonomy first set forth in the *Rewe* case.¹⁰ According to doctrine, the member states decide themselves the procedural guarantees for ensuring equal protection of rights deriving from EU law. The member states decide the means of enforcement of EU legislation; the EU is interested in the results, not the means.¹¹ Although the competence of the EU is still limited in civil justice, there has been the increase of judicial cooperation, especially during the early stages of the process and by ensuring effective cross-border enforcement. The main areas

⁹ Husa et al. (2007), p. 25.

¹⁰ ECJ of 16 December 1976, case 33/76 *Rewe*.

¹¹ See Zingales (2010), Haapaniemi (2009) and Galetta (2010) for a discussion on procedural autonomy.

affected within the realms of civil procedure have been rules on jurisdiction through the Lugano Convention¹² and Brussels I Regulation,¹³ serving of documents and taking evidence in another member country.¹⁴ Finally, although not directly related to civil procedure, the system of obtaining preliminary rulings from the ECJ has changed the balance between courts.

Although these changes as such are important and have had an impact on how courts work and the legal method and sources the courts use, they have not had a major impact on civil procedure as a discipline and field of law. An important result of these changes has been increased attention to human rights, especially the right to a fair trial, mostly as a consequence of case law from the ECtHR. Lawyers and judges now have to consider EU legislation, the need for a preliminary ruling and considering if national legislation is compatible with EU law. However, as these changes have been discussed in depth in several places, they will not be discussed here.¹⁵

3.3.2 *Four Initiatives on European Legislation*

In recent years, the EU has got increased power in the area of civil justice, as the Union has express powers in the Lisbon Treaty, articles 67 and 81, to take necessary measures to approximate procedural rules in cross-border cases to facilitate access to justice.¹⁶ The powers of the Union are expressly limited to cross-border cases, and thus the EU does not have any general power to enact procedural law. The power to enact procedural rules (here, procedure is understood in a very wide sense) is only corollary to the wider goal of ensuring effectiveness, *effet utile* of EU law.¹⁷ Consequently, legislation on phenomena quite far from the very core of civil procedure focusing on minor cases has been enacted: the European payment order, small claims cases, mediation and e-justice have been chosen. The legislation represents a new development, as civil procedure is directly regulated by the EU, although the regulation is split.¹⁸

¹² Council Decision 2007/712/EC of 15 October 2007 on the signing, on behalf of the Community, of the Convention on jurisdiction and the recognition and enforcement of judgments in civil and commercial matters.

¹³ Council Regulation (EC) No 44/2001 of 22 December 2000 on jurisdiction and the recognition and enforcement of judgments in civil and commercial matters and successive amendments.

¹⁴ Werlauff (1999), p. 111ff.

¹⁵ See *inter alia* Werlauff (1999), pp. 193–259.

¹⁶ See also Hess (2010), p. 25ff.

¹⁷ See Galetta (2010), pp. 9–21; Hess (2003), pp. 339–342; and Storskrubb (2008), pp. 39–43 and 64–70, for a discussion on EU powers in procedural law.

¹⁸ Hess (2012, pp. 169–171) calls the development a constitutionalization of civil procedure within the EU. The approach has been quite splitted with regulation in small splitted areas (Hess 2012, pp. 164–165). This approach is bound to change to a more comprehensive one soon, according to Hess (2012, p. 171).

The Regulation on a European Payment Order¹⁹ was introduced to make cross-border collecting of uncontested pecuniary claims far more simple. The regulation is based on an idea of using electronic communication and forms, which are easy to use for small businesses and private parties. The regulation draws heavily on Austrian, German and Swedish laws (*Mahnverfahren* and *betalningsföreläggande*).²⁰ The system is therefore easily transformed to Swedish law. Finland had a similar system (*maksamismääräysmenettely*) until 1993, but since the system was abolished, and the collecting of pecuniary claims became a “sub-track” of the ordinary civil procedure. In Finland, a separate track for cross-border cases has been established, but the regulation has so far not led to discussions to reform the current system.

The Regulation on Small Claims Procedure²¹ in cross-border cases created seemingly simplified rules for small claims. This procedure relies on the use of standardized forms, less strict rules on the content of written materials and the possibility to use written statements from witnesses and an exclusively written procedure.²² The EU has tried to solve the age-old enigma of balancing costs and access to justice in small cases, trying to create a swift and cheap process resulting in “correct” judgments. In my opinion, the regulations is a futile attempt to solve a difficult challenge that many jurisdictions have tried to solve for centuries. This is also reflected in the way Finland and Sweden have dealt with the Regulation: they have not changed their civil procedure rules, nor has the regulation triggered any discussion.

The EU has tried to enhance the use of ADR by enacting a model code of conduct for mediators²³ and a directive for mediation in cross-border civil cases.²⁴ The directive makes mediation available in cross-border general civil cases and can therefore push member states to make court-connected mediation available to all general civil cases. However, as the Nordic countries already have court-connected mediation, the impact has been small. The rules in both the directive and the code of conduct are vague; mediation is not defined in detail but can be understood as a more general definition of nonbinding ADR, nor is the role of the mediator defined. However, the Directive states that the agreement must be enforceable and the limitation or prescription periods must stop during mediation. Also, mediation is defined as a confidential process, with some exceptions. The rules on enforceability, limitation periods and confidentiality are important methods to make mediation

¹⁹ Regulation (EC) No 1896/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 12 December 2006 creating a European order for payment procedure.

²⁰ For more details, see *e.g.*, Hess (2010), pp. 556–573.

²¹ Regulation (EC) No 861/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 July 2007 establishing a European small claims procedure.

²² For more details, see *e.g.*, Hess (2010), pp. 573–587.

²³ http://ec.europa.eu/civiljustice/adr/adr_ec_code_conduct_en.pdf.

²⁴ Directive 2008/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.

more attractive and on par with litigation. However, the rules are mostly technical and will probably not have a genuine impact on the development of court-connected mediation.

The EU has enacted rules for Alternative Dispute Resolution²⁵ and Online Dispute Resolution²⁶ for consumer cases entering into force on July 2015 and January 2016, respectively. Member states must ensure that ADR and ODR mechanisms are available for consumers and that the entities offering ADR and ODR services provide impartial, fair, transparent and effective mechanisms for solving consumer disputes. Both member states and traders must inform consumers of the possibility and the advantages using ADR and ODR. Therefore, member states must provide information on the entities offering ADR and ODR and on the rules of the procedures. The entities must provide a service for filing cases online. Nordic civil procedure will probably not be directly effected as consumer cases generally go to consumer boards, some of which already have electronic filing.

The conclusion is that the European legislation in the field of small cases has had very little impact on Finnish and Swedish legislation, limited mostly to minor technical changes, and practically no impact on Danish, Icelandic and Norwegian legislation. The Directive on Cross-Border Mediation has received the most attention, perhaps because legislation on mediation is new in all Nordic countries and the system is therefore more open for input and influences from outside. Discussion has been almost nonexistent, and most lawyers are probably not aware of the changes.²⁷ The direct effects of European integration have been very limited.

3.3.3 Reasons for and Consequences of Limited Direct Europeanization

One might ask why the recent legislation and proposals for Brussels received so little attention in the Nordic countries. Although the issues regulated might seem to be of lesser importance, they show that the Union is entering the core areas of civil procedure. Therefore, the next steps could be of fundamental importance for the future and development of civil procedure and result in more comprehensive legislation.

One reason could be lack of awareness, but in my opinion that cannot be a sufficient explanation. By now, most professionals working with civil procedure

²⁵ Directive 2013/11/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2013 on alternative dispute resolution for consumer disputes and amending Regulation (EC) No 2006/2004 and Directive 2009/22/EC.

²⁶ Regulation (EU) No 524/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2013 on online dispute resolution for consumer disputes and amending Regulation (EC) No 2006/2004 and Directive 2009/22/EC.

²⁷ Nylund (2011), pp. 131–134.

should be aware of the Europeanization of civil procedure. I believe Nordic lawyers are reluctant to debate Europeanization because they neither perceive the importance nor the possibilities of it. Many probably believe that the legislation does not concern us because we already have efficient systems for collecting uncontested pecuniary claims, small claims procedures, court-connected mediation and consumer protection boards as ADR in consumer matters and that the rest of the legislation is merely of a technical nature. Also, we consider us pioneers in using information technology, and therefore any attempts to increase the use of IT will be considered only as contributions to a discussion on technical matters.

The lack of attention results in lost opportunities to discuss and develop national legislation. Although civil justice systems are fairly good, they are not flawless. For example, the system for collecting uncontested pecuniary claims in Finland is problematic because it is a part of the general civil litigation system. Therefore, the system is not very visible to the outsider, and defendants might not understand what happens if they contest the claims. Being part of the general civil procedure makes it more difficult to make the system more user-friendly for one-shot litigants. Therefore, hidden traps are formed in the system.

Similarly, the Norwegian system for collecting uncontested pecuniary claims can be difficult to navigate for non-Norwegians. Claims can usually be collected directly by the local law enforcement offices (*namsmann*). However, this requires a clause in the contract clearly stating the obligation to pay. For foreign lawyers and foreign legal entities, this might be a trap to access to the simplified methods of collecting claims. The rules are also considered suboptimal, as the debtor might not understand the process and the ways to contest the claims.

In both countries, the system uses nonlawyers with very limited or no paralegal training. Both countries could have taken the European legislation to discuss their national systems and improve them. By not discussing the relative advantages and disadvantages of the current systems, opportunities are lost.

3.4 “Indirect” Europeanization of Nordic Civil Procedure

“Indirect” Europeanization is a result of legislation and court cases that are not directly related to civil procedure. There are basically four important changes to Nordic civil procedure. The three first are examples of top-down Europeanization and the fourth of bottom-up.

First, the procedure for preliminary rulings has given lower courts a possibility to judicial activism, by challenging national views on what the law is. Courts might see an opening when an issue is related to unclear *acquis communautaire* or when compatibility with the *acquis* is unclear. This gives lower courts more power, as they can challenge the interpretation and application of law.

Second, there are numerous procedural rules in especially EU consumer legislation, which might have an impact on the court system. These rules are generally

not well known and have received limited attention in spite of their possible importance.

Third, the ECJ has decided that national courts must change their procedural rules when these obstruct the application of relevant EU legislation. In *Banco Español de Crédito SA v. Joaquín Calderón Camino* (judgment 14 June 2012 case C-618/10), the ECJ stated that the Spanish court not only had the possibility but also had an obligation to examine whether a contractual term falling within the scope of Directive 93/13 was unfair. Therefore, national procedural rules limiting the powers of the Spanish court had to be set aside. Consequently, national systems where the court has a limited right to decide on whether something is compatible with EU legislation are in breach of EU law. Although there is no general indication that any Nordic systems would be incompatible with the principles set forth in *Banco Español de Crédito*, there might be problems in the future. The reason is that many cases are solved by nonlawyers with no formal paralegal education. Although these officers have a general obligation to determine if the contract clauses and other claims set forth are compatible with law, they will only limit their assessment to some general factors and will not be able to notice all cases. In the long run, there might be an impact on the procedural systems for minor (mainly consumer) cases in the Nordic countries.

Fourth, the documents used to draft the bills, and later assessments of the impact of the new legislation, contain information about practices in the member states. Here, national legislators, public officials and others can gain information on legislation, practices and trends in other countries. The Council of Europe also contributes to more knowledge by giving recommendations on how to improve systems or where the minimum standard should be set. The organization also publishes reports based on research on practices in different countries, thus spreading information especially on best practices.

It is difficult to estimate the effect of indirect Europeanization since the legislator, courts and policy makers are not always open about their sources. Sometimes desired but potentially unpopular legislation can be successfully enacted by referring to requirements from European institutions. In other cases, Europeanization or European influences have consciously been hidden to make the change more popular, as it looks like a national “invention”. The indirect Europeanization is an intricate phenomenon, consisting of a mixture of top-down measures and bottom-up measures, unintended consequences of the European supranational legal system, and of making changes acceptable to the general public, the legislator and the legal community.

3.5 The Legal Culture of Civil Procedure

3.5.1 A Theory on Legal Culture

The conclusion so far is that Nordic civil procedure has been affected by European integration only to a very modest degree, notwithstanding the changes resulting from the case law from the ECtHR. However, this would be a premature, and therefore possibly an erroneous, conclusion. Procedural law is far more than legislation and case law, and important changes might arise by other mechanisms, especially through the intellectual or mental structure. Law is much more than the written norms of a specific legal system; civil procedure is a structure of principles, doctrines and practices and a part of the general legal culture. To fully understand the effects of European integration on civil procedure, one should study civil procedure as a cultural phenomenon.

In order to achieve a fuller analysis of Europeanization of Nordic civil procedure, a model on legal culture developed by the legal historian Jørn Øyrehagen Sunde will be used. Sunde notes that a legal culture or legal system is equated only with its visible parts, *i.e.* legislative and adjudicative bodies, legislation and case law.²⁸ Other researchers such as H. Patrick Glenn²⁹ have focused on legal culture as legal tradition, *i.e.* more of the historic, societal, cultural and intellectual aspects of law. Sunde argues that a legal culture consists of both a system—a “physical”, “visible” or institutional structure—and a tradition—a “mental”, “hidden” or intellectual structure. Elements from both parts of the structure are present in all legal cultures, and the different parts of the structure are in constant interaction. The institutional part can be divided into creating norms and solving disputes, and the intellectual part can be divided into the idea of justice, legal methods, professionalization and internationalization. Understanding a legal culture requires a study of all parts.³⁰

Legal culture can be defined narrowly or widely: a very narrow definition will focus on a specific subgroup of lawyers, whereas a wide definition will include the society at large and its legal culture in general. In civil procedure, one can look at how dispute resolution is arranged in a society and which large-scale cultural and societal mechanisms influence the use of courts.³¹ On the other hand, one can analyze court culture, the practices of attorneys and judges. The wide and narrow aspects of legal culture are in constant interaction.

Change in a legal culture might be a result of societal change or outside influences. All (international) influences must pass through a filter when entering the legal culture. Some ideas will be filtered almost completely, others will pass as they are and some will lose parts, depending on the resistance of the recipient

²⁸ See Zweigert and Kötz (1996), pp. 61–67.

²⁹ Glenn (2007), pp. 1–29.

³⁰ Sunde (2010), pp. 20–24.

³¹ Blankenburg (1989).

culture, the needs in the recipient society and the quality and origin of the idea being transported.³² All influences are adapted to the recipient legal culture and therefore undergo a transformation to a smaller or larger extent.³³ Therefore, a legal institution will always be a little different in every legal culture.

Although originally developed to be a tool for analyzing historical changes in a specific legal culture, Sunde's model on legal culture is an appropriate tool for analyzing legal change in both intellectual and institutional parts of a legal culture or within a single field of law. The theory takes into account the interaction between different components of the system and the pace and visibility of changes. Additionally, it can be used to make connections between the legal system and the society at large more visible.

3.5.2 *The Institutional Parts of Nordic Civil Procedure*

Europeanization of the institutional level of Nordic civil procedure reveals foremost a patchwork of superficial technical changes to legislation. So far, there have been no large-scale changes to legislation. In the future, the ECJ may make more profound changes to the procedural system because it has the power to interpret the provisions in EU legislation on civil procedure and as the realization of the rights set forth in the *acquis* sometimes requires changes in the national civil procedure system. Less procedural autonomy will be the consequence. There has been no official effort to approximation of civil procedure and so far only one prominent private initiative by Marcel Storme.³⁴ There are no Nordic initiatives, neither have the Nordic countries had significant cooperation when implementing European legislation.

However, the conflict resolution process has faced important changes. First, there are more institutions, as the parties can appeal to the ECtHR in cases involving human rights aspects, and the parties can ask even lower courts to request a preliminary ruling from the ECJ. For Norway and Iceland, the EFTA Court has basically the same function as the ECJ. Thus, conflict resolution has become more complex, more polycentric than before. A good lawyer can find important questions highly relevant for the ECHR or the *acquis* and thus bring the case to European

³² Holmøyvik (2010), pp. 47–49.

³³ Some prominent writers have questioned the possibility of successful transplants in general; see, *inter alia*, Legrand (1996) and Teubner (1998).

³⁴ Storme (1994). There is a new initiative on behalf of the European Law Institute, but it is only in its initial stage. According to Storme (2005), creating a common civil procedure is a dream, but Andersson (2003, p. 64) believes a European common civil procedure code will have a petrifying effect on civil procedure. Although approximation and some level of harmonization are required, there is no need for a common code. In the United States, all states have their own procedural rules; thus, there are more than 50 different systems for civil procedure, yet the system seems to work well.

courts. The vigilant lawyer will see new opportunities to challenge existing solutions and ways to find new solutions.

The change in conflict resolution has in turn changed the character of norm production, as decisions from supranational courts can set aside national legislation. The national courts have therefore the role to investigate and rule on whether a national law is compatible with European law. The task of courts is not to decide which set of rules to apply but to compare different sets of rules and interpret rules to make them compatible with other sets of rules. National courts can set aside national legislation when it is not compatible with European legislation and have therefore gained powers as norm producers. This has shifted the balance of power from the legislator to the courts. Norm production has become an increasingly polycentric activity. Many judges are still reluctant to use their power to set aside legislation because it requires courage, a culture of “judicial activism” and thorough knowledge of the law and methods of the supranational legal systems. Some judges have, however, more readily embraced their new role and become active supporters of giving human rights and common European norms a greater weight in legal argumentation. Currently, there seems to be differences between the Nordic countries as to the willingness to set a side national law and differences within the countries. Norwegian Supreme Court justices seem to be more “activist”,³⁵ whereas Finnish and Swedish justices are more conservative or legalistic. The reason is probably that case law has more weight as a source of law in Norway and that the Norwegian legislator in some cases has given the courts a mandate to make rules.

3.5.3 *Intellectual Aspects of Nordic Civil Procedure*

The intellectual part of a legal culture consists of professionalization, legal methods, ideas of justice and internationalization. Until recently, there has been little discussion on how the different intellectual aspects of Nordic legal culture have changed. Focus has generally been on ECtHR case law, not the EU system, and the analyses made have often been superficial.

European integration has had an impact on *internationalization*, as it requires increased knowledge of and approximation of the legal system to supranational legal systems and other national legal systems. However, in a larger perspective the changes are seemingly modest, especially if article 6 of the ECHR is left out. The reason is quite simple: Nordic civil procedure has always imported, transplanted

³⁵ Although the Norwegian Supreme Court has been more activist, it has not necessarily interpreted and applied European laws in a correct way. The case of Lindheim and others vs. Norway (Norwegian Supreme Court Ruling HR 2007-1593-P) was overturned by the ECtHR (Application nos. 13221/08 and 2139/10, judgment 12/06/2012). ECtHR recognized the effort by the Supreme Court to interpret and apply ECtHR case law but pointed out that the interpretation was wrong, as it was based on a wrong understanding of the legal question and on older case law (para. 135).

ideas from other larger jurisdictions. European integration has increased the number of students studying abroad and the number of scholars participating in activities on a European level. New legislation on civil procedure also means the need for legislators and professionals in the government to participate in seminars and other forums for discussing and learning about European developments, both on supranational and national levels.

Little, if anything, has so far happened with the *professionalization* of lawyers and the legal training of future judges and litigation specialists. The civil procedure curriculum is still quite traditional and limited to ECHR system. The Nordic countries still favor a model where lawyers are trained at the bench by signing for 1–2 year (depending on the national system) positions as trainee judges. During the paid trainee period, the young “judges” do basically the same tasks as full judges do but focus generally on doing away with the “routine” cases and sometimes help judges in preparing complex or difficult cases. Trainee judges can be considered to be a source of cheap labor for the courts and also a way to give young lawyers experience with court procedures.

As a consequence of the changes to the intellectual structure, especially the increased importance of the courts in norm production, *legal methods* have changed in Nordic civil procedure. The extensive case law from the ECtHR on the requirements of a fair and public trial has changed the legal method and argumentation. The judge has to balance national values and objectives with their European counterparts when determining what the law is. Sometimes the judge must compare national law and European law and balance the aims and content of the laws.³⁶ The method will probably change as a consequence of the increased powers of the ECJ in this area and provisions in EU law having a direct or indirect impact on procedural law. The method will probably become truly polycentric as the *acquis* of EU law is developing within the field of civil procedure law.

An important change in the method is probably a more holistic approach rather than an approach focusing on details. The ECtHR requires that the trial and the court proceedings as an entity must be fair; therefore, the process must be evaluated as a whole. This is a slightly different approach from the traditional Nordic based on evaluating the process through individual rules. The ECtHR therefore looks both at the law and at how things are done in practice. The ECJ has taken the same stance: it does not just matter what courts may do but also what they actually do. Therefore, courts have to pay close attention to their practices and the consequences of them, not just if they are formally legal in according with the letter of the law. Seemingly trifle practices might be important. This aspect will probably be a factor in a new turn in both the idea of justice and the method.

The ECtHR uses general concepts and principles in its argumentation. Although principles can be said to be related to Nordic, especially Danish and Norwegian, pragmatism, argumentation by using principles is different. As a consequence, principles have gained weight and relevance as important arguments in both civil

³⁶ Andersson (2003), p. 58.

procedure doctrine and the argumentation of courts. In legal doctrine, classical principles such as *audiatur et altera pars* have gained weight; they are treated in depth and in a more nuanced manner than before. The legislator has introduced new principles, such as proportionality, arguing that the resources used by the courts and parties should be directly proportional to the importance of the case for the parties and society.³⁷

The *idea of justice*, *i.e.* the method to decide what a just or fair result is, has also changed. Earlier, the functioning of the courts and the finding of the correct solution to a problem were emphasized as the main goals of the civil justice system. The function of civil procedure has been argued to implement the laws enacted and to ensure law and order in a society. The legislator wants the courts to make laws valid, and the citizens need the courts as a last resort to solve their disputes. When disputing parties can look at earlier case law, they know what the solution will be, and the parties know the solution from case law can and will be imposed by the courts. The focus has therefore been on predictable, “correct” solutions.

However, in a polycentric legal system, achieving the goals of implementing the law and giving “correct” solutions is not always realistic. The feasibility of the project has been diminished by another development: the turn from detailed, specific legislation to more general laws, often with broad clauses and a tendency to be more goal oriented or teleological. The discussions on access to justice and procedural justice have shown how the court system is dysfunctional in some cases, and the ADR movement has shown how the legally “correct” or “sound” solution might not be the optimal solution for the parties. These changes are not a direct impact of Europeanization; rather, some of them are imported from the United States of America. The discussion on access to justice and the trend towards more open, general, teleological laws can be traced back to European trends and researchers.

As a consequence of European integration, the idea of justice is being altered in the Nordic countries. First, in a polycentric system predictability is reduced, as there are potentially conflicting views on what the law is and different laws have to be compared and interpretations modified to coordinate different views. Second, in both the European regimes the interpretation is teleological and the consequences of different solutions are important when deciding on what the law is and how to solve the case. Therefore, the courts can no longer pretend to be the mouth that speaks the words of the law. Predictability and equity, both on a societal level and on an individual level, must be combined. The quest for the one correct solution has turned into a quest for a legally “sound” solution. More focus is on conflict resolution and developing the law within the limits of open, teleological provisions and polycentricism.³⁸ The question is no longer how to solve a limited problem or how to interpret a single provision in the Civil Procedure Act but how to achieve a court process that is fair as a whole and promotes important principles, values and goals set forth in law.

³⁷ The introductory rules in the Norwegian Dispute Act are a prominent example of this.

³⁸ Sunde (2010), p. 27.

In addition to the original four parts of the intellectual part of a legal culture, a fifth aspect could be added: *concepts, theories and principles*. Concepts and theories constitute the structure of a field of law, the concepts and ideas civil procedure are built on. Concepts and theories form the way lawyers think about law, their perception of law, and set the limits for what can be done and how things are done within civil procedure. Knowledge of the concepts, theories and principles forms the basis of legal education. All Nordic systems are based on the Austrian–German civil procedure of the late eighteenth century, but they are less detailed, less elaborate and less rigid. In spite of the difference between the Nordic systems and Germany, and between the eastern and western Nordic countries, the similarities are striking. Translation between the systems is generally easy, as there are corresponding terms referring to the same concept. Translation into English is often far more difficult as the doctrines, theories and concepts are very different. The structure of textbooks in civil procedure often has comparable structures, though different areas are emphasized in each Nordic system.

Europeanization has so far only had an impact through the ECtHR but very limited, if any, through the EU system. Human rights have given more emphasis to the principles of oral hearings, fairness and adversarial trials. The influences from the EU are still more of technical nature and have not developed into a coherent conception, theory or doctrine of civil procedure and have thus limited effect on the foundations of national civil procedure. However, the changes coming from the EU resemble, to some extent, the changes from the ECtHR and therefore strengthen the tendencies of the change.

Although the intellectual part of the Nordic civil procedure culture has so far faced relatively minor changes, the potential for change is big. There is clearly budding change in both the legal methods, the idea of justice and the increasing awareness of the role of practices and application of norms. Changes in the intellectual part of a legal culture happen gradually over a longer period of time. In my opinion, we seem to be in the early stages of a period of gradual change.

3.5.4 *Recent Reforms of Nordic Civil Procedure*

The recent reforms of Nordic civil procedure owe little to Europeanization. Ideas on case management, class and group actions and ADR are generally taken from common law jurisdiction, especially the United States and England.³⁹ There are, however, some parallel changes with Germany, such as the introduction of more flexibility in the choice of oral and written procedures, and striking similarities between the German *Zurückweisungsbeschluss* and the Norwegian *ankesiling*.⁴⁰ Although the similarities are obvious, it has not been possible to prove that

³⁹ For more details, see Chap. 2 in this volume.

⁴⁰ Nylund (2006), pp. 231–233 and 256–259.

Norwegian law is influenced by German law. Lack of evidence does not preclude such influences.⁴¹ The more fundamental doctrinal changes have mostly come from the case law of the ECtHR.

One reason for lack of direct international influences on Nordic civil procedure legislation, practices and scholarship might be the relative functionality of the Nordic systems. This is true especially when compared to court systems of southern Europe, where lengthy proceedings are a perpetual problem. The language barrier and lack of close ties between scholars in the Nordic countries and the rest of continental Europe have probably reduced the impact on research and doctrines. Cross-pollination between the Nordic countries has also been rather modest, although scholars are interested in the development across the countries, as PhD candidates are required to read relevant literature from the other countries. Scholars, and some practitioners, in the field of procedural law meet every 3 years to discuss recent changes and developments within the field. In the recent years, interest in other countries has been increasing.

3.5.5 The Interaction Between Institutional and Intellectual Aspects

Although Sunde splits legal culture into two structures, institutional and intellectual, the two structures are interdependent and in constant interaction. Changes in one area will often, but not always, result in changes in another area, which in turn might result in other changes. European integration has had an impact primarily on the institutional structure, but as we have seen, this has already resulted in changes in the legal method and in some changes in the idea of justice. There will possibly be a larger shift in the intellectual structures in the future. In addition to new European legislation and case law, comparisons of European systems through the *travaux préparatoires* of EU legislation and recommendations from the Council of Europe will increase the availability of information on other national systems and therefore serve as an inspiration for reforms. The collection of information and challenges with implementation of new legislation often includes seminars and workshops, bringing together participants from many European countries. European projects, initiatives and funding for research, networks and education are important for building necessary networks, knowledge and apprehension for more Europeanization.

Since only two of the five Nordic countries are fully affected by these changes, one might ask what will happen to the three other countries. Denmark, Iceland and Norway are full members of the Council of Europe, and therefore they will get a direct effect from there. Within the European Union, the indirect effects of legislation on general private law matters will probably be much the same in the long

⁴¹ See also Fredriksen (2011), pp. 22–26.

run, as the EEC/EFTA regime is much like the EU regime for implementation. However, changes will probably occur slower than in Finland and Sweden. The impact of legislation on civil procedure will probably be much smaller in the near future but might be important in the long run. Much depends on the interest and apprehension individuals in the academia, the government and other organizations and businesses have. Individuals who want to understand European civil procedure should keep up with the developments and discussions in EU civil procedure. Also, national systems might lose their relative competitive edge with European developments. For instance, regulation on mediation stopping statutory limitations might make mediation more attractive in member states than in states not having such rules. Consequently, the choice of forum, or the choice of using mediation prior to litigation, might be affected.

The court culture and the legal method are changing as a consequence of changes to the institutional structure becoming increasingly polycentric. This shows how tightly interlinked the two subparts of the legal culture are and how profound changes can be over time. Despite limited changes so far, it is easy to agree with Sunde's idea of the dawn of a new era of the civil procedure culture.⁴²

3.6 The Future of Nordic Civil Procedure in an Integrated Europe

The final question is where Nordic civil procedure is heading, which changes will take place over the next few decades. What type of changes will occur, what will their origins be and how will they impact Nordic court culture? Is the gap between the West Nordic, more common-law-oriented systems of Denmark, Iceland and Norway, and the East Nordic, more Germanic oriented systems of Finland and Sweden, closing? Is EU membership and participation in judicial cooperation within civil justice decisive or just a question of the pace of change?

These are interesting questions as the Nordic countries are similar societies and the legal systems are similar, but the civil procedure systems are based on different ideas. Internationally, the gap between civil law and common law civil procedure seems to be narrowing. Rules are made more flexible, oral procedures are becoming more important in jurisdictions with a more written tradition and the opposite and the role of the judge is changing to be more of a case manager.⁴³ So far, legislation and case law from the EU seem to be mostly of a technical nature rather than introducing new concepts and ideas to civil procedure. Therefore, EU membership does not seem to be decisive.

Today, all Nordic countries seem to be influenced by the same international developments at the same time. Therefore, one could easily conclude that the gap

⁴² Sunde (2010), p. 27.

⁴³ See Chase and Walker (2010) and Marcus (2010).

between East and West is narrowing. However, having the same sources of influence does not necessarily result in the same changes in the Nordic countries. Internationalization in its different forms depends not only on the degree and source of international influences but also on the receptive system itself, how it reacts to changes. This is dependent on the need for changes within the system, the willingness to be influenced by changes, the relative weight given to the system where the influences come from and internal factors. Therefore, the impact of direct Europeanization depends not only on whether the Nordic countries are part of the European Union, or rather part of the judicial cooperation, but also on how the national systems react at large.

Some questions become pressing in one system but are not interesting in another one. Oral evidence and oral hearings have not been a problem for the West Nordic countries, as they have a long tradition of common-law-like oral trials, but the East Nordic countries have had to change the way appellate courts work and the civil procedure at the appellate level. On the other hand, the West Nordic systems sometimes have difficulties as they have no administrative courts and administrative cases are included in general civil procedure.

Another factor in how Europeanization affects the Nordic legal systems is dependent on the national legal method. The European supranational legal systems are often based on pragmatic arguments and using principles as arguments. The western Nordic countries seem to be more receptive as the method and the idea of justice have been more tilted towards finding pragmatic solutions and case law has been given more weight as a source of law. The use of principles, rather than clear-cut rules, seems to be more compatible with the tradition of argumentation and the doctrines of western Nordic civil procedure.⁴⁴ However, the result is not necessarily greater differences, but rather making the systems more similar, as argumentation becomes more similar. Also, pragmatism is probably appealing to all Nordic systems as it is typical of Nordic society.

In spite of increasing Europeanization, Nordic cooperation within the field of civil procedure has not been reduced. There are still forums where Nordic civil procedure academics, legislators and judges meet, and a tradition of monitoring legal developments within civil procedure. The Nordic countries are still important for benchmarking and source for ideas when bills are drafted. Academics follow the discussion in the other countries, and dissertations usually have an overview of the situation in other Nordic countries, and they are expected to read literature from the other countries. The Nordic cooperation on different levels contributes to unity.

One important aspect of Europeanization is the bottom-up development, especially legal scholars cooperating to develop, approximate or compare national (and supranational or local) legal systems within civil procedure. So far, in the Nordic countries, there has not been an upsurge in interest for other European countries other than the English legal system after the Lord Woolf Reforms.⁴⁵ Academics

⁴⁴ Husa et al. (2007).

⁴⁵ Woolf (1996).

travel, take part in conferences and cooperation, but the effects on the legal thinking have been rather limited. One reason might be the language barrier or the lack of individual academics or government officials with thorough knowledge of European systems.⁴⁶ However, Nordic scholars have been influenced by the more principle oriented approach of the ECtHR, consequently principles have an increased weight in the discussion and many arguments are principle-driven. On a doctrinal level, the introduction of principles and discussion on small claims seem to be the primary areas of Europeanization. Academic interest in specific developments has varied, with little direct interest in many countries, to several doctoral thesis projects on Europeanization in Sweden.

Europeanization has clearly had some impact on Nordic civil procedure, but it is not possible to draw any conclusions yet. The legal method is changing as is also the idea of justice, norm production and conflict resolution. Still, it is too early to draw any direct conclusions on how far the changes will go. Additionally, changes in one area often trigger changes in another area; therefore, especially the professionalization of lawyers specializing in civil procedure and future judges might change. As many of the aspects of the Nordic civil procedure culture are changing concurrently, the result might be a more profound change of the entire system, a new era or paradigm for civil procedure.

The development will also depend on legislation and case law from the European supranational bodies. As judicial cooperation and the powers of EU within the field of civil procedure are new, it is difficult to predict how the EU will use its powers in the future and to what extent it can spark changes in the deeper structures of civil procedure, not just adding superficial changes to national legislation and organization of the courts and their services.

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⁴⁶ Sunde (2011), p. 18.

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Chapter 4

Between America and Europe: Does Geographical Location Affect the Legal Culture of Iceland?

Sigurður Tómas Magnússon and Katrín Oddsdóttir

Abstract The article provides an introduction to the historical foundation of the Icelandic legal system. Nordic influences are explained with reference to the settlement of Iceland and the countries cultural roots. Furthermore, American influences on Icelandic culture are outlined in effort to detect whether such influences have shaped the legal landscape of Iceland. Based on theories of comparative law, it is evident that the Icelandic legal system is similar to that of other Nordic countries and American influences are not prominent. Research suggests that American influence on the Icelandic legal system is mostly indirect, affecting Iceland through legislation of other Nordic countries. However, the Icelandic legal system differs in some ways from the criteria that have been used to define the members of the Nordic legal family. This applies, for example, in regard to judicial review and the role of laymen in the court system. When it comes to number of lawyers and law schools, Iceland however shows more similarity to the United States than Nordic countries. Outnumbering the Nordic countries in lawsuits, this also seems to be the case in regard to the trend of “judicialization”, which is greater in Iceland than in its neighboring countries.

4.1 Introduction

Lonely, Iceland rises in the North Atlantic Ocean roughly midway between Europe and America. Iceland’s notorious volcanic powers are due to the fact that the island is located on the ridge that marks the division of Earth’s tectonic plates heading on one hand to Europe and the other to North America. Symbolically, Iceland’s culture

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is in many ways also subject to influences from both continents. It therefore becomes an interesting challenge to take a look at Iceland's legal system and analyze what influences prevail on that front. However, the scope of this article does not allow us to delve deep into the subject but rather provide a rough sketch of a young republic at an interesting point in time with perspective to the past.

It is inevitable in such a research to shortly explain the history of Iceland's legal system as it sheds light on the foundations of that system. Also, such exploration gives an opportunity to study on which grounds American influences have entered the equation.

The question that we set out with is whether the Icelandic legal system is under much influence from the United States. In order to examine this, it is necessary to point out how the Icelandic legal system has been categorized by academics of comparative law. Building on Nordic roots and culture, it is not surprising that Iceland has been placed within the Nordic legal family. However it will be shown that Iceland does not fully confirm to the criteria which defines members of that family and possibly the distinction can to some extent be traced to American influences having more weight in Iceland than in the Scandinavian countries.

It is important to bear in mind that Iceland has a very small population of mere 330,000 people, which obscures comparison to other countries.

4.2 Short History of Iceland and Its Legal System

How does an anarchistic nation of recently arrived rebellious settlers maintain law and order on a deserted island located in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean? According to *Landnámabók* (The Book of the Settlement of Iceland),¹ around the 930 Icelanders decided to send a guy called *Úlfjótur*² to Norway to study law for about 3 years. On his return, he created a new customized legislation for Iceland based on the unwritten Norwegian legislation called *Gulatings law*. The Icelanders consequently went ahead and established *Althingi* in 930, which is said to be the oldest extant parliamentary institution in the world. *Úlfjótur* became the first Law Speaker (i. *lögsögumaður*), thereby becoming the only paid staff member of the parliament and the nation's only civil servant. The job description was rather hard core, whereas not only was the Law Speaker obliged to control the meetings of the Law Council (*Lögrétta*), which served as both a parliament and a supreme court at the time. He furthermore had to memorize the law of the land and rattle one-third of it off at each parliament meeting to a sometimes drunken audience. The location of the parliament was *Thingvellir*'s extravagant national park of unique nature where Earth's crust rips open, its plates heading on one hand to Europe and the other to America. Metaphorically, Iceland's legal tradition could have been ripped at the

¹ Porgilsson (1122–1133).

² Google translates his name as “Woolf-Ugly”, but the contextual meaning is “Woolf-Brigth”.

same seam, but as the history of the nation unfolded one side became more prominent.³

Iceland's commonwealth ages ranged from 930 to 1262. During that period, the nation had only legislative and judicial powers and painfully lacked the branch of executive power. Furthermore, there was no head of state. This meant trouble, serious trouble that indeed led to serious warfare. Eventually after escalating blood shaded spiral of revenge and power struggles, the period ended in the rather humiliating way of Icelanders asking the king of Norway to take over. The king happily approved to take the driver's seat, demanding taxation of Icelanders but instead promising to provide domestic legislation and peace enforcement to the nation's war-ridden people. Norwegian influence was therefore most prominent on Iceland's legal tradition at the start of the nation's legislative history, although Althingi remained a colegislator beside the Norwegian king.

Iceland remained part of a foreign kingdom for the next centuries. When Norway and Denmark were united in 1380, Iceland was seen as part of the package without significant effects to its legal system and constitutional order. However, when an absolute monarchy was established in 1660 in Denmark, the king sought similar powers over Iceland, which, despite some opposition, he managed to obtain in 1662. Thereby, a temporary end was put to domestic legislative powers in Iceland, whereas the king now had superior powers in all Icelandic matters, including legislative, judicial and executive powers. Althingi remained and kept on issuing bylaws, but slowly after the end of the seventeenth century it resided and the legislative powers of the king became absolute. The period that followed was a historic low point for Iceland, which became an oppressed and deprived colony of the Danes until waking up to demand its rights again in the nineteenth century.⁴

After decades of independence struggle, Iceland gained independence to a large extent in 1918. The Second World War furthermore became an important turning point. Iceland used the opportunity of Germany's occupation of Denmark to declare independence on more areas than before. Shortly afterwards, Britain occupied Iceland, and in 1941 the US took over the occupation, promising however to honor fully Iceland's demands of freedom and independence. Iceland's battle for sovereignty therefore rode the wave of international warfare. A long and troublesome journey came to an end on 17 June 1944, with the birth of the first Iceland independent democracy. Icelanders celebrate independence annually on that date, which is a national holyday.

Iceland joined the European Economic Area (EEA) in 1993. The EEA is an international agreement between the nations that form the European Union on one hand and the so-called EFTA nations (Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway) on the other. The agreement facilitates the EFTA nations to join the inner markets of the EU without becoming members of the Union and means that Icelandic legislation today is largely effected by European Union legislation.

³ Jóhannesson (1960), pp. 10–41.

⁴ Jóhannesson (1960), pp. 10–41.

The brief introduction to the Icelandic form of government above largely explains why throughout centuries Icelanders have implemented Nordic legislation on a large-scale basis, and now European legislation after joining the EEA. Whereas Iceland was part of Denmark for almost three centuries – Danish legal tradition became effective in Iceland. Furthermore, Icelanders gained legal education in Denmark for centuries, bringing home that tradition with the due effects. After Iceland's independence, Nordic influence remained and, despite shifting towards a European focus, still prevails. In addition, a very prominent influence was brought on Iceland's legal tradition on a constitutional level with the legal enforcement of the European Convention on Human Rights in 1994.

4.3 American Influence on the Icelandic Society

Let us go back roughly 1,000 years. Leif Ericson, a sturdy Icelandic Viking, sets out from his settlement in Greenland to find the hidden country he called Vinland (now commonly known as North America). Leif saw Vinland for the first time due to a typically random Icelandic fluke occasion, when he was blown off course on his way to introduce Christianity to Greenland.⁵ A short time later he decided to take a better look, and his voyage was a success (at least according to the Sagas written about 200 years later), making him the first European to reach America, nearly 500 years before Christopher Columbus ever placed so much as a toe on American shore. In the absence of GPS equipment, and despite Leif's nickname being "the lucky", he lost this Dreamland again, and the rest is virtually history. Due to this fact, we will now proceed to further explore events and factors that explain American influence on Icelandic society and legal system, rather than the other way around.

Throughout the centuries, Icelanders have, like so many other nationals, immigrated to America in hope of a better life. The most extensive emigrations happened between 1870 and 1914, when more than 15,000 Icelanders became immigrants in Canada and the United States, due to terrible conditions in Iceland at the time, when natural disasters and plagues devastated the nation. The emigration constituted for 20 % of the Icelandic nation at the time. These people started new lives in the West despite holding on to their mother tongue for roughly two generations. The proportional number of Icelanders living in Canada and the USA were great and the ties to the homeland therefore strong. A plausible argument could therefore be made for legal theory reaching Iceland from the West on the basis of this emigrant population that could have influenced the legal culture in Iceland.

Another large factor to notice when speculating on American effects on Icelandic society is the fact the US had a military base in Iceland from 1941 to 2006.

⁵ According to The Saga of Erik the Red (i. Eiríks sögu rauða). Unknown writer. http://sagadb.org/eiriks_saga_rauda.en.

This began with the Yankees taking over what in 1940 had been a British occupation of Iceland, which was considered important in the Second World War due to the island's geographical position. At the peak of their occupation, the British had around 25,000 troops stationed in Iceland. In July 1941, responsibility for Iceland's defense passed to the United States under a defense agreement. Up to 40,000 US soldiers were consequently stationed in Iceland. At the time, Iceland had a population of around 120,000. The Allied occupation of Iceland would last throughout the war.⁶

Most of the soldiers left after the war ended, leaving a cultural trail of chewing gum, nylon stockings and the occasional descendant. Iceland would however be forever changed, dragged out of its muddled cabins and into modernity in what seemed like a flash. The extreme makeover was not to everybody's liking but a fact nevertheless.

American army took back the defense of Iceland during the Cold War in 1951 after Iceland had joined NATO. Protests against the presence of a US military base annually took place, and the base was finally removed as late as in 2006. During the last decades, the presence of the US soldiers in Iceland was more symbolic than anything else, portraying the fact that the United States had taken on responsibility for Iceland's defenses.⁷

The cultural influence of the US army in Iceland was significant. Rock'n'roll for the first time hit the rocky shores of Iceland.⁸ Radio broadcasts from the US base could be heard throughout the Southwest part of the country with the foreseeable admiration of the younger generation and disgust of the older. The first ever television broadcast in Iceland was made from the US base in Keflavik in 1955, received only by the neighboring towns. Almost all of the material was American and therefore in English language. The strength of the TV transmission was increased in 1962, and at that stage the people of Reykjavík, the capital of Iceland, could also view the material in question. This broadcast sparked great disputes in Iceland, leading to the accelerated establishment of the Icelandic Public Service Broadcasting Television.⁹ It is undoubted that the US radio and television broadcasting had a significant cultural impact on Iceland, noticeable still to this day where English-speaking materials are still, by far, the most prominent part of the TV programs offered by Icelandic TV channels. On that note, it must be accepted that Icelandic is only spoken by roughly 300,000 people, which makes the production of local materials costly. It is a well-known fact that American movies and TV programs have had a significant and long-lasting cultural impact on Iceland, which can be witnessed in most inhabitants speaking English as their second language. The educational system endorsed this fact few years ago by swapping Danish as a formal second language for English (see Table 4.1).

⁶ Kjartansson (2002), pp. 213–215.

⁷ Kjartansson (2002), pp. 275–283.

⁸ Guðmundsdóttir and Guðmundsson (2008), pp. 23–24.

⁹ Kjartansson (2002), p. 281.

Table 4.1 Origin of TV programs in state-run TV stations (public service) in the Nordic countries^a

Country (year)	TV stations	Domestic (%)	Nordic (%)	Europa (%)	N America (%)	Others (%)
Finland (2007)	YLE TV1	60	2	29	8	–
	YLE	59	1	21	16	3
Iceland (2008)	RUV	46	6	17	29	2
Norway (2006)	NRK 1, 2	57	3	23	15	2
Sweden (2008)	SVT 1, 2	63	4	18	11	4

^aKarlsson (2010), p. 232

American influence can be witnessed through more aspects than broadcasted material. Traditional food of sheep faces and rotten shark has slowly been swapped for pizzas and burgers throughout the decades. Iceland, being colonized by Denmark until 1944, used to rely heavily on Danish cuisine, but those influences have mostly been wiped out, and a more postmodern intercultural food is now offered by Reykjavik's fusion restaurants. The prominent popularity of American fast food seems, however, to be more noticeable in Iceland than other Scandinavian countries.

4.4 The Nordic Legal Family

Comparativists have, for a long time, divided the world's countries to groups or families based on the main characteristics of law and judicial systems. This effort by scholars of comparative law serves the purpose of categorizing the judicial systems of the world, based on their defining features, in order for us to achieve better understanding of the underlying factors of our national system, as well as the system of other countries.

Many attempts have been made to create the ultimate system of such groupings. Esmein divided the legal world into the Romanistic, Germanic, Anglo-Saxon, Slav and Islamic families. Later, Arminjon, Nolde and Wolf divided the legal world into French, German, Scandinavian, English, Russian, Islamic and Hindu families.¹⁰

In traditional comparative law textbooks, the Nordic legal family has been classified as a special legal family within the civil law.¹¹ In some classifications, the other three families in the Western (Euro-American) legal group are the common law family, the Latin group and Central Continental group (with a German and a Romanistic subgroup). However, there are some links between the Latin and Central Continental groups. Furthermore, some hybrid systems exist that are connected both with the Continental and the common law families.¹² Bernitz has

¹⁰ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 64.

¹¹ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 285.

¹² Malmström (1969), pp. 147–8.

pointed out that some academics find the Nordic legal system to have far more similarities with the legal systems of Continental Europe than those belonging to the common law family.¹³

In categorizing the legal systems of the world to such legal families or legal styles, many different factors have been taken into consideration, depending on the time of categorization and the point of view or elements which it is based on. Generally, in constructing such categorization, the goal is to spot the differences between legal systems, where only important or essential differentiating qualities are used as hallmarks. In an introduction to comparative law, the following factors are meant to be those that are crucial to the style of a legal system or legal family: “(1) Its historical background and development, (2) its predominant an characteristic mode of thought in legal matters, (3) especially distinctive institutions, (4) the kind of legal sources it acknowledges and the way it handles them, and (5) its ideology.”¹⁴

Based on the aforementioned factors, it is possible to estimate which legal systems can be categorized as a family and which ones are more distant relatives. It is quite acknowledged among scholars of this field that the Nordic legal systems have so many factors in common and is differentiated to such a large extent from other systems that they should be considered either as a subgroup of civil law family or as a legal family of its own.¹⁵

In this context, Bernitz has noted that the center of attention has been focused on cooperation in the preparation of new Nordic legislation, which despite paramount importance does not provide the whole picture.¹⁶ The aspect that Bernitz considers of most importance for the scope of legal similarity between countries is “the degree of congruity between the fundamental premises of their legal theory, consistency in the formation of their basic legal concepts, affinity in their methodology of codification, the doctrine of precedent, the working of the courts and the choice of the sources of law”. Bernitz’s conclusion is that “viewed in this way, the Nordic countries are remarkably similar to each other as regards the fundamental perception of the legal systems, its design, methodology and basic principles”.¹⁷

In comparing the legal systems of different countries, world regions or even the world as a whole, the risk of a superficial research of single countries becomes evident. This risk entails that the categorization of legal systems does not build on precise research and comparison of each country but rather on general conclusions based on the country’s geographical location and the external features of its legal system. It therefore can be necessary to research the foundation of each legal system in more detail, whereas the legislation and its execution in certain fields can be

¹³ Bernitz (2007), pp. 18–19.

¹⁴ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 68.

¹⁵ Bernitz (2007), p. 15.

¹⁶ Bernitz (2007), p. 17.

¹⁷ Bernitz (2007), pp. 17–18.

modeled on different precedents that even might originate from different legal systems. In comparative law, the legal systems that are not easily located in certain legal family can be categorized as a hybrid systems of law.¹⁸ Legislation and judicial execution in certain countries can change rapidly, making former categorization obsolete. An example of this could be increased international cooperation and collaboration, i.e. of the European Union, which has possibly disturbed older categorization concerning the legal systems of Europe.

As stated above, academics have used different defining factors in comparing legal systems, thereby reaching different conclusion in regard to the relationship between those systems. Furthermore, they have used different concepts for the defining factors of the systems. In this effect, Zweigert and Kötz use the concept of styles of “legal systems”,¹⁹ Bernitz speaks of “legal similarities”,²⁰ while Smits uses phrases like “unique features” or “general characteristics” of legal systems.²¹ All these concepts have been used to define the common grounds of Nordic legal systems, as well as the aspects that differentiate them from the systems of other countries.

In the recent past, some scholars in the field of comparative law have criticized the traditional categorization of legal systems into legal families and have rather chosen to address the systems from the point of legal cultures. Along those lines, Roger Cotterrell has maintained that the idea of legal culture has tended to replace the old comparative law concept of “legal families”, making the older system of categorization a failed attempt in recognizing the cultural complexity of today’s legal world. He considers a dialogue based on the concept of legal culture more successful in outlining the “broad difference and points of comparison between European legal systems”,²² whereas the “legal culture literature is concerned also with differences in the assumptions, perceptions, feelings and expectations about law and legal practice that exists in different contexts”.²³

We agree with Bernitz when he states that legal similarity between the Nordic countries have been taken for granted even though it has been sparingly researched and analyzed.²⁴ We feel this particularly applies to the Icelandic legal system, which has not been researched thoroughly from the perspective of comparative law. Furthermore, the little that has been written about the Icelandic system has almost entirely been written in Icelandic language only. The Icelandic nation is small in number, and very few people of other nationalities understand the Icelandic language. Therefore, it can be concluded that scholars outside of Iceland have limited access and opportunities to execute a concrete comparison on the judicial execution in Iceland on one hand and the other Nordic countries on the other. Despite this

¹⁸ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 72.

¹⁹ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 67.

²⁰ Bernitz (2007), p. 17.

²¹ Smits (2007), pp. 1–2.

²² Cotterrell (2008), p. 5.

²³ Cotterrell (2008), p. 5.

²⁴ Bernitz (2007), p. 17.

obstacle, they have not hesitated to locate Iceland within the Nordic legal family. In Chap. 15, we will seek to answer the question whether the Icelandic legal system is an ideal member of the Nordic legal family, considering the criteria for such classification.

4.5 General Characteristics of Icelandic Legal System in Nordic Context

In this chapter, we will explore which factors are considered to characterize the Nordic legal systems and what makes those systems differ from other legal systems. Relying heavily on the works of Smits, in regard to the characterizing factors, we will explore whether the Icelandic legal system matches the characteristics of the Nordic legal systems when explored from the fields of civil procedure and judicial practices.

Smits considers the Nordic legal systems to have the same general characteristics, although he points out the differences between a West Scandinavian and an East Scandinavian group. Denmark, Norway and Iceland are usually considered members of the first group but Sweden and Finland of the second.

Smits states that Nordic law has four different features in common: (1) *law as a tool for social engineering*, (2) *the legitimacy of lawmaking in Scandinavia*, (3) *pragmatism* and (4) *Nordic legal cooperation*.²⁵ It will now be explored whether the Icelandic legal system truly bears those four characteristics, thereby examining whether it should constitute for an ideal member of the Nordic legal family.

4.5.1 Law as a Tool for Social Engineering

Generally, it can be concluded that in Iceland the Nordic influence is quite prominent in regard to the use of law as a tool to achieve social purposes. This seems to be more evident when left wing authorities are in power. Clear example of this can be found in the reasoning put forward in support of Act No. 128 from 2009, which facilitated temporary income tax to be collected during the reign of a left wing government. In the accompanying documents to the Act, it is explained that "... it is obvious that parties that have accumulated a lot of assets in the recent years have enjoyed low taxation of capital gains as well as other favourable taxation rules. They have enjoyed decreased taxation while the general public has shouldered heavier burden. Because of this i.e. it is not considered unnatural that in the current conditions the tax burden of this group should be increased to a certain extent".²⁶

²⁵ Smits (2007), pp. 2–3.

²⁶ The reasoning can be found on the website of the Icelandic Parliament: <http://www.althingi.is/> (our translation).

This example shows that law is indeed used as a tool for social engineering in Iceland at times.

4.5.2 *The Legitimacy of Lawmaking in Scandinavia*

Smits maintains that in comparison with other countries, the Nordic legal tradition grants primary role to the citizen in lawmaking. As an example of this, he mentions on one hand the substantial role of parliament in the making of statutes. On that ground, he claims that in the Nordic countries it is difficult to attack a statute of Parliament on the basis of it not conforming to the Constitution. On the other hand, he mentions the large role of laymen in the court system.

In regard to the courts' power to judge on the constitutional validity of statutory law, judicial review, it is impossible to agree with Smits' conclusions that suggest that in all the Nordic countries it is difficult to bring cases before the courts to rule on whether a certain law is constitutional or not. There, Smits seems to project information he has obtained on Sweden and Finland, and perhaps Denmark, on all the Nordic countries. The same understanding can be detected in the writings of Ran Hirschl on the judicial review in the Nordic countries. He concludes by generalizing based on examination of the judicial procedures in Sweden, Finland and Denmark that deference to the legislature, side by side with administrative review on procedural grounds, characterized Nordic judicial review for most of the last century.²⁷ He also claims that during the last few decades, the traditional reluctance vis-à-vis judicial review has come under attack.²⁸ The statements of Smits and Ran Hirschl indicate that neither of them seems to have examined judicial review in Iceland in detail.

In her doctoral thesis, Professor Ragnhildur Helgadóttir examined the influence of American law and theories of judicial review on the development of judicial review in Norway, Denmark and Iceland.²⁹ Her conclusions suggest that impetus for discussing and adopting American theories of judicial review came from Norway, later followed by Denmark and Iceland.³⁰ In all three countries, the Supreme Court has for a long time acknowledged its power to exercise judicial review. The Norwegian Supreme Court first invalidated statutory provision in 1866; the Icelandic Supreme Court first preformed such an act in 1943 and the Danish Supreme Court in 1971.³¹ In Norway and Iceland, it has happened frequently since

²⁷ Hirschl (2011), p. 451.

²⁸ Hirschl (2011), pp. 450–451.

²⁹ Helgadóttir (2006), p. 1.

³⁰ Helgadóttir (2006), p. 250.

³¹ Helgadóttir (2006), p. 1.

then but relatively rarely in Denmark. In Iceland, matters have developed in such a manner that in the last decades there has been little obstacle for Icelandic courts to rule out statutory law on the ground of clashing with the Constitution.³² In our understanding, it is not very difficult to obtain such judicial review in Norway and certainly not in Iceland either. In that way, the legal systems of Norway and specially Iceland differ from that of the other Nordic countries.

The Icelandic legal system is also different from other Nordic legal systems regarding the role of laymen in the court system. Contrary to the court system of Norway, Denmark, and Sweden, laymen, or the public, play virtually no role in Iceland's court system. There is almost no democratic public participation in the court system, no jury and no lay judges. However, additional expert judges are widely used in cases where other expertise than legal is needed. No Nordic legal harmony therefore exists in that field.

4.5.3 Pragmatism

In the field of comparative law, pragmatism has been considered to be one of the defining factors of Nordic legal systems. This has been considered to apply to legal science, legal reasoning and the drafting of statutes.³³ Icelandic academics generally seem to approach legal science in a practical way similar to legal scholars in other Nordic countries. We however note that there seems to be an increased emphasis on formalism with the Icelandic courts for the past years in Iceland. An example of this might be the increased proportion of court cases being dismissed without a final decision on the actual content of the dispute in question. The ratio of cases that were dismissed on grounds of procedural defects by the Supreme Court was 6.6 % on average during the period of 2004–2007 but had increased to 11.1 % in the period 2008–2011.³⁴

Icelandic legal reasoning and the style of drafting statutes are quite similar to the Danish style, which has to be easily understandable due to the fact that Icelandic lawyers were educated in Denmark for centuries, as has been explained in earlier chapters, thereby importing legal traditions from there.

In simple terms, it can be concluded that the Icelandic legal system does conform to the defining factor of Nordic pragmatism.

³² See, for example, [Icelandic Supreme Court decisions](http://haestirettur.is/) in case numbers 499/2002, 549/2002, 220/2005, 600/2011 and 464/2012, accessible in Icelandic language on the court's website: <http://haestirettur.is/>.

³³ Smits (2007), p. 11.

³⁴ These numbers are based on information obtained from the official website of the Icelandic Supreme Court: <http://haestirettur.is/>.

4.5.4 Nordic Legal Cooperation

Nordic legal cooperation has a long tradition. This cooperation of free nations advancing their legal matters together in good faith is considered unique in global context. Due to its success, this working method has been used as a model for legal coordination in Europe.

Zweigert and Kötz have listed some factors that they consider to have encouraged this fertile cooperation. Some of those factors can apply to all the countries in question such as similar historical development, very close cultural links, no serious political differences and all the countries being perched on the edge of Europe.³⁵ The last factor applies formidably to Iceland, surrounded by the North Atlantic Ocean. The other factors that the authors mention do, however, not apply to Iceland. They argue that what facilitated cooperation of the Nordic countries was the fact that their population and economic power were approximately equivalent. This certainly applies to the other four Nordic countries in question but not to the minuscule population of Iceland, which only accounts for roughly 3–6 % of the population of the other Nordic countries and has economic strength in accordance to that proportion. Finland and Iceland are furthermore different in the way that their national languages cannot be used during the Nordic cooperation. The Finnish language is from another language family altogether, and although Icelandic is related to Danish, Norwegian and Swedish it cannot be understood by those nationals at all, excluding the odd eccentric nerd who has learnt the language, probably in order to familiarize himself with the heritage of the Icelandic sagas. Icelandic lawyers therefore have to communicate with other Scandinavian lawyers in Danish, and Finnish lawyers have to communicate in Swedish, that is, in the languages of the nations they were once colonized by which therefor is taught in the local schools. English is however slowly taking over in the Nordic cooperation, although the people in field of law have attempted to resist that change.

Despite unique position in regard to the Nordic cooperation, Iceland has probably gained more from this cooperation than any of the other countries. The strongest reasons for this being the small size of the population and the fact that a small nation does not have as many good specialists in the different fields of law as its big brothers, thereby making the Nordic legal cooperation vital to Iceland throughout the ages. For a long time, Iceland took it a step further, not only building on Nordic legal cooperation but also looking to Denmark and Norway for precise models of legislation in the same manner as the Finns sought their examples from Sweden.

Despite Nordic cooperation still flourishing, its importance in the field of legislation has decreased considerably with the entering of Denmark, Sweden and Finland into the European Union, as well as the EEA contract of Iceland and Norway, which led to a large part of the European Union's legislation being implemented in Iceland and Norway.

³⁵ Zweigert and Kötz (1998), p. 284.

4.6 Are American Influences Traceable in the Icelandic Legal System?

Given the geographical location of the country, and a large US military base in Iceland for decades, it can be assumed that American influence would be apparent in the Icelandic legal culture. But is it so?

As has been traced above, the Icelandic legal system has most of the defining factors in common with the other Nordic countries' legal systems. Also, it has been explained above that American influence is somewhat more prominent in Iceland than in the other Nordic countries. This begs the interesting question on whether direct or indirect American influences can be found in Iceland's legal system and, if so, how they are manifested.

4.6.1 *Direct Influence on Legislation and Court Decisions*

Despite being part of the state of Denmark until 1918, Iceland got its first Constitution in 1874. Based on the Danish Constitution, this Constitution was updated in accordance with the increased independence of Iceland. The current Constitution from 1944 is still largely based on the first Constitution. However, it has been subject to some change, e.g., in regard to the updating of the human rights chapter and some adjustments to the chapters on parliamentary elections. Little else has changed so far despite numerous attempts by different parties throughout the decades.

As was stated earlier, Professor Ragnhildur Helgadóttir studied the influence of American theories on judicial review in Nordic constitutional law, especially Icelandic, Danish and Norwegian constitutional laws. Her results were in brief that American precedent and ideas of American scholars have had a major impact on the development of judicial review in Denmark and especially Norway in late nineteenth and early twentieth century legal practice. However, similar ideas about judicial review seem to have reached Iceland only from Denmark and Norway but not from the United States. American impact on Icelandic legal culture in this field seems to be only indirect.³⁶

Our research left us with no examples about United States legislation being used as a direct model for Icelandic legislation. In only few instances, United States legislation appears to be referred to in notes to legislative proposals by the Icelandic Parliament. However, many examples could be found of indirect influence of United States legislation and case law in Icelandic legislation, for example in the field of competition law and legislation of capital markets, accounting and auditing.

³⁶ Helgadóttir (2006), pp. 99–101 and p. 250.

A study of the judgments of the Icelandic Supreme Court revealed that the Court has not referred to the United States Supreme Court rulings, directly or indirectly.

A small nation needs to survive with a simpler legal system and judiciary procedures than its larger counterparts. It is therefore perfectly understandable that a micronation such as Iceland does not model its legal system on the most powerful state in the world.

4.6.2 Interest in Law: Number of Advocates

Interest in law and legal studies has always been prominent in Iceland. Some of the ancient Icelandic sagas, e.g. *Brennu-Njálssaga* (e. The Story of Burnt Njal),³⁷ are largely devoted to legal disputes and litigation. Icelanders have always been argumentative and stubborn. To this effect, there have been proportionally more court cases at the first instance in Iceland per capita than in the other Nordic countries. This is as high as three times the number in Sweden and five times more than Norway, based on statistics from 2009.³⁸

Influences from American movies and TV programs about crimes and attorneys are rather difficult to measure. In Iceland, we can clearly see that the media is more interested in court cases than before and attorneys are more prominent in the media than before. We can also see more emphasis on procedural defects than content than before, which could be due to US influence.

Whether it is due to the influences of American movies or TV series or linked to other causes, it is clear that law has more attractions for young people in Iceland than it did before. Each autumn, around 4–500 freshmen start a university degree in law in Iceland, less than half of which will manage to finish such degree. Annually, about 4–5,000 children are born in Iceland, which roughly means, building on the current ratio, that around 10 % of them will later enlist in legal studies. That has to be considered an unusually high number.

In regard to the number of law faculties in the Nordic countries, Iceland again is the odd one out. There are seven such faculties in Sweden, four in Denmark and three in both Norway and Finland. In Iceland, there are four such faculties currently. This means that in Iceland there is one law school for every 80,000 residents, but in the other Nordic countries there is one such school for approximately 1.4 million residents, which is actually similar to the ratio in the United States.³⁹

For a long while, there were relatively few lawyers in Iceland per capita. In accordance with the great and increasing interest in law in Iceland, the number of lawyers has increased significantly.

³⁷ See English translation of *The Story of Burnt Njal* (i. *Brennu-Njálssaga*) at <http://sagadb.org/>.

³⁸ Magnússon (2011), p. 182.

³⁹ See information on the website “The Law school tuition bubble”: <http://lawschooltuitionbubble.wordpress.com/>.

Despite the number of lawyers being higher than the number of legal advocates, the earlier does give an interesting clue about the status of legal practices in each country.

In the year 2000, the members of the Icelandic Bar Association were 529, but at the end of 2012 they had become 1,002, thereby increasing by 90 % in number over the period in question.

The table below contains information on the number of lawyers in the Nordic countries, the United States and some of the individual states in the United States. The table furthermore shows the number of inhabitants per active advocate. The data refers to the number of inhabitants in each country or state and the number of active advocates in the bar association of each place at the end of the year 2011, according to information from the bar association in each country or state.⁴⁰ These numbers are considered rather reliable in the context of active lawyers at the Nordic countries, whereas there is an obligatory membership in bar associations in all those countries, apart from Norway.⁴¹ The number of advocates (attorneys) in the United States might be underestimated because in some states membership to the state bar association is optional but in other, such as Wisconsin, the state bar is a mandatory professional association. It must be stated that deviations might occur due to different entry conditions to bar associations in each country (see Table 4.2, Fig. 4.1).

Despite possible deviations, the numbers in the table and bar chart above clearly indicate a huge difference in numbers, whereas in Iceland there seem to be around four times more active lawyers per capita than on average in the other Nordic countries. According to the data, there was one active advocate for each 350 inhabitants in Iceland, whereas the corresponding number was 1,400 on average in the Nordic countries. It is interesting to compare the numbers of active lawyers in the Nordic countries with two states in the USA that have approximately similar sized populations as the other Nordic countries. Furthermore, a comparison can be made to states that have the largest populations in the US. In general, there are around five times more inhabitants per lawyer in the Nordic countries than are in the United States. The number per capita is however similar in Iceland and North Dakota and

⁴⁰ See websites of the Bar Association of Iceland: <http://www.lmfi.is/>.
 Denmark <http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/Service/English.aspx>.
 Finland <http://www.asianajajaliitto.fi/english>.
 Norway http://www.advokatforeningen.no/_funksjonsmeny/English/.
 Sweden <http://www.advokatsamfundet.se/Advokatsamfundet-engelska/Home/>.
 United States: <http://www.americanbar.org/aba.html>.
 California <http://www.calbar.ca.gov/>.
 New York <http://www.nysba.org/>.
 Massachusetts <http://www.massbar.org/for-the-public/need-a-lawyer>.
 Wisconsin <http://www.wisbar.org/Pages/default.aspx>.
 North Dakota <http://www.sband.org/>.
 Wyoming: <http://www.wyomingbar.org/>.

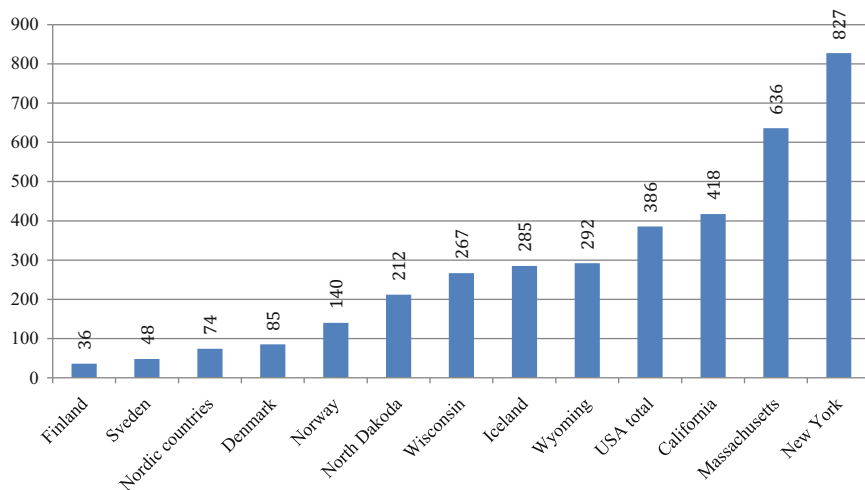
⁴¹ See Dolva (2005), pp. 26–27.

Table 4.2 Comparison of the number of active advocates in the Nordic countries and the United States 2011

Country/state	Residents	Active advocates ^a	Number of residents per active advocate
Denmark	5,580,516	4,750	1,175
Finland	5,401,267	1,942	2,781
Iceland	319,575	912	350
Norway	4,985,870	6,278 ^b	794
Sweden	9,482,855	4,550	2,084
Nordic countries	25,770,083	18,432	1,398
California	37,691,912	157,388	239
New York	19,465,197	161,031	121
Massachusetts	6,587,536	41,920	157
Wisconsin	5,711,767	15,252	374
North Dakota	683,932	1,448	472
Wyoming	568,158	1,658	343
US total	311,591,917	1,201,968	259

^aIn information on membership for Bar Associations of the Nordic countries and the US, a difference is made between active advocates and those who are not. The table only shows active members. In the US, there seems to be less strict entry conditions to the Bar Associations than in the European countries, which might obscure the numbers in the table to some extent

^bAccording to information on Norwegian Bar Association website (<http://www.advokatforeningen.no/>), 90 % of advocates in Norway are members of the association. The number of active advocates is therefore probably 10 % larger than what the table above indicates

**Fig. 4.1** Comparison of the number of active advocates in the Nordic countries and the United States in 2011 per 100,000 residents

Wyoming, which are the states that have the most similar-sized population to Iceland, or less than million inhabitants.

Despite the number of active advocates per capita being similar in Iceland and the United States, the increase in the profession happened much earlier in the States. In 1947–48, there was one lawyer per 790 inhabitants in the United States; in 1970–1971, the number of lawyers increased to 572 inhabitants per lawyer. By 1980–1981, the number was 418, reaching 320 in 1990–91.⁴² In 2011, the number was up to 259 inhabitants per active lawyer. In Iceland, there was one lawyer per 527 inhabitants in 2000, but 11 years later that number was one per 350 inhabitants. The development of number of lawyers in Iceland seems to be heading in the same direction as in the United States, although 20–30 years later.

It can be concluded from the above that in regard to the number of law students, number of law schools and ration of active lawyers, Iceland is more similar to the United States than to the other Nordic countries.

4.6.3 *Judicialization*

For the past years, academics have widely discussed the concept of judicialization in connection with the increased role and influence of rule of law and courts in the social structure. Hirschl suggests that Nordic countries have traditionally been agnostic, at best toward American-style high-voltage constitutionalism, rights talk, and judicial activism.⁴³ In other words, toward judicialization, which is considered to be predominantly an American trend. This concept has, i.e., been used in connection with judicial review and the borders of power between the court system on one hand and other branches of authorities on the other. It has been maintained that the courts have increasingly been entrusted with political decision making or what was formally considered to be political decisions.⁴⁴ Ran Hirschl has advanced the concept of judicialization of megapolitics and explained it “as the transfer of matters of utmost political significance defining and dividing the entire nation to the courts”. He maintains that despite the increasing prevalence of rights jurisprudence in Nordic countries, no judicialization of that caliber has taken place there.

At each time, holders of legislative and executive powers can choose their course and tasks, which are normally general and directed towards the future. The courts however don't choose the matters they are assigned to solve but must nevertheless reach a decision in those matters. Such decisions can have a general effect. Hirschl suggests that politicians have willingly given the courts the task to settle disputes in

⁴² See American Bar Association 1992. Report of The task force on Law schools and the Profession. Legal Education and professional development, p. 15. <http://www.americanbar.org/>.

⁴³ Hirschl (2011), p. 450.

⁴⁴ Tate (1995), pp. 27–37.

new areas, thereby making decisions that earlier would have been considered part of the field and responsibility of the politicians. This he thinks politicians have done in the purpose of: reducing risk to themselves by shifting responsibility upon the courts, to avoid difficult decisions or collapse of the coalition government, obstruction to implementing their own policy agenda, threat to losing control over policy-making processes or by the political opposition to harass and obstruct governments.

Hirschl believes that the relative size of the legal profession may be viewed as a proxy of judicialization. He points out that lawyers in Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden are proportionally much fewer than in most other OECD countries and significantly fewer than, e.g., in the United States and Israel. He also notes that there are few law schools in the Nordic countries.⁴⁵

As was stated in Sect. 16.1, the number of active lawyers and law schools per capital is significantly higher in Iceland than in the other Nordic countries and much more in line with the numbers in the United States. The number of civil action at the first occasion has also been manifold more in Iceland than in the other Nordic countries.

According to Hirschl's definitions and theory, there are therefore certain aspects that suggest that Iceland deviates from the other Nordic countries in regard to judicialization, regardless of whether that is a good or a bad thing.

As has been stated, the courts in Iceland have gone further than those of the other Nordic countries in regard to judicial review. The political landscape after the collapse of the Icelandic banking system in 2008 seems to have led to authorities dodging decision making in difficult cases, leaving it to the courts to decide how to solve tough political disputes. This does, for example, apply to the dispute in regard to the legitimacy of loans that were linked to foreign currency. After the economic collapse of 2008, the value of the Icelandic krona decreased so significantly that debtors, with income in Icelandic kronas, experienced considerable difficulty in regard to such loans. Instead of the politicians making the arrangements necessary to face that problem, Icelandic courts have had to tackle many cases where the legitimacy of such loans has been tested.⁴⁶

Despite it being clear that the Icelandic legal system has most of the defining characteristics of the Nordic legal systems, it can also be noted that Iceland has gone further than the other Nordic countries in regard to judicial review and judicialization. Therefore, it could be argued that as time progresses it is leaning closer towards the United States than the other Nordic countries.

⁴⁵ Hirschl (2011), p. 468.

⁴⁶ See judgment of the Icelandic Supreme court in case numbers 604/2010, 30/2011 and 155/2011. Available in Icelandic on the court's website: <http://haestirettur.is/>.

4.7 Conclusions

At the beginning of this article, the question was posed whether the geographical position of Iceland between Europe and America would have affected the country's legal culture.

Our research, which is far from exhaustive, indicates that the system and judicial procedures of Iceland mostly adhere to the distinctive features of the Nordic legal systems. Insignificant direct influence from the US can be detected in Icelandic legal landscape. The common historical origin, related languages, and cultural and political ties with the Nordic countries, and later Europe, have throughout the ages simply had more impact on Iceland than its geographical location. Despite many scholars categorizing Iceland as a member of the Nordic legal family, there are some elements to the Icelandic legal system that do not completely fit the criteria but being underresearched that has not surfaced clearly in earlier academic writings.

The ways in which the Icelandic legal system is differentiated from the other Nordic countries will rather be explained with reference to the small population of Iceland than there being more prominent US influence in Iceland than the other Nordic nations. Indirect American influences can nevertheless be detected in Iceland, but it can be concluded that those have been introduced via European and Nordic canals rather than straight from North America. An example of such influences is the idea of judicial review, which seems to have arrived in the Icelandic legal system from the United States via Denmark and Norway. Another example would be influences in competition law and legislation designed to regulate capital markets, which have been brought into Icelandic law from European Union legislation.

Strong cultural influences from the United States on Iceland can be detected. This could be due to the geographical location and the fact that a US military base was located in Iceland for decades. The influences, which might have been obtained, *inter alia*, through music, movies and TV material, seem to have had more effect on Iceland than on the other Nordic countries. This could likely explain the huge interest among Icelandic youngsters in law, the high number of law schools and the large and growing number of advocates in Iceland. This could furthermore explain higher level of judicialization in Iceland than in the other Nordic countries. To this extent, mild influences from the West can be detected.

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Websites of Bar Associations

California: <http://www.calbar.ca.gov/>

Denmark: <http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/Service/English.aspx>

Finland: <http://www.asianajajaliitto.fi/english>

Iceland: <http://www.lmfi.is/>

Massachusetts: <http://www.massbar.org/for-the-public/need-a-lawyer>

New York: <http://www.nysba.org/>

North Dakota: <http://www.sband.org/>

Norway: http://www.advokatforeningen.no/_/funksjonsmeny/English/

Sweden: <http://www.advokatsamfundet.se/Advokatsamfundet-engelska/Home/>

United States: <http://www.americanbar.org/aba.html>

Wisconsin: <http://www.wisbar.org/Pages/default.aspx>

Wyoming: <http://www.wyomingbar.org/>

Part II
Mediation and the Role of Courts

Chapter 5

In-Court Mediation in Germany: A Basic Function of the Judiciary

Jan Malte von Bargaen

Abstract Effective use of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) systems requires that you find the procedure best suitable for the case at hand. This contribution focuses on in-court mediation models. The author attempts to explain why German, and also other European courts show increased interest in experimenting with in-court mediation models. Afterwards, thoughts about the importance of establishing both in-court and out-of-court mediation systems follow. The last part concentrates on the constitutional framework German in-court mediation models operate within these days following the adoption of the *Mediationsförderungsgesetz*, or Mediation Advancement Statute, which permits and regulates this special form of mediation in the procedural codes of most courts. The author identifies mediation by a judge who is not allowed to decide on the merits of the case to be a part of the judiciary as a state function and argues that it is not only an annex but a basic function of the judicial power. The qualification of this special mediation setting as an integral part of the judicial power allows mediator judges to profit from special regulations applying only to judges, such as judicial independence, among other things.

5.1 Introduction

Finally, on 28 June 2012, the German parliament adopted the *Gesetz zur Förderung der Mediation und anderer Verfahren der außergerichtlichen Konfliktbeilegung* of 21 July 2013¹ (Statute to advance mediation and other procedures of alternative

¹ The German president signed the statute at this date.

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dispute resolution; *Mediationsförderungsgesetz*/Mediation Advancement Statute), which passed the German Senate (*Bundesrat*) on 29 June 2012 and came into force on 26 July 2012.² Included in this statute is the *Mediationsgesetz*, basically importing all the requirements asked by the Directive 2008/52/EC of the European Parliament and the Council on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters. Other significant changes are related to the future use of in-court mediation³ models in most of the procedural codes, first and foremost the Civil Procedure Code (*Zivilprozessordnung*, ZPO); see, e.g., §278 Sec. 5 or §278a.⁴ Germany finally managed to fulfil its obligations more than a year after the deadline set in the directive. The reasons for the delay were not to be found in the regulations of the *Mediationsgesetz* itself; it was the general future of the statewide practiced in-court mediation models⁵ that were mainly responsible for the delay. For a long time, it was unsure if the successful model projects would be set on a solid legal basis or if they would explicitly be forbidden by the legislator. The proposed solutions went back and forth from allowing to banning in-court mediation during the different stages of the process of legislation. It seemed like the directive intended to foster mediation was averting the further development of in-court mediation. Not until a very late intervention of the *Bundesrat* (Senate) interested in solidifying the established models of in-court mediation at state courts led to the adopted formulation, now explicitly allowing in-court mediation under the new label: *Güterichter*. But even after this, decision in favour of in-court mediation discussions did not hush. Questions of what is allowed and what is not are still intensively discussed.⁶ The article tries to describe the situation and give reasons why courts continue their keen interest in in-court mediation.

² Article 9 of the *Mediationsförderungsgesetz* states the date of effect at the day after the statute is published in the *Bundesgesetzblatt* 2012, Part I, No. 35 of 25 July 2012, p. 1577ff, to be found at [http://www.bgbl.de/Xaver/start.xav?startbk=Bundesanzeiger_BGBI#_Bundesanzeiger_BGBI_%2F%2F*\[%40attr_id%3D%27bgbl112s1577.pdf%27\]__1374613606308](http://www.bgbl.de/Xaver/start.xav?startbk=Bundesanzeiger_BGBI#_Bundesanzeiger_BGBI_%2F%2F*[%40attr_id%3D%27bgbl112s1577.pdf%27]__1374613606308), accessed 21 February 2014.

³ The term in-court mediation is used to describe a procedure where pending court cases are transferred by the deciding judge to a special educated mediator judge, if the parties agree. The mediator judge is a judge who is not allowed to decide on the merits of the case. If the mediation fails, the cases will go back to the deciding judge.

⁴ See also the procedural codes of the labour courts, §§54 Sec. 6, 54a *Arbeitsgerichtsgesetz*, ArbGG; the administrative courts, §173 Sec. 1 *Verwaltungsgerichtsordnung*, VwGO; the social courts, §202 *Sozialgerichtsgesetz*, SGG; the tax courts, §155 *Finanzgerichtsordnung*, FGO, as well as the courts of family and non-contentious matters, §§36 Sec. 5, 36a *Verfahren in Familiensachen und in den Angelegenheiten der freiwilligen Gerichtsbarkeit*, FamFG.

⁵ A detailed description of these models can be found in von Bargaen (2008), p. 71ff.; Greger and Unberath (2013), p. 267, with further references; Fritz and Pielsticker (2013), Introduction, para. 38ff.

⁶ The question if the new *Mediationsgesetz* is also applicable to the *Güterichter* is still under discussion. From my point of view, the *Mediationsgesetz* is applicable to a *Güterichter* acting as a mediator; see, e.g., Article 3 a) S. 3 and 4 of the Directive 2008/52/EC. Greger and Unberath (2013), p. 43, para. 14, as well as Fritz and Pielsticker (2013), p. 213, para. 79, do not agree with this viewpoint.

5.2 Different Ways of Allocating Cases

If the potentials of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) are to be used effectively in a society, it has to be made sure that every case makes his way to the procedure that deals best with the individual problem. From the view of courts, there are basically three different ways to connect court proceedings with the different ADR systems. In detail, many different ways of system design are possible, but all can basically be brought back to those three ways: (1) the distributional model, (2) diversion model and (3) integration model.⁷

5.2.1 *Distribution Model*

For years, mediation was primarily seen as the opposite of the judicial attempts of adjusting conflicts and was, therefore, located out of the courts. Conflicts were either solved out of the courts in a mediation procedure or by a judge. Mediation was not thought to be an integral part of an overall system of dispute resolution. There was no real linkage between the procedures.⁸ The cases were distributed to each mutually exclusive conflict-solving procedure.

The largest number of cases should reach the dispute resolution system they fit best by this sort of self-distribution. If a distribution directly leading each case to its best dispute resolution system would be possible, there will not be a demand for a better adjustment of civil proceedings and other dispute resolution systems.

To establish such an efficient distribution, private mediators or mediation authorities other than courts are needed that are educated and able to handle the cases. The existence of private mediators and the theoretic preconditions to set up a distribution exist in the majority of European countries. The European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (CEPEJ) Report states a high number of European countries that have private mediators offering their work.⁹

But ideal conditions where every case finds its “best” resolution system on its own, these conditions are far away from reality, at least in Germany. A lot of different factors influence the decision as to which dispute resolution system is chosen by the parties. These factors induce parties to find not always *ad hoc* the best dispute resolution system from an objective perspective.

Firstly, the general knowledge about the different dispute resolution systems is important to influence the parties in choosing. The European directive on mediation is trying to set standards in every national jurisdiction and promoting the knowledge

⁷ In Germany, Greger (2003), p. 240ff., described and named these three different ways.

⁸ Hopt and Steffek (2008), p. 79, state that the potential of mediation can only be reached if it is attractively anchored in the system of dispute resolution.

⁹ See, e.g., Council of Europe (2012), p. 132.

about mediation.¹⁰ Projects in Germany try to educate parties and attorneys about the different systems of dispute resolution.¹¹ Knowledge of how to identify the best system for their dispute and how to find the places where their dispute can be properly handled shall be fostered. In the long run, it is hoped that more parties and attorneys will choose other dispute resolution systems than court proceedings. But to date, the success of these projects was way behind the expected impacts.¹² The long-term changes of the projects cannot be evaluated yet.

Other important factors than information determine the choice of the dispute resolution system as well. Questions of how courts perform in comparison to ADR systems with regard to costs, time and enforceability of the results tend to influence the parties.

What do people have to pay for such a system? Private mediations do usually have to be paid privately. If the mediation fails, the costs for mediation have to be added to the growing pile of costs. Also, an important question seems to be whether a working system of legal aid for mediation and/or for additional court proceedings exists.¹³

The role of the attorneys is, of course, a major factor as well. Do attorneys earn more if they file a claim instead of settling the case very early? Especially in Germany, where the costs for lawyers are usually fixed by statute and actions in front of courts generally increase the attorney fees, the impression is allowed that other motives than to pick the best and fastest dispute resolution system might sometimes play a role, especially where insurance companies often pay for the attorneys and the client has no real interest in the amount spent.

How much do people have to pay for further court proceedings to the court, as well as to the lawyers (own and opponents)? Another question is, of course, do the courts have a “loser pays it all” rule?¹⁴ The trend in Norway and Finland towards mediation might be found in high litigation costs, which may be one reason to force people to test other options. If a large number of private households, on the other hand, possess insurances that cover court fees and attorney costs like the situation in Germany, the process of decision-making will be completely different. Most German insurance companies realised that money could be saved and started to

¹⁰ See only European Parliament and the Council (2008), para (25), as well as Article 9. The directive is intended only for cross-border cases, but Germany and other countries decided that the mediation statutes are applicable to national contexts as well.

¹¹ E.g., the A.B.E.R.-Project in Nuremberg-Erlangen; see therefore Greger (2007) or the Project in Berlin to be found at www.schlichten-in-berlin.de.

¹² See the results from the source above.

¹³ See the information at Council of Europe (2012), p. 141. In Germany, §7 *Mediationsgesetz* now only allows to grant legal aid for mediation procedures within narrow scientific research projects. The parliament will have to discuss further action in the light of the results of these projects.

¹⁴ A different behaviour can also be reached by granting indirect incentives (cost savings) for those parties that tried to mediate before filing a claim. See, e.g., the English model in *Dunnet v. Railtrack Plc* (2002) 2 All ER, S. 850ff.; *Halsey v. Milton Keynes General NHS Trust* [2004] 1 W.L.R., S. 3002ff. But see also Boyron, *European Public Law* (2007), p. 273: “Although Lord Woolf has subsequently repeated his encouragement regarding ADR, little has been done in practice”.

include mediation procedures in their coverage as well.¹⁵ But knowledge about these new insurance conditions and the handling of the procedure finding a mediator, getting the coverage, etc. are, to a large extent, not yet well established.

Another important factor is the amount of time that is needed by each dispute resolution system. The CEPEJ Study shows the disposition time of litigious and non-litigious civil and commercial cases in first instance.¹⁶ The Nordic countries, as well as Germany, do not show excessive disposition times and clearance rates in civil and commercial matters in the first instance.¹⁷ But if you look at Italy or Portugal, where already first instance cases in civil and commercial matters need a much longer time, turning to ADR systems might be owed to a different pressure,¹⁸ even more if the length of possible appeal cases will also be taken into account.

The enforceability of results reached in different systems is also a major decision factor. To reinforce mediation, Article 6 of the Directive 2008/52/EC attempts to ensure better enforceability of mediation results.

As shown, a high number of factors can have an impact on the behaviour of parties regarding their choice of a dispute resolution system. Many other reasons are conceivable. The experiments to press different switches are always limited by the access to justice. Court systems always have to work fast, be efficient, be accessible, and the access to a court decision has to be open for everyone.¹⁹ In countries with good working court systems, the aim is not to harden the access to justice but to improve the ADR system.

5.2.2 *Diversion Model*

But even if the acceptance and use of out-of-court dispute resolution systems could be fostered, all courts would be still asked to decide cases if they could be solved

¹⁵ See, therefore, Finanztest (2013), p. 14ff. There are a lot of different configurations, especially if the insurance company only pays for a successful mediation or/and the possible court proceedings following a failed mediation. A lot of insurance companies cap their expenses for mediations at EUR 2,000 per case, per party.

¹⁶ Council of Europe (2012), p. 184ff.

¹⁷ Sweden 187, days; Norway, 158 days; Denmark, 186 days; Germany, 184 days; only Finland is experiencing, with 259 days, a bit of delay in proceeding compared to the other Nordic countries; Council of Europe (2012), p. 185.

¹⁸ Disposition time in Italy is 493 days and in Portugal 417 days for a first instance civil or commercial case. Council of Europe (2012), p. 185. For other countries, as well as other procedures, see Council of Europe (2012), p. 184ff.

¹⁹ Mandatory out-of-court settlement attempts, even only for small claims cases in Germany, did not convince a significant number of people to try to really solve their disputes with systems other than civil procedure. Due to the failure of these regulations, the responsible German states start to abolish these mandatory out-of-courts settlement attempts. The state of Baden-Württemberg was one of the first states to dispose its *Schlichtungsgesetz* in spring 2013. Others will follow in redesigning their statutes.

appropriately through, for example, mediation or other ADR procedures. Therefore, mechanisms should be installed that make sure those cases can be redirected from the court to other dispute resolution systems. German civil procedure rules allowed already for a longer time that judges could recommend ADR to the parties. With the changes of the new *Mediationsförderungsgesetz*, this possibility was emphasised for the ZPO and integrated in most of the other procedural codes.²⁰ But nearly no German judge used this possibility to recommend the use of out-of-court dispute resolution systems.²¹ On the other hand, it was found out that parties did not want to leave the court after they decided to seek the judge for help.

The newest study of the CEPEJ shows that a lot of countries in Europe already set up different systems of diversion models.²² So, the existence of diversion models seems to be common sense; just a functioning idea of system design is, at least in Germany, not really found yet.²³

5.2.3 *In-Court Models*

The step from this diversion model to in-court²⁴ models is not very big. It could be argued that they form a sub-category of the diversion model. In-court mediation models are a way to avoid the disadvantages of the diversion models and to deregulate the separation of the procedures. Mediation would still be an alternative to conventional adversarial civil proceedings but would also be a part of court procedures. In these models, the judges recommend a dispute resolution attempt not by an outside expert, rather through a different “door” within the courts.²⁵ In-court models do not mean a multi-door courthouse, in a sense where attorneys offer dispute resolution services at the courts. In-court models always need a judge in action. These models have the advantage that the conflict stays within the institution at least as one party wanted it to be in. And judges as independent, neutral and professional conflict solvers are basically born mediators. Besides that, the quality of the mediation procedure and fair outcomes could be monitored very efficiently.

Three system designs are possible for in-court models.

²⁰ See §54a ArbGG, §36a FamFG, §202 S. 1 SGG, §173 S. 1 VwGO, §155 S. 1 FGO, nearly all except the code of criminal procedure (Strafprozessordnung, StPO).

²¹ As one reason, it was supposed that German judges had difficulties with recommending a different system of dispute resolution to be “better” than their judicial system. For this complex, see only Etscheid (2011), p. 143ff., with further references, as well as Hommerich et al. (2006), p. 84ff.

²² Council of Europe (2012), p. 133ff.

²³ Suggestions for a better distribution are made by Schreiber (2013) p. 113.

²⁴ For the definition of in-court model, see above at footnote 3.

²⁵ The Multi Door Courthouse is described by Sander (1976) and, for Germany, Birner (2003).

Firstly, the deciding judge can use all instruments offered by the civil procedure rules to foster a settlement.²⁶ Secondly, judges, especially in the settlement conference, can use elements of mediation or can even try to set up a full-structured mediation procedure.²⁷ Looking at the quality of the mediation procedure, a significant elevation of the efficiency could be reached if, thirdly, a judge who is not allowed to decide on the merits of the case could “really” mediate.²⁸ This last model is called “real” in-court mediation.

Two major positive issues of this last design are noteworthy. If the parties know the judge mediator will not decide on the merits, the personal responsibility of each participant is challenged because nobody will help out in the end, which is what is usually done if the “deciding” judge is involved. He or she will make a decision in the end if the parties will not find a settlement.

Furthermore, a real judge mediator allows the parties to work with a much more open mindset than a deciding judge at the same place would allow. Parties do not have to fear that something they said will be used against them even if the deciding mediator would explain that this would not be the case. Apparently, already some of the European states work with systems like that.²⁹

5.3 Why Do German Courts Show Interest for In-Court Mediation Programmes?

Why have German courts suddenly showed increased interest in in-court mediation programmes, not only trying the special techniques and the procedure but even setting up their own model projects? In some states projects were started without the support of the state ministries of justice administrating the German courts in

²⁶ E.g., §278 Sec. 1 ZPO obliges the court to intend an amicable solution of the dispute at every stage of the procedure. The constitutional court stated that an amicable settlement of the dispute is always favourable to a decision by the judge, Bundesverfassungsgericht (2007), para. 35.

²⁷ §278 Sec. 2 ZPO installs a mandatory settlement conference before the oral hearing, with only a few exceptions. The legal reality showed that this mandatory settlement conference was usually not held in good faith and therefore did not brought significant results. The *Mediationsförderungsgesetz* tried to foster this instrument. Of course, a “real” mediation cannot be realised by the judge because he or she has to decide, in the end, if this disqualifies him or her as a mediator.

²⁸ §278 Sec. 5 ZPO allows to refer the parties for this settlement conference or other settlement attempts to a so-called *Güterichter*. §278 Sec. 5 S. 2 states that this *Güterichter* can use all methods of ADR, especially mediation. These models used to be called “real” in-court mediation models in comparison with “unreal” mediation models of the footnote above. www.gueterichter-forum.de/neuigkeiten/gueterichterstatistik-2012/ (accessed 21 February 2014) reports that in 2012, 1.292 *Güterichter* held 7.804 Güteverfahren (especially mediations) at 380 courts with a success rate of 69 %.

²⁹ See the lists at Council of Europe (2012), p. 133f.

other states “judicial grass-roots movements set up projects even against the will of those ministries.”³⁰

Finding an answer to this question seems interesting because this phenomenon is, in Germany, not limited to civil cases but also finds its place in administrative, employment, social benefits and even tax courts.³¹ And the phenomenon is also not limited to Germany, as can be seen in the CEPEJ Study mentioned above.³² So, is it only a trend that lawmakers or courts feel obliged to set up projects? Or have the mediation projects a potential to equip courts with better tools to handle the situations brought in front of them so that research and practical experience about in-court mediation is worth putting time and effort in?

5.3.1 Reduction of the Disadvantages of Adversarial Court Proceedings

Since German courts aim to improve the quality of their work, they detect that for parties of court proceedings who get a court decision, this decision does way too often not match the expectation of neither side.³³ Disappointment is the result of that. Exaggerated it could be said that the parties expect an interest-based and practical solution, and all they get is a court decision. One of the reasons, therefore, is that a court decision usually has a winner and loser.

“Translation issues” are also a reason for this disappointment. Already during the first meeting with a legal counsel, but of course even more in front of the courts at the latest, the reality that a party presented is converted into legal issues. This conversion can cause a lot of problems. Issues that are important for a party can be found irrelevant in terms of judicial handling; other issues that are minor points for a party might get into the centre of attention. In many cases, not legally trained lay parties do not fully understand their case after the conversion. They think the case they presented is handled by the court and do not understand the outcome.

Furthermore, court proceedings are not designed for parties to be really “heard”. They are only heard with the converted, legally relevant issues. Parties therefore often get the feeling that the courts do not hear their cases. It seems to them that judges and attorneys do not allow them to speak. Input that seems important to the

³⁰ Up-to-date information on German in-court mediation projects can be found at <http://www.guetrichter-forum.de> (accessed 21 February 2014).

³¹ For models within the administrative courts, see von Bargaen (2012), p. 469ff., and von Bargaen (2011), p. 1027ff., as well as <http://www.vg-freiburg.deservlet/PB/menu/1192816/index.html?ROOT=1192792> (accessed 21 February 2014), with a detailed documented mediation example (accessed 21 February 2014); for tax courts, see the homepage of the tax court in Bremen, to be found at <http://www.finanzgericht-bremen.de/sixcms/detail.php?gsid=bremen87.c.1935.de> (accessed 21 February 2014).

³² See footnote 29.

³³ Röhl (2000), p. 220ff., and Hobeck (2005), p. 179.

parties is sometimes disqualified as irrelevant. The reality that parties led to seek help of an attorney and a court is not always fully covered in court proceedings. Feelings of helplessness or paternalism might be the effect. A basically positive attribute of civil proceedings that allows placement of the dispute in the hands of a legally trained attorney or judge can have the different effect. Parties might feel that the conflict was taken out of their hands.

It can be observed finally that another quality attribute of adversarial civil proceedings can cause problems. Civil proceedings are designed to reduce the complexity of the reality to put a judge in a position to find a decision in an adequate amount of time. Therefore, a decidable question has to be distilled out of the reality. Consequence of this distillation process is that everything gets dropped that is not necessary to answer the legal question. This necessary reduction of the reality to a legally decidable question always bears the risk to miss relevant issues for the parties. A court decision on that irrelevant part of the reality will not be helpful to them. Also, parties will lose the confidence in the courts if judges inform them that the issues they grieve about, what is really important to them, are not relevant for the decision.

In-court mediation programmes can help to deal with these problems with all the benefits mediation procedures can provide.

5.3.2 In-Court Mediation as a Corrective of an “Over-Legalised” Culture of Dispute Resolution

That courts are not only following a trend is also emphasised by the fact that mediation is not an invention of these days. Its roots reach back to the ancient world, and over longer periods of time it has been the dominant dispute resolution system. Not until the modern continental civil proceedings in the second half of the nineteenth century were developed, which precisely regulated the frame for the “fight for right” with all the attack and defence mechanisms at this very high level, the courts were able to diminish the relevance of consensual dispute resolution systems. But the more the system of civil proceedings was differentiated and improved, the more people were sensitised for rights and justice. Of course, this development is not only bad and should not be questioned today. But what should be questioned is the claim of absoluteness that the realisation of rights and justice dominates all other objectives.³⁴

The “over-legalisation” of all living conditions reached a critical point these days, at least in Germany. The law tends to spread out in areas of life that formerly have not been regulated at all or have been regulated only in a very rudimentary way. Areas of life that are not touched by the law become fewer and fewer. This tendency created an increasingly complex and confusing netting of regulations—as a

³⁴ For this and the following, see Schlink (2005), p. 9ff.

consequence, new and even more detailed regulations are necessary. On the other hand, it is always moaned about the flood of regulations and furiousness of the lawmakers. This obsession to regulations has its price. It leads to disregard and dismisses the realities of life. Looking at the context of rights and justice, it becomes obvious that people insist too much and do not learn enough. It will be helpful if a lot of problems might not be solved on the level of rights and justice (Do I have an enforceable right?) but, even more profoundly, on the level of the reality of live, which is in the focus of the mediation (Why do I pursue my assumed right? Which interest—necessity, personal concern—do I have? What do I have to do to match this interest with those of my opponents in the given conflict?). So, in-court mediation could work as a corrective regarding that “over-legalisation” of a society.³⁵

5.3.3 In-Court Mediation as a Way Out of the Court-Dominated Society

Consensual dispute resolution systems might not have been forgotten in Scandinavia, but somehow the rediscovery of mediation as dispute resolution procedure started when the Americans became interested 30 years ago.³⁶ The reason for the renaissance of the mediation was a reaction to a crisis of their judicial dispute resolution systems. The Americans hoped to solve their problems in intensifying the use of ADR systems. Overcrowding court dockets was the main trigger for the experiments. Another reason can be seen in the fact that in many conflict situations consensual techniques seemed to work better, to produce better and more sustainable solutions, to be faster and cheaper than ordinary court proceedings. Due to the mannerisms of US civil procedure, where judges have only a very passive umpire role and active case management is very slowly developed,³⁷ these systems were mainly developed outside the reach of judges.

Although continental civil procedures differ fundamentally from the US system, the reasons why countries in Europe become interested in mediation are mainly the same. In Germany, the number of actions in front of courts is high,³⁸ and a huge amount of judges tries to handle the flood.³⁹

³⁵ For further references, see von Bargaen (2008), p. 138f.

³⁶ For the ADR Movement in the United States, see Goldberg et al. (2007), p. 6ff.

³⁷ See Murray (2011), p. 305ff.

³⁸ See, therefore, only Budras (2006), p. 140, describing the crowded dockets at the social courts.

³⁹ 24.3 professional judges sitting in German courts for 100,000 inhabitants, in Norway 11.2, Finland 18, Sweden 11.5, Denmark 9, England 3.6, Ireland 3.2, Scotland 3.5, Austria 29.1, Poland 27.8, Croatia 42.8, Council of Europe (2012), p. 144ff.; for the US Federal numbers, see <http://www.uscourts.gov/uscourts/Statistics/JudicialFactsAndFigures/2011/Table101.pdf> (accessed 21 February 2014); for the state court numbers, <http://www.ncsc.org/microsites/sco/home/List-Of-Tables.aspx> (accessed 21 February 2014).

Every attempt to reduce the workload was not really successful. A lot of arguments seem to stand to reason that a flexible system of dispute resolution proceedings, oriented at the individual case, would not only be more efficient but also a lot more effective than every other attempt to accelerate civil proceedings, which usually went along with less legal protection of the parties and in the long run caused more harm than benefit.⁴⁰

Even with the large amount of judges, it is said that access to justice is becoming a rare commodity.⁴¹ The reasons for that can be found in the already mentioned over-legalisation and also in the process propensity of at least the Germans. Germans happily delegate the liability for every conflict to the courts. Fostered by the German phenomenon of “legal protection” insurance that a large proportion of persons are equipped with,⁴² they fight through every instance available, and if they lose they seek “procedural revenge”. That a concept like mediation based on personal responsibility of the citizens allowing faster and more satisfying results would be able to curb this insanitary developments is obvious. In-court mediation is as well a possibility to spare the courts’ resources for conventional litigious civil proceedings and not to burn up these resources for conflicts that could be solved more efficiently and more effectively with other dispute resolution systems.

5.3.4 In-Court Mediation as Adequate Proceeding for a New State Conception

A lot of people think that the resources of the increasingly over-strained state do not suffice anymore to bear the whole responsibility for fulfilment and solution that the state offered its citizens in the last decades and to which they are accustomed. It might be only possible for the state to guarantee fundamental structures and give textured directions. The effort of the state is reducing itself to a responsibility guided by the principle of subsidiarity, first and foremost giving help for self-help. One of the many fundamental consequences out of this change can be seen in the fact that the state will not be able to allocate indefinite funds for a constantly expanding legal system. Citizens will have to take over the responsibility for the resolution of their conflicts, turning away from the attitude to be relieved of the responsibility for the dispute by the courts in conventional court proceedings. The guideline of that new state conception is to foster the mediation especially

⁴⁰ Describing the general situation of the last three decades is Schütz (2005), p. 278ff.; for the situation at the administrative courts, see Reimers (2006), p. 56ff.

⁴¹ Benda (1979), p. 362.

⁴² This insurance is already mentioned above, footnote 15.

out of the courts. But that does not prohibit fostering the responsibility of parties in adequate cases that are already brought before a judge.⁴³

5.3.5 In-Court Mediation as an Answer to a Change of the Law

Increased multipolar, multifaceted and complex business relations within networks elude of formalised and definite legal patterns.⁴⁴ In the area of private law, and also in the public sector, the encroachment of the informal can be found. Commercial practices and compliance guidelines play important roles and form relationships. Some sort of “soft law” is created that cannot be enforced easily in the conventional civil proceedings. Mediation offers an adequate conflict resolution system for these cases. Especially in the sector of public administration, the development can be perfectly described with the headword of the “cooperative state”: a state that works in a network with the private sector (the public private partnership), concentrating less on one-sided, mandatory, hierarchic instruments (like statutes or the administrative acts) but more on negotiation and balance, on strategies of persuasion and mediation.⁴⁵ A significant boost into this direction is caused by the increasing “Europeanisation” and internationalisation of the legal relationships.⁴⁶

5.3.6 In-Court Mediation as a Mirror of a New Self-Image of Judges

Not only the guidelines of the state and of the law are changing; the self-image of German judges is also in a period of transition. Judges, to a greater extent, see themselves as service providers for the society.⁴⁷ They initiate quality management; they pay heed to handle cases quickly brought before them and to satisfy their end-customers.⁴⁸ It is a contribution to the quality of the procedure if courts not only offer the conventional proceedings but also supplement their offer with mediation by specially trained judges in adequate cases, if this mediation can be faster and cheaper, and also more efficiently satisfy the interests of the customers in a significant number of cases.

⁴³ See Hoffmann-Riem (2005), p. 102; for information about the ideas of the *Gewährleistungsstaat*, see Schuppert (2005).

⁴⁴ See Lange (1998).

⁴⁵ Ritter (2001), p. 3440ff. is describing this development.

⁴⁶ Ritter (2001), p. 3444f.

⁴⁷ Ritter (2001), p. 3447.

⁴⁸ For courts being increasingly interested in quality issues, see von Bargen (2010b), p. 205ff.

5.4 Reasons for a Coexistence of In-Court and Out-of-Court Mediation

Looking at the developments in the United States, it seems obvious to locate mediation, particularly in the area out of the courts, and to cede it first and foremost to professional mediators, who need, of course, a qualified education. It is, on the other hand, not plausible to exclude everyone else except those professional mediators from the mediation and declare the courts to mediation-free zones. A significant number of people would benefit from a qualitative improvement of the judicial conflict resolution offer by the integration of mediation into court proceedings. Looking only at the numbers of German civil courts, a little bit less than 1.6 million first instance cases were brought to the civil courts in 2010. With the employment courts added, more than two million civil cases were brought to the courts in 2010. A conservative estimation is that only 10 % of these cases, for Germany a number of 15–20 % seems much more realistic, would be better handled in a mediation procedure than in front of traditional court proceedings. A high number of people would benefit, especially in highly emotional conflicts,⁴⁹ conflicts within permanent relationships⁵⁰ or cases in a context with relevance to the environment.⁵¹

Another argument for in-court mediation can be seen in the task of continental judges who, other than their US colleagues, have not only to decide about adversarial procedures but also to foster a consensual dispute resolution. In Germany and other countries as well, the judges are committed by the civil procedure rules to keep in mind and try to achieve a consensual resolution of the case or at least single aspects of it in every stadium of the dispute.⁵² Why a judge taking this commitment seriously should not fall back to the use of mediation is not reasonable. All the more, after 10 years of German experiences with model projects, a tremendously high number of positive reactions are reported.⁵³

At this place, it must be clarified that it is not argued to replace the conventional civil procedure by mediation procedures. This would be unreasonable because the predominant number of cases brought in front of a judge is not adequate for mediation. Furthermore, the conventional civil procedures contribute indispensably to the legal protection and the development of the legal system in the society.

But some people in Germany are very sceptical about in-court mediation programmes. They argue that a good working system of civil procedure should not be diluted by the integration of an interest-not-legal-based system.

⁴⁹ Family Affairs.

⁵⁰ Business relations, partnerships, neighbour or employment disputes.

⁵¹ E.g., airports, stadiums, disposal areas, incineration plants, nuclear disposal sites, and also in the context of accumulation lakes to “store” electric energy and the set up of modern power lines.

⁵² See §278 Sec. 1 ZPO and above in footnote 26.

⁵³ See, e.g., only for the courts in the State of Schleswig Holstein Görres-Ohde (2011), p. 269ff., and in the state of Berlin Wischer (2011), p. 264f.

On the other hand, the number of adequate cases for mediation brought to the judges is so high that training the judges is worth the effort. Mediation is not the “better” civil procedure, but it broadens the chances to find the best solution in a case brought in front of a court. There is the accurate psychological wisdom by Maslow that who only has a hammer treats every problem like a nail.⁵⁴ It seems obvious that judges—to stay in the picture—have additionally to acquire the ability to differentiate between a nail and a screw and that judge mediators have to acquire the ability to pull tight or remove these screws with an adequate tool instead of treating them with their hammer as well.

5.5 Legal Framework

Already before in-court mediation was permanently established in Germany by the *Mediationsförderungsgesetz*, the question arose if judges had the legitimate right to mediate. Judges could claim this competence if mediation in the described way falls into the field of activities assigned to judges at that time. The German *Grundgesetz* states in Article 92: “The judicial power shall be vested in the judges”. It was thought that judges would have been allowed to mediate cases if this task is enfolded by the term “judicial power”.

It seems noticeable that especially the question of the legal basis and therefore of the legitimation of a judge mediator not allowed to decide on the merits of the case was answered at the German model projects, if it was answered at all, very differently. This is noticeable because, first and foremost, without a classification into the classic structure of the organisation of a state, the fundamental question of admissibility cannot be answered, as well as other important consequences combined with that classification. For example, the questions if a special statutory legitimation is needed or which procedural principles apply cannot be answered without a sustainable answer to the question formulated above. The principles of executive procedures significantly vary from those of the judiciary. If the in-court mediation is classified as executive work, the civil procedure rules that will otherwise be applicable do not apply.

The qualification as task of the executive or of the judiciary predetermines the important decision if the tasks are fulfilled within judicial independence and therefore free of directions (judiciary) or basically bound to directions of the supervisor (executive). The qualification of in-court mediation as an executive task could mean in times of short funds that the court administrations, responsible for the executive tasks, could forbid the judges to mediate or set a time limit of 2 h for mediations. This would not be possible if the mediation of judges belongs to the fundamental tasks of the judiciary.

⁵⁴ See Maslow (1966), p. 22.

Even after the changes in §278 ZPO establishing the *Güterichter*, the functional attribution is still important for the system design.⁵⁵

5.5.1 *The Design of State Functions in the Context of the Separation of Powers*

Starting to look closer into the design of state functions, it appears that still serious problems occur to set up a harmonious, balanced system of all three powers.⁵⁶ A remarkable number of approaches exist, at least in Germany, to define every single power. Mutual consent is reached regarding the statement that the endorsement of the judiciary to the judges follows in concretion of the principle of the separation of powers.⁵⁷ But this mutual consent stands in demonstrative disagreement with the undisputed content that can be taken out of the principle of separation of powers. The principle asks for a highly complex control system, which is set up by the interdependence of the functions. Besides this aspect, this aspect more and more people begin to think that this is not everything. The principle also wants that decisions made by the state body be made correctly. In this context, it means that decisions are issued by those functions that have the best assumptions for the decision, regarding organisation, composition, function and procedure.⁵⁸

5.5.2 *The Different Definitions of Judiciary*

Scholars undertook multiple approaches to define the tasks of the judiciary within this given frame.⁵⁹ But nearly every approach is not able to design an all-embracing and practical definition to create a coherent system of organisation and give seamless explanations for the direction of state duties to the different functions. To give only one example, there is the widely accepted term of “dispute decision” as the defining element of the judiciary. Deciding disputes is an important and central element of the judiciary, but the administration is also deciding disputes, for example, in decisions of neighbour disputes concerning the permission of construction activity. Even the legislative function is on a higher level involved in the decision of disputes within the society. On the other hand, especially the German employment courts settled more than 226,000 cases and had to decide in only 30,000 cases in 2010, and also

⁵⁵ The *Mediationsförderungsgesetz* answered the fundamental question of permissibility in favour of in-court mediation.

⁵⁶ The *Bundesverfassungsgericht* (constitutional court) stated that scholars did not finish the discussion about the term *Rechtsprechung*, BVerfGE 22, p. 79; BVerfGE 103, p. 136.

⁵⁷ Von Barga (2008), p. 151f., with further references.

⁵⁸ Von Barga (2008), p. 161ff.

⁵⁹ An exposure of the different approaches can be found at von Barga (2008), p. 165ff.

courts with ordinary civil proceedings only had 410,000 contested judgments of their overall rate of 1.56 million finished cases in 2009.⁶⁰ So, the term of “dispute decision” does not function very well to define the content of the judiciary’s task.

Only an approach that tries to describe the functions not with a single term but with the procedure they follow allows to describe a coherent system and to provide detailed criteria for the allocation of tasks that are apprehended by the state in the future. Within one of these procedural approaches, the judiciary is described as a “neutral procedure”; administration and legislation are described as “open procedures” in this model.⁶¹ This description is able to embrace all the different tasks without being boundless and is therefore the best description to be found defining whether in-court mediation is a judicial task or not.

5.5.3 *In-Court Mediation as “Neutral Procedure”*

Comparing the similarities of the defined procedures of state functions and in-court mediation, it is obvious that mediation procedures are allocated best within the “neutral procedure” of the judiciary.⁶² This function, with its specially designed procedure, has the largest similarities within their key elements. For example, both the judicial procedure and mediation procedure are shaped by the term of neutrality. This defining term sets them apart from the other two state functions. Due to that definition, mediation by a judge who is not allowed to decide the case on the merits would be embraced by the judiciary power. Therefore, it can be assessed that in-court mediation is a basic function of the judiciary with all the consequences.⁶³

Of course, this allocation in Germany was not undisputed.⁶⁴ Every other allocation, especially to the executive function, might have had advantages on the short run and would allow more latitude for experiments but has, in the long run, disadvantages and leads at a closer look at least in Germany to insurmountable legal problems.⁶⁵

⁶⁰ For the actual German numbers, see <http://www.destatis.de/EN/FactsFigures/SocietyState/Justice/Justice.html> (accessed 21 February 2014). See also Schreiber (2013), p. 110; von Bargaen (2010a), p. 413.

⁶¹ See, for this model, Voßkuhle (1993), p. 94ff.

⁶² Von Bargaen (2008), p. 201ff.

⁶³ Agreeing Schreiber (2013), p. 110f. and now Greger, Unberath (2013), p. 279, para 95.

⁶⁴ See only Walter (2005), p. 55.

⁶⁵ Von Bargaen (2008), p. 253ff.

5.6 Final Thoughts

The allocation of in-court mediation to the judiciary's function does not only fit in the constitutional guidelines but also allowed to set up model projects without violating any statutes before an explicit legal foundation was laid within the *Mediationsförderungsgesetz* in Germany. Furthermore, it seems desirable from a political view, proven by the activities of the German Parliament regarding the *Güterichter*.

With the implementation of the *Güterichter* into nearly all procedural codes⁶⁶ in the course of the implementation of the Directive 2008/52/EC, mediation is not only promoted outside the courts but also within the German court system. In-court mediation by a *Güterichter* opens up the real chance to improve the performance of the courts. Courts are enabled to accomplish a significant part of the cases brought to them in a more efficient manner. Their capacities for adversarial procedures will be higher for cases that can only be dealt with in these procedures. The judiciary generally is now better equipped to handle future tasks. Judges of all courts get an important enhancement of their ability to foster an adequate dispute resolution in general with the possibility to refer parties to a *Güterichter* for in-court mediation. The judges will have to learn how to use this enhancement and develop strategies to identify the correct dispute resolution system for the presented case. Their role as distributors will become more important. Maybe this will also reduce their retention to refer to out-of-court mediators and help to promote this way of dispute resolution. Furthermore, the courts now can set standards within mediation procedures that out-of-court mediators will have to match and be measured with.

But courts can now provide a significant contribution to an advancement of the dispute resolution culture, and therefore their function as a role model cannot be estimated high enough. If more and more parties of court proceedings experience to have made the right decision with in-court mediation, because the fast and self-acquired consensual resolution of the conflict led to a satisfying and sustainable agreement that even fostered the consensual basis of the parties in the future, this would not have been unheard of for a long time. Such an experience could advocate the willingness to try to settle the conflict on one's own or with the help of a professional mediator instead of running to the court immediately. The approach of consensual conflict resolution is clearly enhanced.

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⁶⁶ Except the Criminal Procedure Code (StPO).

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Chapter 6

The Many Ways of Civil Mediation in Norway

Anna Nylund

Abstract Norway has been considered a forerunner in the field of civil mediation among the Nordic countries. Settlement and working for amicable solutions have had a predominant place in Norwegian civil litigation for centuries. The Dispute Act from 2008 emphasize dispute resolution as a main function of the courts and as a duty for parties. There are indeed five different types of dispute resolution mechanisms called “mediation” in the Act. In addition, the National Mediation Services offer civil mediation. These six forms of “mediation” are presented and compared in this text. The picture is confusing as the forms of mediation are partly overlapping and based on three different ideas and offered by three different government organizations. Some of the forms of mediation are in fact not mediation at all when compared to the idea of facilitative, interest-based mediation presented in mediation literature. Instead, they are judicial settlement activities. Court-connected mediation is based on the idea of facilitative interest-based mediation but often practiced as an abbreviated trial or as nonbinding mini-arbitration. The variation in the way court-connected mediation is practiced adds to the complexity of the Norwegian mediation landscape and makes choosing the most appropriate type of dispute resolution hard for lawyers and parties alike.

6.1 Introduction

The idea of settling cases can be traced to ancient time in Norwegian society and court system. Settlement and finding amicable solutions in a less formal process have been promoted as a means to solve disputes for centuries. The different methods of trying to settle cases are called *mekling* (or *megling*), mediation. In the last few decades, the traditional settlement activities have been supplied by new ways of dispute resolution,

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many of them influenced by newer theories on conflict resolution, mostly restorative justice, community justice, interest-based mediation and court-connected mediation. As a result, there are now six (or seven, depending on how one counts) ways of civil mediation in nonfamily cases recognized in the legislation, in addition to two forms of family mediation. The landscape of mediation is therefore complex.

Adding complexity to the Norwegian landscape of mediation is a system where all six types of civil mediation are called *mekling*, often combined with a word specifying which organization is offering the type of mediation. This causes confusion as the types of mediation are very different, and many of them are not mediation at all.

Although mediation is a widely used term, it lacks a clear, distinct, generally accepted definition. Practitioners often use mediation as a synonym for alternative dispute resolution (ADR). However, in mediation scholarship and literature, there is an almost universally accepted core definition: mediation is facilitated (interest-based) negotiations. As a consequence, practitioners and the legislator often call activities mediation although none of the hallmarks of mediation are present. The result is a situation where “mediation” is a virtually unregulated black box, where neither the parties nor the public can do much to react to improper mediator behavior and process design, let alone try to create a quality process. Often, the result is a process quite different from the one intended. Regulation and control become very difficult, and the parties might get a very different process from the one they chose or were persuaded into participating in.

In this text, the six different forms of (nonfamily) civil mediation sanctioned in Norwegian law are discussed. In Sect. 6.2, the concept of mediation will be defined in order to differentiate mediation from other forms of dispute resolution. In Sect. 6.3, the historic and intellectual roots of the different forms of Norwegian civil “mediation” are traced to show how each reflects a combination of different ideas and ideals. In the third part consisting of Sects. 6.4–6.6, each of the six forms is discussed, and they are compared to the modern facilitative, interest-based view on mediation. In the fourth part in Sect. 6.7, the six forms of “mediation” are compared to each other and the model of facilitative mediation. Finally, there is a discussion on how these forms of mediation cater the need for different ways of dispute resolution and on the risks and benefits of the current system.

6.2 Mediation Defined

6.2.1 *The Need for a Definition of Mediation*

Mediation is usually defined as assisted negotiations, where the role of the mediator is to facilitate an interest-based conflict resolution process.¹ However, often the

¹ Kjelland-Mørdre et al. (2008), pp. 91–92, Vindeløv (2007), p. 98, Kovach (2004), p. 47, Moore (2003), p. 8, Fuller (1971), p. 325, Menkel-Meadow (2004), p. 98 and Imperati et al. (2007), pp. 652–653.

term “mediation” is used in a very broad sense, and it covers many different types of dispute resolution, regardless of it being facilitative or interest-based.

In a (overly) broad sense, mediation is often understood by lawyers as a synonym for ADR, not included binding arbitration. This means that any activity directed towards dispute resolution where the third person does not have a mandate to give a binding resolution is called mediation. Therefore, a process where the third person gives an estimate of what the outcome would be in a trial is called mediation, as is a process where the mediator tells both parties in private meetings that they have a very bad case and then pressures them into settling. ADR would be a more proper and describing term to cover the different forms of processes. In a court-connected context, another (overly) broad definition is to equate mediation with any action a third party takes to promote settlement.

Such overly broad definitions trick lawyers to consider mediation as an eclectic process rather than a term characterizing a range of different processes.² Mediation is then any activity promoting settlement. The result, settlement, is the hallmark of mediation, not the process itself. This definition does not recognize the wide range of different processes that can be used to achieve a settlement and how different processes might result in different types of outcomes.

6.2.2 *Mediation as Facilitative, Interest-Based Dispute Resolution*

In mediation literature, precise and helpful (and “generic” and “original”) definition of mediation can be found: mediation is facilitative, interest-based conflict resolution. This view of mediation originates from studies in several fields, mainly conflict studies and negotiation. It can also trace its roots to the dissatisfaction with the adversarial, competitive practices of litigation, often resulting in less-than-optimal solutions for both parties, both feeling as losers.³ The insights from the theory of distributive and integrative outcomes in negotiation, cooperation and competition as means of interaction in conflict and the many faces of justice beyond distributive justice resulted in lawyers questioning if there was not a better way to solve disputes. Many lawyers and clients were dissatisfied with little party engagement in the process and in power and legal rights dominating solutions.⁴

By combining insights from different fields, criticism from lawyers and experiments in finding new ways of dispute resolution, facilitative, interest-based mediation was created. It has two hallmarks separating it from other types of dispute resolution: it is a process focused on involving the parties to find interest-based

² For a discussion on the definition of mediation see, *e.g.* Riskin (1996), Kovach and Love (1998), Love and Kovach (2000), Lande (1997), Oberman (2008) and Menkel-Meadow (1997).

³ Fuller (1971), Menkel-Meadow (2005, 2004), p. 98.

⁴ Menkel-Meadow (2000, 2005).

solutions and a process where the role of the third party is purely facilitative. Mediation is informal and therefore flexible.

In facilitative mediation, the role of the mediator is not to decide the case or recommend solutions but to facilitate a process where the parties solve the dispute themselves. This means that the mediator must assume a role quite different from the role of the judge. The mediator must refrain from defining what is relevant, what a good solution is, and pressuring or directing the parties to settle the case or accept a solution. The mediator is disinterested in the solution but actively involved in creating a good process.⁵ However, refraining from being directive and from subtle, indirect pressure is not enough. The role of the mediator is to actively facilitate party self-determination, empowerment, problem solving and conflict resolution. Therefore, the mediator needs knowledge and skills to help the parties engage in creative problem solving, especially analyzing the problem and finding solutions, constructive conflict behavior, effective communication and efficient negotiation. Enhancing party self-determination means that the mediator helps the parties define their needs and interests and to analyze their options.⁶

Interest-based mediation means that the solution should be based on the interests and needs of the parties rather than on which party is more powerful or have more legal right. Finding interests-based solutions requires that the parties will analyze and prioritize their interests, not just assume that their legal rights will mirror their interests.⁷ The role of the mediator is to help parties in the process of identifying their interests and to use the interests as the key criterion to define which solutions are best. However, legal rules are not irrelevant in mediation. When comparing different solutions and options, in court-connected mediation parties should understand the content of relevant legal norms and what the outcome in a trial could be. If parties are not aware of their options, they might give away rights that they would not have been willing to give away had they known them.⁸ Sometimes, an interest-based solution might be coinciding with the legal solution, or very similar to it. The ideal solution is therefore informed, integrative (win-win) and interest based. The mediator uses these three categories to define a good solution. Working with interests requires the mediator to use knowledge and skills quite different from the traditional knowledge and skills learned in law school.

The mediation process is informal and flexible. The mediator takes charge of the process but includes the parties in a discussion on the process and encourages them to make suggestions. The mediator may have private meetings (caucuses) with the parties. Mediation is usually confidential. Therefore, mediation is not a public,

⁵ Moore (2003), pp. 61–66, Kovach (2004), side 46 and Mayer (2000), side 198–211

⁶ Menkel-Meadow (1991), p. 36, Nolan-Haley (1998), p. 1373, Riskin (1982), pp. 29–60, Riskin and Welsh (2008) and Macfarlane (2008), pp. 125–190.

⁷ Moore (2003), pp. 252–269, Kovach (2004), pp. 179 ff. and Fisher et al. (2011).

⁸ Welsh (2001), Nolan-Haley (1999, 2009).

adversarial process but more like private negotiations. The process of mediation follows certain steps, but the steps are not rigid like in trial: rather, the process is flexible, tailored for the specific case, and the steps might be partly overlapping, or the mediator might return to a previous step.⁹ Mediation is not a settlement-oriented process because settlement in itself is not the goal regardless of the quality of the settlement. The mediator recognizes that s/he does not know all the facts, preferences and contingencies regarding the conflict and the parties. Therefore, the mediator will not be able to tell what a “good” solution is or decide for the parties how to view the conflict or a preferable solution.¹⁰

6.2.3 Other Forms of “Mediation” and ADR

Mediation is often used to describe other forms of dispute resolution than facilitative, interest-based mediation. There are a multitude of methods for dispute resolution, and many authors have made an attempt to classify the methods. Generally, the methods can be divided into four different groups: adjudicative, evaluative, facilitative, and methods involving no third party. Hybrid methods, combining elements from two or several of the four groups, and combined methods, where one method is used first and then another method, can be considered a fifth group. Adjudicative dispute resolution methods are characterized by the third party solving the case for the parties. The solution might be binding for the parties, or the parties might be able to negotiate a different solution. In evaluative dispute resolution, the third party gives the parties an estimate on a single issue or on the whole case. The parties then use the information to negotiate a solution with or without help from the third party. In facilitative methods, the third party helps the negotiations without providing an opinion on how to solve the case. Negotiation is one of the dispute resolution methods involving no third party. Mediation-arbitration and arbitration-mediation are the most common hybrid methods for dispute resolution. Some forms of evaluative mediation can also be characterized as a hybrid method. The classification system does not have clear boundaries, and some methods of dispute resolution borrow techniques from other groups.¹¹

Mediation is used as a label for several different types of conflict resolution. Often “mediation” sessions can be like a judicial settlement conference, where the primary goal is settlement, not clarifying how a solution meeting the underlying interest of the parties could be found. Some mediators resort to shuttle diplomacy,

⁹ Moore (2003), pp. 66–70, Kovach (2004), pp. 244–258, Golann (2009), pp. 145–147 and Vindeløv (2007), pp. 101–102.

¹⁰ Moore (2003), pp. 288–289 and Vindeløv (2007), p. 24.

¹¹ See e.g. Kovach (2004), pp. 6–18 and Moore (2003), pp. 6–14. See also Chap. 14 in this volume.

mostly bringing messages from one party to the other. Other mediators conduct the mediation as an abbreviated trial, where the role of the mediator is to suggest a solution or estimate the outcome in court.¹² The process referred to as mediation is often one where the lawyers dominate the discussion and the legal arguments and legal rules are decisive of the outcome. The “mediator” focuses on evaluating the outcome in trial and legal merits, directly or indirectly, openly or subtly pressing the parties to settle. Most of the session is often conducted in private meetings, allowing for little or no discussion between the parties.¹³

The problem is not the multitude of dispute resolution mechanisms, rather the lack of understanding of the differences and lack of proper vocabulary to communicate the differences. “Mediation” as shuttle diplomacy, settlement conferences, abbreviated trials or evaluation then mediation is as not a problem as such; the most important problem is that using the same label makes it difficult to distinguish the very different ways of solving disputes from each other. Each method or mechanism is built on different assumptions as to the goal of the dispute resolution process, the role of the third party, the role of social and legal norms and the dispute resolution process. A shuttle diplomacy “mediator” will probably define settlement as a goal, has little interest in evaluating the outcome and sees his/her role as quite passive, whereas an abbreviated trial “mediator” will take an active role, define the goal to reach settlement that is sound in legal (and economic) terms, and the process will mimic the trial but borrowing techniques, such as private meetings from mediation.¹⁴

This problem could have been avoided in Norway, as ADR made its entrance into civil procedure at the turn of the millennium. By that time, the problems with the US American system were well documented, and there was plenty of literature and studies on the subject. Therefore, the Norwegian legislator had an opportunity to create a system based on the American experience and try to avoid the problems.

6.2.4 *Regulating Mediation*

ADR covers a range of different processes. The outcomes of the processes are different, the goals of the processes are different, the processes are structured in very different manners and the role of the third person varies greatly. Therefore, it is important to distinguish the process by clearly defining the process and to have appropriate regulation for each process. By offering distinct processes, the parties can better determine which process is most appropriate for them and they can monitor that the process fulfills the expectations and information given the parties

¹² Kovach (2004), pp. 442–445.

¹³ See Adrian (2012) and Mykland (2010). In Finland results are seldom creative, see Ervasti (2011), p. 102.

¹⁴ Vindeløv (2007), pp. 18–19.

before they entered the process. The quality of the process can be enhanced by offering relevant, research-based training to the third persons in each process and because the rules and regulations can be tailored to each process.

Only by providing appropriate definitions and rules for each mechanism can the parties and the court assigning them to ADR decide if the mechanism is appropriate for the case, and the parties know what to expect and make an informed decision. Appropriate rules and regulations are also needed to ensure that the quality of the dispute resolution process is adequate, that it conforms to the information given to the parties before deciding on using the method, and to enable the parties to file a complaint if the process is clearly subpar or if the third party neutral breaches the basic principles of the method.¹⁵

Mediation as a facilitative process is informal by its nature. The rules and regulation should therefore be based on informality. Tools from civil litigation, such as publicity, *audiatur et altera pars* and legal norms as standards to measure the outcomes should therefore not be used. Instead, the measures of the process and the result and the ways of “regulating” the process must come from mediation itself. Since mediation is based on party self-determination, the rules governing mediation should be aiming at promoting self-determination and prohibiting or minimizing practices that limit self-determination. The process should be defined, but the mediation process should not be regulated in detail. However, the legislator should clearly communicate the facilitative nature of the process, and the regulations should clearly state that techniques that diminish party self-determination, especially pressure tactics and directive tactics, are not allowed. As evaluations often are meant to be, or perceived by the parties as, directive and might pressure the parties to accept solutions they would not otherwise choose, evaluations should be restricted and discouraged. Additionally, the rules or regulations should discourage a narrow legal approach to dispute resolution and encourage creative, interest-based problem solving.¹⁶

Mediation should be confidential, to protect the creativity and problem-solving processes. Parties can openly discuss problems, interest and ideas both in private meetings and in normal sessions, knowing that the information they give will stay in the room. All proposals are confidential and only for the purpose of the mediation.

¹⁵ Menkel-Meadow (2012), Macfarlane (2002), Moore (2003), p. 56, Riskin (1984), p. 336, Menkel-Meadow (1991), pp. 1–3 and Lande (2007), pp. 640–658.

¹⁶ Menkel-Meadow (2012), Nolan-Haley (1998, 1999).

6.3 Mediation in Norway: The Many Ways

6.3.1 *The Four Roots of Mediation in Norway*

Norwegian culture can generally be described as conflict averse, wanting to reduce differences between groups and individuals. Norway is egalitarian: the distance between the elite and the people is rather short, and people are used to self-governance. Another important feature of the Norwegian society is pragmatism: a simple, practical solution will generally be chosen over fancier, more principled solutions. In Norway, finding an amicable solution to (especially relatively minor) legal disputes has traditionally been the preferred way of dispute resolution.

The first root of mediation is a cultural preference for settlement rather than fierce competition. In 1795, local conciliation boards (*forliksråd*) consisting of lay members were formally introduced as a first instance for minor cases. They were supposed to help the parties settle the case. In the small, tight-knit communities, with little social and economic inequality, settling cases was an advantage over a potentially disruptive escalation of the conflict. Additionally, settlement is usually cheaper and faster than proceeding to trial. Therefore, mediation as in promoting settlement fits the conflict averse and pragmatic Nordic culture and has been a part of the court system for centuries.¹⁷

In the Civil Procedure Act of 1915, the tradition was strengthened when the District Courts and the Courts of Appeal were given a right to work towards settlement. The activity was, and still is, called mediation (*mekling* or *ordinær mekling*).

Second, mediation, or settlement, allows for greater lay participation in dispute resolution as the conflict is not solved by legal rules. Lay participation has a strong tradition in Norway: the conciliation boards allowed respected members of the local community to aid the parties in solving their dispute. Lay participation through mediation was discussed in the 1970s as a consequence of the growing dissatisfaction with the increasingly professionalized and specialized dispute resolution in courts. The famous article “Conflicts as Property” in 1977 by the Norwegian sociologist Nils Christie initiated a new turn to involve the parties, lay members and the entire community in conflict resolution. When settling a case, the parties can determine the outcome and do not have to rely on the courts to decide for them and for the parties to find good solutions rather than being restricted to the reparation provided by the law.¹⁸

The third root of civil mediation in Norway is the facilitative, interest-based mediation in the ADR movement, which emerged in the United States in the 1970s. The movement is based on research on conflicts, conflict resolution, negotiation,

¹⁷ Vindeløv (2007), p. 2 and 14–16, Adrian (2012), pp. 33–39, Bernt (2011), pp. 100–101 and Sunde (2005), pp. 222–224.

¹⁸ Christie (1977).

communication and creative problem solving and promises better solutions to conflicts. These ideas were transported to Norway in the 1990s.

The fourth “root” of the mediation movement, especially court-connected mediation, is the argument that mediation saves costs and time, not that it offers an opportunity for a better process and better results. Facilitative, interest-based mediation has been “co-opted” or “legalized”, becoming “litimediation”,¹⁹ after it was introduced on a large scale in the USA in the 1980s and 1990s. The prime argument for doing mediation or promoting settlements is “production” of dispute resolution, not offering a different process to produce better or “quality” results. Mediation is used instrumentally to reach a solution faster rather than using it in the facilitative, interest-based way to reach better, or different, results.

6.3.2 *The Current Mediation Landscape in Norway*

Conciliation boards (*forliksråd*) have been an important arena for solving civil disputes in Norwegian society since 1795. One of the main functions has been to help the parties to reach settlement on an early stage. Conciliation boards are still part of the court system, although they are not formally defined as courts. According to the Dispute Act, general civil cases start in the Conciliation boards, although they have only limited powers to decide cases. Since 1915, judges have had an explicit power to promote settlement. Mediation as in helping the parties to reach settlement has long roots in Norwegian law.

Because the Conciliation boards only have lay members, and they have only limited powers to decide cases, the Dispute Act has separate provisions for general courts and Conciliation boards. The two first forms of mediation in Norway can be characterized as settlement conferences: one set of rules in the Dispute Act is for settlement conferences in Conciliation boards; another set is for courts. “Mediation” in Conciliation boards is usually referred to as *forliksmekling* (literally, settlement mediation) and “mediation” in courts as *ordinær mekling* (literally, ordinary mediation), although judicial settlement activities or settlement conference would be a better term.

In the early 1980s, the modern mediation movement reached Norway. Inspired by restorative justice and neighborhood justice movements, Nils Christie introduced (restorative neighborhood) mediation as a way to promote greater party participation, community involvement and better outcomes. The third way of mediation, and the first to rely on the modern principles of facilitative interest-based mediation, the National Mediation Service, was born. The mediation is called *megling i konfliktråd* (mediation in the National Mediation Service).

In the 1990s, American-style court-connected mediation was introduced in a pilot project. It was supposedly based on the ideas of facilitative, interest-based

¹⁹ Lande (1997), p. 841 and Galanter (1985), p. 1.

mediation but with clear influences from the “co-opted”, legalized version, where traditional lawyering skills and the traditional role of the judge were important. As a result, the Dispute Act of 2005 introduced court-connected mediation in both Conciliation Boards and general courts as a supplement to judicial settlement activities. This form of “mediation” is called *rettsmekling* (literally, legal mediation) but is translated to judicial mediation in English and *forliksmekling* (literally, settlement mediation) in the Conciliation Boards.

Finally, the Dispute Act has some rules on out-of-court mediation for parties who want to try it before filing the case. The rules are applicable only if the parties agree to use the procedure set forth in the Dispute Act. If the parties chose to use the services of the Norwegian Bar Association and the Oslo Chamber of Commerce, or make their own rules, the mediation process does not fall under the Dispute Act.

The name Dispute Act reflects a change from viewing trials as the centerpiece of civil procedure to an emphasis on dispute resolution and settlement. Court-connected mediation supplements traditional judicial settlement activities, and the parties are required to try to reach an amicable solution before filing the case. The duty to try to reach an amicable solution can be considered as the seventh form of mediation mentioned in the law. However, the law does not require the parties to engage in formal mediation, only to make a reasonable effort through negotiation or other ways to solve the dispute, *i.e.* by mediation or by letting a special board suggest a solution. Therefore, I will not include it in the presentation.

The six forms of mediation regulated by law can be divided into three categories depending on the phase of litigation: out-of-court mediation, mediation in conciliation boards and mediation in courts. There are two different types of mediation in both the conciliation boards and in the courts: court-connected mediation and judicial settlement activities. Next, the different categories of mediation will be discussed.

A summary of the different forms of mediation can be found in Table 6.1.

6.4 Out-of-Court Mediation

6.4.1 Out-of-Court Mediation (*Utenrettslig Mekling*)

The Dispute Act introduced regulation on out-of-court mediation. Earlier parties could choose mediation, but a mediation clause could not be directly enforced by the courts. The parties can now enter a written clause on mediation referring to the rules in Chap. 7 of the Dispute Act. The parties must mediate before filing the case.

The parties can choose to make their own provisions in the agreement to mediate, agree to use an organization that offers mediation services or, in the absence of an agreement, use the subsidiary provisions in the Dispute Act Chap. 7.

The Act states that the out-of-court mediator must be impartial and independent. The mediator shall follow the procedure designated by the parties, unless it harms

Table 6.1 Mediation in Norway

	Dispute Act	Parties meet in person	Evaluation allowed	Private meetings allowed	Taking evidence possible	Legal norms decisive	Confidentiality	Directly enforceable contract ^f	Who pays mediator
Facilitative mediation	N/A	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	N/A	N/A
Mediation services	No	Yes	Yes, but discouraged	Yes, but discouraged	No	No	No	No	State
Out-of-court mediation	Yes	Depends	Yes	Yes	Yes	Depends	Yes ^c	No	Parties ^d
Conciliation board	Yes	Yes ^a	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	State
Conciliation board—no judgment	Yes	Yes ^a	Yes	Yes, but discouraged	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	State
Settlement activities	Yes	No	No	No	No ^b	Yes	No	Yes	State
Court-connected mediation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Depends	Yes ^c	Yes	State/ parties ^e

^aParties who live near the Conciliation Board must meet in person

^bDepends on the stage of the proceedings at which the settlement activities are conducted

^cA party who makes an offer of settlement may demand that the offer be recorded

^dRemuneration can be regulated

^eWhen the mediator is not a judge, the mediator will be remunerated according to the legal aid rates

^fThe parties can always choose to keep the settlement as a normal contract rather than a contract comparable to a court decision

the conduct of the mediation. If there are no rules decided on in advance, the mediator determines the procedure, having consulted the parties. The mediator may propose solutions and give evaluations. Mediation is confidential, but the mediator must keep a record stating who has participated. Parties can call witnesses and have written evidence. The identity of a third party giving testimony must be recorded, and a party who makes an offer of settlement may demand that the offer be recorded. If the parties reach a settlement or if one of the parties or the mediator wants to end the mediation, the mediation must be ended and the mediator must record the ending of mediation. Additionally, there are a few provisions on the remuneration of the mediator and how the court shall decide who will act as a mediator.

The procedure is little known and little used. It has almost no advantages compared to other, nonregulated forms of out-of-court mediation. Out-of-court mediation will not have an effect on statutes of limitations, and a settlement is considered a contract, not a decision by court. The primary advantage is that the administrative fees of the courts are lower than the fees of the Norwegian Bar Association and the Oslo Chamber of Commerce, which offer mediation services.

The rules on mediation do not protect parties from mediator pressure or direction, nor do they clearly state that the results should be based on the interest of the parties and the self-determination of the parties. The general expectation on confidentiality is also not respected, as the parties have the right to demand that any offer of settlement be recorded. Thus, a party can later claim costs, as the opposing party rejected a favorable or reasonable offer of settlement. Consequently, the trust building that mediation to a high degree is dependent on is undermined.

6.4.2 National Mediation Service (*Konfliktrådet*)

The National Mediation Service is an agency providing community mediation services. It is based on the ideas of informal justice, and especially Nils Christie's ideas on community justice and restorative justice. The services were introduced in the 1980s and became a part of the legal system in 1992, when the National Mediation Service Act was enacted. Annually, about 4,300 civil cases are mediated by the National Mediation Service, in addition to an equal amount of criminal cases. Many cases in the civil track are originally criminal cases.²⁰ The cases are sent to the civil track usually because the perpetrator is below the age of criminal responsibility or because the case is of a very minor character and the background of it is an ongoing dispute or disagreement in a family or in a neighborhood or community.²¹ The idea is that a lay mediator helps the parties themselves solve the conflict according to their own needs, and focus is on communication, understanding and

²⁰ Statistikk (2012).

²¹ Eide and Gjertsen (2009), pp. 6–7.

restoring balance. The National Mediation Service has local service offices with full-time employees, but the mediators are lay members from local communities and receive a short training.²²

According to Section 1 of the National Mediation Service Act, cases can be filed when “[o]ne or more persons have inflicted damage or loss on or otherwise offended another person”. However, the case must be factually clear, and the parties must agree on the main facts. The injured party does not state any legal grounds for the claim, nor do the claims have to be legally recognized. The lay mediator facilitates the process of reaching understanding between the parties and of reparation and reconciliation. Although there is formally no restriction on use of private meetings and on the mediator suggesting solutions, and the Regulations on Mediation Service Section 13 expressly allows suggestions for solutions, these are generally not encouraged. All documents encourage party decision making and creative solutions. Section 13 should therefore be interpreted as opening for the mediator giving examples or general suggestions rather than specific solutions.²³ Legal representation is prohibited to ensure the informal nature of mediation and to reach reconciliation. The outcome is not legally binding for the parties, but the mediator may choose not to approve the agreement if it is not balanced or if one party has pressured the other party into accepting it. The proceedings do not have an impact on statutes of limitations, and any agreement is enforceable as a general contract.

The mediation itself fulfills the hallmarks of interest-based, facilitative mediation, and it is confidential. This form of mediation is little known among lawyers, and therefore cases are seldom referred by lawyers and courts to the National Mediation Service. The government has, however, expressed an interest in increased use of this form of mediation, but so far little has been done.²⁴

6.5 Conciliation Board (*Forlikrådet*)

The conciliation boards (*forlikråd*) are quasi-first instance, but they are not officially courts. According to the Dispute Act, general civil cases start in the local conciliation boards with a few important exceptions. All family cases and administrative cases (there are no administrative courts) go directly to the District Courts, and all cases worth at least NOK 125,000 (approximately € 16,000) where both parties have legal representation may start at the District Court. The cases in the conciliation boards are decided by lay people, chosen by the local government.

²² Holmboe (2002), pp. 22–23.

²³ Holmboe (2002), pp. 35 and 77.

²⁴ Økt bruk av konfliktråd. Rapport fra arbeidsgruppe som har vurdert rettslige og praktiske tiltak for mer bruk av gjenopprettende prosess. Arbeidsgruppe nedsatt av Justis- og politidepartementet (2011), p. 101.

The boards have a part- or full-time administrative employer in addition to the lay members.

The Conciliation boards have only a limited right to decide contested cases, according to Section 6-2 of the Dispute Act, as the lay judges do not have legal training and the hearing is brief and there are restrictions to taking evidence. The procedure is usually quite speedy, as all cases should be dealt with during one short hearing within three months of filing of the case. The Conciliation boards handle annually about 115,000 cases, 70 % of which are decided by default judgments or are otherwise noncontested. If the case is contested, the board helps the parties to reach a settlement and can eventually decide the case if the facts are sufficiently clear and the case is relatively easy. A settlement is reached in less than 4 % of all cases, and slightly more than 3 % of cases are decided by the board.²⁵ Difficult cases are transferred to the local District Court. Cases decided by the Conciliation boards can be appealed to the District Courts.

Conciliation boards are a historic relic from times when local communities were given limited jurisdiction on small claims, and reflects the cherished element of lay judges. They are a perpetually debated institution in Norwegian law. Attempts to limit their position have, however, so far failed.

There are two sets of rules governing mediation in the conciliation boards. One is inspired by the traditional settlement activities of judges, the other of the more recent interest-based mediation. Both forms of mediation are called *forliksmekling* (settlement mediation).

The rules mirroring judicial settlement activities in Section 6-8 prohibit the panel from proposing solutions or expressing its views on how the case should be solved. Private meetings are not allowed. The rules reflect the same changes that have been made to rules on judicial settlement activities in the regular court. The parties may opt for a hearing in camera. I will discuss these rules in the section on mediation in courts.

If the parties declare that they do not want the Conciliation Board to decide the case, mediation may be conducted in the same way as court-connected mediation, i.e. private meetings and evaluation are allowed. The rules for court-connected mediation mirror the rules on court-connected mediation in general courts, and thus have the same problems. I will discuss this in the section on mediation in courts.

There are, additionally, three specific problems related to the rules. First, the lay panel of judges does not have any mediation training, and can therefore not be expected to use specific mediation techniques, making the process less efficient. Second, the Conciliation Board hearings are very brief, usually about 30 min. Thus, there is not enough time for a full mediation process. Third, compared to the National Mediation Service, cases are legalized, defined in legal terms, as lawyers have usually been involved in the case, and the parties have filed the case.

Mediation in conciliation boards have two major benefits over mediation in the National Mediation Service: the filing of a case will in itself have an impact on the

²⁵ Statistics received from the Norwegian Ministry of Justice, on file with author.

statute of limitations, and the parties may choose to make a settlement pursuant to the provisions in Section 19-11, which means that the settlement can be enforced as a judgment.²⁶

6.6 Mediation in the Courts

6.6.1 “Mediation”, Judicial Settlement Activities (*Ordinær Mekling*)

Section 8-1 of the Dispute Act gives the court a general obligation to consider “at each stage of the case consider the possibility of a full a partial amicable solution. . .”. The judicial settlement activities can be conducted during the preliminary hearing of the case or during the trial. According to Section 8-2, the judge may not have private meetings, propose solutions, give advice or opinions that “could impair confidence in the impartiality of the court”. The judge must keep to her role as an impartial judge and must be able to decide the case if settlement is not reached. However, the judge may try to persuade the parties to settle by informing the parties about the possible disadvantages of a full hearing and the advantages of settling and suggest that they might reach a better result by reassessing their claims.²⁷

In my opinion, judicial settlement activities should not be called mediation in English. The process is strictly settlement focused; the judge is, in my opinion, correctly prohibited from using mediation techniques and, therefore, the ability to generate “better” outcomes. In Norwegian, such activities have been called *mekling*, mediation, for a long time. However, the overly broad definition and use of the word mediation is not easily changed, as it is deeply rooted in the language.

The rules on judicial settlement activities are clearly a useful tool for judges. The prohibition to have private meetings and to give evaluations are important measures to protect the parties against pressure and to protect to integrity of the process and of the judge.

6.6.2 “Judicial Mediation”, Court-Connected Mediation (*Rettsmekling*)

Court-connected mediation was introduced in 2008, after several courts had tested it for some years. It is regulated in Sections 8-3 to 8-7 of the Dispute Act. Court-

²⁶ For more details see Rønning et al. (2008).

²⁷ Also see Bernt (2011).

connected mediation can be initiated by the parties or by the judge. Generally, the judge cannot mandate mediation against the will of the parties. The judge must consider if the case is appropriate for mediation: differences in power, earlier attempts on mediation and the matter of the case are important factors that should be taken into account.

The judge responsible for case management can mediate herself, or she can send the case for mediation to another judge at the court or to a mediator on the panel of mediators at the court. If a judge mediates the case and mediation does not result in a full solution of the case, she cannot hear and decide the case in trial.

The mediation process is regulated in Section 8-5. The mediator decides the process but must discuss it with the parties first. The process must be such that the independence and impartiality of the mediator is not compromised, and the mediator must “seek to clarify the parties’ interests”. Private meetings are expressly allowed, and the mediator is allowed to evaluate by identifying possible solutions and discussing strengths and weaknesses of the parties cases. Additionally, the parties might present evidence during mediation. Mediation is not considered a regular court hearing and is thus confidential. The mediator only records the parties, the case, place and date. However, if one party gives a settlement offer, this may be protocolled at the party’s request.²⁸

According to the *travaux préparatoires*, court-connected mediation is supposed to be interest based. However, mediation is described as an evaluative process, the primary purpose of which is to help the parties reach settlement as quickly as possible, not finding better results and enhancing party self-determination and creative problem solving. Therefore, the opinion of the legislator on which model of mediation to follow is unclear.²⁹

Regulation of mediation expressly allows methods that are contrary to generic mediation. First, evaluation is allowed, although it distorts the parties from finding their solution and gives an impression of the judge being omniscient. Second, the parties should not be able to decide the process of mediation, as this is the task of the mediator, and the process needs to be flexible depending on how the case evolves. Third, the rules allow taking evidence, although establishing “the truth” is not necessary in mediation. On the contrary, mediation is not a battle about the past but a question of focusing on finding a solution that will change the future, and the role of the mediator is not to decide the case. Therefore, taking evidence might turn the process from cooperation and problem solving to competition and making judgments. Fourth, making records of settlement offers is a breach against the rule of confidentiality in mediation. Mediation seizes being a safe haven for negotiation, when parties can later use settlement offers as a means of pressuring the other party.

The concept and principles of mediation behind the rules are unclear, and the benefits of interest-based facilitative mediation are compromised. In my opinion, it seems that the legislator did not know enough about mediation and mediation

²⁸ See also Bernt 2011.

²⁹ NOU (2001): 32, pp. 214–229 and Ot.prp. nr. 51 (2004–2005), pp. 113–125.

research before enacting it. Therefore, the rules allow almost any mediator behavior, and mediation can be conducted as almost any kind of ADR process.

Research, and anecdotal evidence, shows that court-connected mediation is generally conducted with a narrow legal focus: to reach a settlement resembling the probable outcome in trial or a legally speaking sound solution. Often, almost all of the process is conducted in private meetings, with little or no interaction between the parties. The legal definition of the problem is adopted, the interests of the parties are rarely discussed and the mediator evaluates the case after a short introduction from the attorneys. The mediator often uses highly evaluative and directive techniques.³⁰ In its case law, the Supervisor Committee for Judges has accepted the use of heavy indirect pressure and directive techniques.

Court-connected mediation is therefore, like much of court-connected mediation in the USA, not facilitative and interest based but rather a form of nonbinding arbitration or a form of (early neutral) evaluation. Mediation is generally narrow and highly evaluative. The parties have only formally self-determination, as the pressure to settle is high.

6.7 Comparing the Six Different Forms of Mediation

The six different forms of mediation fall into three different categories when analyzing the form of dispute resolution they are based on. This categorization is different from the organizational and chronological categorization used above. First, there is the judicial settlement activity model, where the court or board acts in the role of a judge and the idea is to settle the case. “Mediation” as judicial settlement activities and the similar process in the Conciliation boards form this group. Second, the rules for the National Mediation Service are based on a view of purely facilitative, interest-based and restorative mediation. The third group consists of mediation understood broadly as almost any type of ADR. This covers court-connected mediation (judicial mediation), the “mediation” in Conciliation boards, which mirrors the rules for the courts and out-of-court mediation.

The first model, judicial settlement activities, should not be called mediation, at least in English. Albeit the Norwegian term *mekling* is widely spread and therefore cannot easily be replaced by a more fitting word, *mekling* should not be translated to mediation. Judicial settlement activities, whether in Conciliation boards or courts, are a continuation of the Nordic–Germanic tradition, where the role of the judge is more active than in traditional common law jurisdictions. The judicial settlement activities are confined by the role of the judge, that is, the judge or panel of judges may not engage in activities that will make the judge seem impartial or prejudiced, such as having private meetings, recommending solutions or predicting what a result in trial would be. The judge can, however, encourage the parties to consider

³⁰ Mykland (2010), Mykland and Schei (2007), Mykland et al. (2009), and Knoff (2001).

their interest on a more general level. Judicial settlement activities are an important part of the Norwegian civil procedure system, and judges should make use of them whenever appropriate. However, it is very important to understand that working for settlement is something very different from using facilitative, interest-based mediation. The language is therefore confusing.

Judicial settlement activities are an important part of the Norwegian legal tradition, and they are a way to find a resolution cheaper and quicker than in a trial. Therefore, they are an important part of the civil procedure. However, they do not offer an alternative to the traditional way of solving legal disputes or promote different results.

The legislation on judicial settlement activities in courts and Conciliation boards are appropriate. Private meetings are not allowed, nor are evaluations of what an outcome might be or recommendation of an outcome. The legal rules do not dictate what the parties can settle on, but law forms a framework for the parties to operate within. As the activity is within regular civil procedure, evidence can be taken, the state pays for the process (not counting court fees) and parties can decide that the settlement is enforceable as a judgment.

The second way of mediation, and the only one outside the court system, is facilitative, interest-based mediation offered by the National Mediation Service. This is facilitative and interest-based mediation, where the emphasis is on party self-determination and party empowerment. The role of the mediator is to facilitate dialogue and understanding and to promote problem solving and finding solutions that are “outside the box”. Unfortunately, this form of mediation has a relative disadvantage as the settlement is not enforceable as a judgment, nor are statutes of limitations affected. Private meetings are discouraged, which might be a problem for some type of disputes, especially disputes involving economic interests. As the parties may not bring a legal representative, this form of mediation is little known among lawyers and is usually best suited for minor cases.

The third form of mediation, “judicial mediation” or, more correctly, court-connected mediation, is the newest addition to the mediation map. Although judges or a panel of lay judges in Conciliation boards usually will serve as mediators, they are not bound by their role as the judge. The rules on the definition, limits and purpose of the process are not clear.

Research shows that the mediators, who are generally judges, use traditional legal approaches to defining the process, their role as third party neutrals, the role of the parties and a “good” outcome. Many mediation sessions are conducted either as “mini-arbitration/trials”, where the lawyers present the case and the judge mediator then predicts the outcome by telling the parties the way he or she would decide the case. Others offer pure shuttle mediation, where the parties are in separate rooms almost throughout the process. Many mediators use pressure and directive techniques; evaluations seem to be the norm rather than a last resort. The definition of the problem is narrow and usually highly legal and the discussion narrow, focused on details, rather than finding good solutions. Mediation is seldom facilitative and interest based; the mediators do generally not facilitate creative, interest-based, norm creating problem-solving processes and enhance party self-determination and

empowerment.³¹ The rules expressly allow mediator evaluations; the training offered to mediators is limited; the *travaux préparatoires*, which is a highly important source of law, stresses reaching settlement fast and efficiently rather than party self-determination and creative problem solving.³² The judge mediators will generally have a direct interest in settling the case in mediation, as this will directly reduce the workload of their own and their colleagues.

The Supervisory Committee for Judges has accepted that court-connected mediation is conducted as a nonbinding mini-arbitration or heavily evaluative mediation, as long as the mediator does not use heavy direct pressure on the parties. The regulation of court-connected mediation is inadequate at best and does not reflect the needs of protecting party self-determination and encouragement of exploration of the issues and interest underlying the dispute, nor does it reflect finding creative and integrative solutions.

The parties have lost most of the advantages of mediation: confidentiality, conflict reduction, interest-oriented solutions and the possibility to craft creative solutions for the future. As the rules allow mediator evaluation, and directive mediation techniques, party self-determination is diluted, and parties must accept indirect pressure to settle the case. Additionally, the Norwegian rules cater for strategic use of the mediation process, as parties can show evidence to the mediator and use offers of settlement in a later trial.

Judges have very limited training in mediation, the members of the Conciliation boards have none and the court-connected (attorney) mediators usually only have about 20 h of mediation training. Such training is far too little to “unlearn” traditional lawyering skills and the way of thinking of judges and to learn the knowledge and skills a good facilitative mediator needs.

The result is a process that often bears little resemblance to the ideas of facilitative mediation and that is highly unpredictable for other than repeat players, who have experience with working with the particular mediator and therefore know what kind of a process to expect. The parties have very little protection from mediator pressure, and the prediction the mediator gives the parties is based on very limited materials and is offered without the legal safeguards of procedural law: an adversarial hearing, giving evidence, having time to argue one’s case and getting a reasoned, public decision.

When the six forms of general civil mediation available in Norway are compared to the principles and concept of facilitative, interest-based mediation, the results are meager. Judicial settlement activities are quite different from facilitative mediation, as they should be, but court-connected mediation, and out-of-court mediation as the regulation mimics court-connected mediation, is often far from facilitative and interest based. The only truly facilitative type of mediation, the mediation offered by the National Mediation Service, has some disadvantages as the statutes of

³¹ Mykland (2010).

³² NOU (2001): 32, pp. 218–230, Ot.prp. nr. 41 (1995–1996) Om lov om endringer i tvistemålsloven (rettsmekling) pp. 2–7, Ot.prp. nr. 51 (2004–2005), pp. 112–126.

limitations is not affected and the agreement can never be enforceable as a judgment. As the parties are barred from having legal representation, the process is not suitable for all kinds of disputes. In commercial disputes and disputes involving important economic interest, the parties do not in practice have access to facilitative interest-based dispute resolution.

6.8 Thoughts on the Many Ways of Mediation in Norway

The Norwegian system of civil mediation can be characterized as complex. There are six different ways of civil mediation regulated in law in addition to contract-based mediation. The six ways of mediation are partly overlapping, as mediation is offered by courts, Conciliation boards and the National Mediation Service, in addition to out-of-court mediation. Court-connected mediation is additionally practiced in many different ways, which means that it consists of several different ADR processes.

The reality is therefore that the National Mediation Service has underused services because it is not well known among lawyers and because there are some rules making participation risky in some cases. Court-administered out-of-court mediation is little used and little known. Court-connected mediation in conciliation boards is not very visible, as the rules are not clearly expressed in the law, and as the members of the board do not have any mediation training. Many of the services are therefore not used, although they could provide the parties with the most appropriate type of dispute resolution.

Court-connected mediation in general courts is far from satisfactory, especially considering the aim to offer facilitative, interest-based mediation and as the current situation makes the process unpredictable and difficult to control. Court-connected mediation can be conducted as almost any kind of process form purely facilitative to highly evaluative processes and even as non-binding adjudicative processes. Due to the considerable variation in how court-connected mediation is practiced, neither the parties, nor their lawyers or society at large, can predict what the process or the result will be like, nor is it possible to evaluate the process or mediator performance. The parties have few rights, and have no real remedies to resort to if they are dissatisfied with the process or the result. Thus, parties can be pressured into settling the case with practically no possibility to successfully challenge or complain about the mediator or the mediation process, as the Supervisor Board for Judges allows mediator pressure and trial-like processes. Because the awareness of the problems with court-connected mediation is low in Norway, there is little hope for imminent changes.

The current situation reflects a lack of understanding of what facilitative mediation is and how it should be conducted, what skills and knowledge it requires of the mediator, and how it can and should be regulated. Also, the situation shows the need for knowledge of dispute resolution systems design, *i.e.* understanding of different dispute resolution mechanisms, the organization of such mechanisms

inside and outside courts, discussion on the proper regulation of different mechanisms, and the creating a coherent system for solving disputes. Citizens in general probably have little or no information on the different processes. Therefore, the parties will not be able to make an informed decision on which mediation mechanism to choose, nor are they likely to get good advice from their lawyers. Many cases probably go to less-than-optimal systems of mediation due to the number of partly overlapping systems. By calling all systems *mekling* or *megling*, even though a definition is added to the word, makes it even more confusing.

The consequence is that many disputes are solved in less-than-optimal procedures, because the parties, and their lawyers, do not have sufficient information about the options and are not able to weigh the relative advantages and disadvantages of each procedure. The other important consequence is that facilitative, interest-based mediation is in fact generally not available to the parties. Hence, the parties and society at large miss its benefits: less adversarial and stressful processes, more cooperation, conflict reduction, and “better” outcomes, *i.e.* outcomes based on interests and a more holistic view of the needs of the parties. The mediation process in the National Mediation Service does not cater for the needs of parties in most cases, because the rules are not fitted to legal disputes, as the limitation periods are not affected, parties cannot have legal representation and there might be problems enforcing the settlement.

The six systems of mediation are overlapping and are not well defined. The reason is that ADR has not been developed in a consistent manner and systematically based on research, or at least solid knowledge. This is especially true for the third group of “mediation”. For instance, the conciliation boards seem to have few possibilities to offer facilitative mediation as the lay panel neither has the time to conduct such mediation, nor the training to do so. Hence, it would be better to consolidate the model for court-connected mediation in the conciliation boards with the truly facilitative mediation offered by the National Mediation Service.

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Chapter 7

Court-Connected Meditation in Finland: Experiences and Visions

Kaijus Ervasti

Abstract In the beginning of 2006, the Act on court-connected mediation (663/2005) entered into force, as did the Act on settlement certification in court (amendment Act 664/2005). These statutes introduced court-connected mediation to Finland, modelled on the experiments carried out in Norway and Denmark. Court-connected mediation is a procedure, voluntary to the parties and managed by the judge, aiming at a situation where the parties themselves find a satisfactory resolution of their conflict.

In the year 2011, new Act (394/2011) on court-connected mediation entered into force. With that Act, Finland has implemented Directive 2008/52 EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters. The legislative changes were quite small.

In the beginning of the year 2011 was started an experiment of expert-assisted family mediation in some district courts in Finland. In that system, the mediator has an auxiliary or co-mediator, who is typically a social worker or a psychologist. That system will be nationwide in the beginning of the year 2014.

Today, about 5,000 cases will be handled in court-connected mediation per year. It is about 6 % of all civil cases. In some district courts, almost 20 % of cases will be handled in court-connected mediation. In some district courts, there were no court-connected mediation cases at all.

7.1 Dispute Resolution in Finland

In the past few decades, the significance of alternative dispute resolution has increased in Europe. Also, in Finland, new methods for resolving disputes have been introduced. First, I will describe the methods of conflict resolution and

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mediation in Finland on a general level and then focus particularly on dispute resolution in courts and court-connected mediation.

The Finnish administration includes several institutions that, among other tasks, aim to resolve conflicts. Within the administration, there are different kinds of *advisory services* where disputes are resolved, such as the consumer advisory services. There are also several kinds of *ombudsmen*, such as the consumer ombudsman, who also take part in resolving disputes. The Finnish administration system includes even various *boards* that resolve conflicts. One such board is the Consumer Disputes Board which gives recommendations for solving disputes between businesses and consumers. Also, the public sector offers different kinds of *mediation services*. State institutions of this kind that take part in dispute resolution are typical of the Nordic welfare states.

In Finland, even the private sector has many kinds of systems for resolving conflicts. To resolve disputes, businesses make use of *arbitration*. Provisions on arbitration have been laid down in a separate act. Also, different business sectors have their own *self-regulatory systems* for resolving disputes. These include, among others, the Council for Mass Media in Finland, which supervises ethics in the media; the Finnish Bar Association's system for monitoring the ethics of advocates; and the Council of Ethics in Advertising. There are also different kinds of *mediation systems* in the private sector.

In Finland, there are several officially or unofficially organised systems of mediation for resolving conflicts in different sectors. Such systems include victim-offender mediation, peer mediation in schools, social mediation, family mediation, mediation by the Finnish Bar Association, workplace mediation, mediation by the Finnish Association of Civil Engineers, court-connected mediation and international peace mediation.

Victim-offender mediation was commenced at the beginning of the 1980s under the municipal social services. Such mediation is strongly linked with child welfare, youth work and social work. The focus of the mediation has been on juvenile crime, and most cases have concerned assaults, criminal damages and thefts. The mediators are volunteers who receive a brief training before they start working. At the beginning of 2006, a new Act on conciliation in criminal cases was enacted, and restorative justice is currently a strong ideological trend within mediation in criminal cases. Each year, there are approximately 10,000–13,000 cases of victim-offender mediation.¹

Over the past few years, *peer mediation* has rapidly become more common in Finnish schools.² In 2001, the Finnish Red Cross started to provide training for peer mediation. Victim-offender mediation has served as a model for peer mediation, which intends to reduce bullying and promote a peaceful working environment in schools. The aim is to decrease misbehaviour by fostering the life skills of pupils. In peer mediation, other pupils act as peer mediator pupils. The objective is to resolve the disputes directly with the help of a trained pupil. In the mediation, young pupils

¹ See Iivari (2010), Kinnunen et al. (2012).

² See Gellin (2011).

face each other, take responsibility for their actions and can contribute to creating a better atmosphere in the school. The system is relatively widely used within the Finnish basic education system.

The purpose of *social mediation* is to resolve multicultural disputes. Between 2002 and 2004, a project called “Let’s Talk” generated models for resolving disputes between people representing different nationalities and cultures. The aim of the project was also to promote the integration of refugees, increase tolerance and prevent potential criminality and racism. Since 2006, a project called KOTILO initiated by the Finnish Refugee Council has aimed at developing practices and models that improve living comfort for both immigrants and Finns. Within the project, the means for preventing conflicts have been advanced, *neighbour disputes have been resolved* and residents, as well as people working within housing, have been trained. Mediation can be requested by the disputing parties, other residents, property companies or other actors.

As for divorce cases, regulation on mediation in divorce matters has existed in Finland for over 60 years. *Family mediators* can, at request, provide help and support in the event of family disputes and conflicts that concern compliance with decisions and agreements on child custody and right of access. The primary aim of mediation is to protect the best interest of children. Family mediation is mainly a responsibility of municipal social welfare authorities, who typically have a university-level education. They shall help the parties to divorce cases to agree on the custody of the children and the right of access. There are even specific provisions on *resolving disputes concerning the implementation of decisions on child custody and right of access*. According to the provisions, the court is in principle required to designate a mediator or mediators to further the cooperation between the parties to an implementation dispute. Moreover, the family counselling centres of the Finnish Evangelical-Lutheran Church are concerned with issues regarding personal relationships, families and private life. Many of the issues concern disputes and conflicts in partner relationships.

A new phenomenon in Finland is *workplace mediation*.³ In workplace mediation, a company employs a mediator to assist in resolving conflicts within the work community. Disputes can, for instance, relate to workplace bullying. Conflicts in a work community can, in many ways be counterproductive for the operation and performance of the work community. In Finland, workplace mediation has been developed primarily on the basis of victim-offender mediation.

Mediation by the Finnish Association of Civil Engineers deals mostly with disputes concerning building projects.⁴ The building trade is an industry prone to conflicts as the projects often involve a network of multiple actors. Experts on the industry, as well as lawyers, can act as mediators. In connection with the mediation, it is also possible to choose a procedure that is based on an arbitration agreement and concludes when a settlement is reached.

³ See Pehrman (2011).

⁴ See Keinänen (2009).

In order to resolve different kinds of disputes, *the Finnish Bar Association* founded its own *system of mediation* in 1998. At the same time, its Mediation Rules were approved. The system is based on voluntariness. The parties to the dispute appoint an advocate to act as a mediator between them. As for now, only a few cases have been resolved within the system that is still evolving. In mediation by advocates, a facilitative approach has been adopted, which means that the mediator seeks to create a favourable atmosphere for the parties to resolve the matter mutually. Approximately, every third member of the Finnish Bar Association has attended a basic course in mediation.

In recent years, a possibility for *environmental mediation* has also been discussed.⁵ Mediation has not been taken into account in planning or in the permit procedure concerning changes in land use, although it could be used as a conflict-solving method. When it comes to administrative matters, there is no organised mediation in Finland.

International peace mediation, on the other hand, is a widely used procedure. There have been several internationally acknowledged Finnish peace mediators, such as Martti Ahtisaari, Pekka Haavisto and Harri Holkeri. International peace mediation focuses on international crisis management and prevention of violence.

7.2 Court-Connected Mediation: A New Judicial Institution

In Finland, there are general courts for criminal and civil proceedings and administrative courts for administrative matters. A civil case becomes pending in a district court where the proceedings are divided into written preparation, oral preparation and main hearing. Evidence is presented in the main hearing. The Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are higher court instances.

When it comes to civil proceedings in the Finnish general courts, there are two procedures that aim to solve the conflict amicably: the promotion of settlement in a civil procedure and court-connected mediation.⁶

According to the Finnish legislation, a judge is required to investigate the prospects for settling a civil case during its preparation and pursue an amicable resolution of the matter. A judge may also make a proposal for a settlement. Therefore, the *promotion of settlement in civil proceedings* is not a matter of mediation as such but a matter of promoting an amicable resolution in judicial proceedings.⁷ Many provisions on judicial proceedings restrict the actions of the judge in promoting a settlement. The objective is also that the reached settlement complies with the substantive law. The system was adopted in 1993. In the post-

⁵ Peltonen et al. (2012).

⁶ See Ervasti (2007).

⁷ Pel has called this kind of conflict resolution with term “compromising”. Pel (2008), pp. 44–45.

reform period, the number of settlements certified by the District Courts has risen nearly to 2,500 per year. This is a relatively high figure, when one considers that a total of 6,000 cases per year proceed to oral preparation or main hearing in the first place. Moreover, not all of parties who reach settlements request that they be certified. Many judges surmise that almost a half of the cases that they deal with end with one or another sort of settlement.⁸

In the beginning of 2006, the *Act on Court-connected mediation* (663/2005) entered into force, as did the amended provisions in the CJP on settlement certification in court (amendment Act 664/2005). These statutes introduced *court-connected mediation* to Finland, modelled on the experiments carried out in Norway⁹ and Denmark.¹⁰ Court-connected mediation is a procedure, voluntary to the parties and managed by the judge, aiming at a situation where the parties themselves find a satisfactory resolution of their conflict. The objectives of the new legislation are as follows:

1. to add to the palette of procedures available to the courts and to improve their service in the ever more complex area of dispute resolution;
2. to follow international developments in conflict resolution and to respond, in part, to the recommendations of the Council of Europe and the European Union regarding the introduction of alternatives to adjudication;
3. to reach the advantages that mediation has over regular adjudication and judgment (relationship of the parties, no winner/loser dichotomy, flexibility, final decision, compliance and enforcement);
4. to improve trust in courts;
5. to create a procedure that is cheaper, simpler and faster than going to court; and
6. to lower the threshold of seeking judicial redress.

The *Act on Mediation in Civil Matters and Confirmation of Settlements in General Courts* entered into force on 21 May 2011, repealing the previous Act. Compared to the previous regulations, the contents of the Act did not change significantly in 2011. The reform of 2011 implemented the EU Directive on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters (2008/52/EC). The legislative changes were quite small.

Court-connected mediation cases become pending in court either by way of a specific *mediation application* or a *request* attached to the application for a summons (action). The request may be made also later, during the preparatory stage of the court proceedings. A case in court-connected mediation may be closed by a settlement certified by the court or by the case being struck from the court docket. The case is struck from the docket if the parties cannot reach a settlement or if they do not wish to have their settlement certified. If the case is pending also as a regular adjudicative matter, the failure of mediation means that the civil proceedings are resumed and

⁸ Ervasti (2004).

⁹ See Bernt (2011), Nylund (2010).

¹⁰ See Adrian (2011).

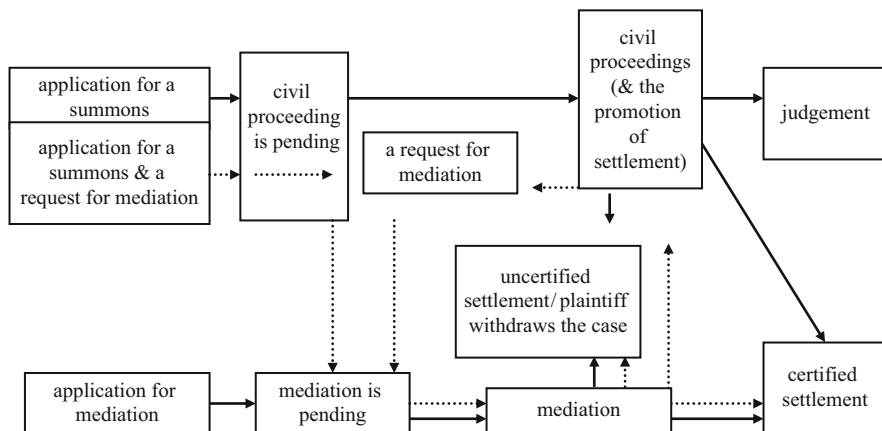


Fig. 7.1 Court-connected meditation in Finland

may then be closed by a judgment, by a certified settlement or by the case being struck from the docket. The following diagram shows the progress of a case in civil proceedings and in separate court-connected mediation proceedings (see Fig. 7.1).

7.3 Main Features

Disagreements arising from a legal relationship between the parties may be the subject matter of court-connected mediation. The disagreement must be by nature such that it could be dealt with as a civil dispute in regular adjudicative proceedings. Thus, mediation is possible in all types of civil cases, including family law cases, always provided that the interests of the child are upheld. That being said, mediation cannot be used in all situations. Mediation can be declined, e.g., when the parties are not equal, as this could lead to a situation where a party is incapable of pursuing his or her interests in an appropriate manner.

The court decides whether mediation is to be undertaken. If the case is pending also as a regular adjudicative matter, the court proceedings are interrupted for the duration of the mediation. A judge sitting in the court where the case is pending serves as the mediator. Thus, no one else but a judge can mediate in court-connected mediation in Finland. When a judge decides to refer parties to mediation, he or she self can continue as a mediator in the case or the mediator can be another judge of the same district court. Usually, in practice, another judge of district court act as a mediator.

In order to obtain necessary expertise or to further the progress of the mediation, the mediator may enlist an auxiliary mediator. The use of an auxiliary is subject to the consent of the parties. The parties bear the costs arising from the fee and the expenses of the auxiliary.

At the beginning of 2011, four district courts started an experiment with engaging expert assistance in matters regarding child custody, right of access and maintenance. The experiment is carried out within court-connected mediation. In the experiment, the mediator is assisted by experienced social worker or psychologist specialised in divorce mediation. The purpose of the experiment is to decrease the number of protracted trials concerning children and to reduce conflicts between the parents. The experiment is based on a Norwegian model for mediation in custody disputes. In the fall of 2012, the experiment has been extended to seven other district courts and is now ongoing in half of the Finnish district courts. That system will be nationwide in the beginning of the year 2014.

The mediation process can be informal; there are no detailed procedural provisions in the legislation. That being said, the mediation must proceed equitably and impartially. The mediator may also discuss the matter with each party separately if the parties consent to the same. According to law, “[t]he mediator shall assist the parties in their efforts to reach agreement and an amicable resolution”. In other words, primarily, Finnish court-connected mediation is by nature a facilitative effort. However, by the request or on the consent of the parties, the mediator may also make a settlement proposal. Secondly, therefore, Finnish court-connected mediation is evaluative by nature.¹¹

Mediation ends when (1) a settlement is certified or the parties notify the mediator that they have settled in some other manner, (2) a party notifies the mediator that he or she no longer wishes mediation in the case or (3) the mediator decides, after having heard the parties, that the continuation of mediation is no longer justified. If the case is pending as an adjudicative matter, it lapses upon the certification of the settlement. If the settlement covers only a part of the matter under dispute, the pending proceedings are resumed in respect to the remaining part. The mediator is disqualified from sitting as a judge in the case; another judge must be assigned to preside over the resumed proceedings.

Court-connected mediation in Finland is in principle open to the public, unlike in Norway and Denmark. Separate discussions with the parties proceed behind closed doors, however. On the request of a party, the mediation must be closed to the public also in other respects if the attainment of a settlement would otherwise be compromised and if trust in the appropriateness of the mediation or some other important reasons do not necessitate openness. In general terms, requests for closed proceedings should be granted. It is likely that court-connected mediation will, in most cases, be closed to the public.

It has been emphasised in the preparatory works of the legislation that court-connected mediation is a process presided over by a third person, by nature impartial and confidential, as well as voluntary. Some of the mentioned advantages of court-connected mediation over other forms of mediation are the independence

¹¹ Riskin has used the terms “facilitative” and “evaluative” mediation, Riskin (1996). See also Kovach and Love (1998). There are also other models of mediation. See, for example, Bush and Folger (2005), Winslade and Monk (2001), Ervasti (2011b), Vindeløv (2012).

and impartiality of the courts, as well as the trust that the courts enjoy. Another specific advantage of court-connected mediation is that the settlement can be certified as binding on the parties and that it can be enforced at once. In this respect, however, there is reason to note that an outcome reached together does not normally require specific “enforcement” measures, as compliance will occur without compulsion.

In a nutshell, court-connected mediation is *a voluntary process under the management of the judge, aiming at the parties themselves reaching a mutually satisfactory resolution of their conflict.*

It has been stressed in the preparatory works that it is not the purpose of court-connected mediation to reduce or otherwise alter the current situation as regards the promotion of settlement in civil proceedings. In most cases, court-connected mediation is available at an earlier stage of the dispute, that is, before the positions and claims of the parties have been assembled in accordance with the rules of civil procedure. According to the Bill, “a mediation process that builds on the situation of the parties and freely seeks a settlement acceptable to both is therefore useful as an addition to the measures that the court takes when it promotes settlement during the course of civil proceedings” (Bill no. 114/2004, pp. 5–6).

The specific procedure of court-connected mediation is thus a typical model of mediation that seeks to reach a settlement that accords with the needs and interests of the parties. The goal is not to reach an outcome that accords with the substantive law in force. By and large, the procedure can be arranged quite freely. This means that when a judge undertakes to serve as a mediator, he or she must let go of the earlier judicial role and assume a mindset that is quite different from that of an adjudicator.

By the end of 2012, approximately every third district judge ($n = 160$) has received a 3-day *basic training course* for mediation, where practical mediation skills are trained by role playing games. The basis for the mediation training is an interest-based facilitative mediation model. In the training, practical mediation skills are exercised through role play. Approximately, one in ten district judges ($n = 52$) has received a 2-day *advanced training course*.

7.4 Court-Connected Mediation in the Light of Empirical Data

From 2006 until 2008, the annual number of court-connected mediation cases was less than 100. Between 2009 and 2010, the number of cases was slightly higher, accounting annually for 1–2 % of the disputed civil cases. Since 2011, court-connected mediation cases have increased notably. There are currently 500 cases each year, which equals to 5 % of the disputed civil cases. The number of cases has increased, especially due to the expert-assisted experiment within custody disputes. In some district courts, almost 20 % of civil cases will be handled in court-

connected mediation. In some district courts system has used very seldom. In the year 2013, there was 692 court-connected mediation cases in district courts. About 60 % of all cases are in this time family law cases (see Fig. 7.2).

The Research Institute of Legal Policy has made a research of court-connected mediation.¹² Research material was all court documents of the court-connected mediation cases in the years 2006–2009. During the years 2006–2009 in Finland, court-connected mediation was requested in 412 cases, out of which mediation was started in 358 cases. This means that when court-connected mediation is requested, it starts in 86 % of the cases. The most common reason keeping the mediation from starting is the unwillingness of the other party.

Thus, in Finland, the mediation system has come into operation relatively *slowly*. Also, the use of court-connected mediation varies greatly from court to court. Since the way of action in question is brand new and deviates from the judges' traditional role, it is an advantage that the system hasn't expanded, before the bench has been sufficiently instructed on mediation.

Court-connected mediation is used in *all kinds of civil cases* that are otherwise anyway dealt with in courts, especially in cases between private persons (62 %). The parties also usually have legal counsels in mediation (in 68 % for both parties). The average disputed interest in cases (median) was 16,274 euros. The amount is equivalent to the mean interest value of civil cases in court. The key cases in court-connected mediation from a private person's point of view are disputes relating to family and residing (see Fig. 7.3).

In approximately a fourth of the cases, court-connected mediation had been brought up with a separate application for mediation, and in three-quarters of the cases, by a request for mediation. In about two-thirds of the cases, mediation was applied for by the plaintiff, and in one third, by the defendant. It came apparent that in several cases, the judge had suggested court-connected mediation to the parties.

Typically, *court-connected mediation starts* in 2–3 months from the arrival of the mediation application or the request for mediation and in 1–2 months, after the decision to commence court-connected mediation. Thus, court-connected mediation starts clearly more rapidly than a trial. In the most common cases, only one mediation session is held, which lasts typically for a little less than 3 h. This is common in various mediation systems (see Table 7.1).

In Finnish court-connected mediation, approximately two-thirds of the cases end up with a settlement (68 %), which is a quite common number in different mediation systems. Usually, the agreements in disputes concerning money are settled somewhere in the middle range¹³ of the parties claims, but in many cases, both parties drop their claims and/or another creative solution is found. Various individual outcome alternatives seem to indicate that court-connected mediation

¹² See Ervasti (2011a).

¹³ The outcome has been thought to be in the middle range if it has fitted in the 20 % marginal on either side of the exact centre point.

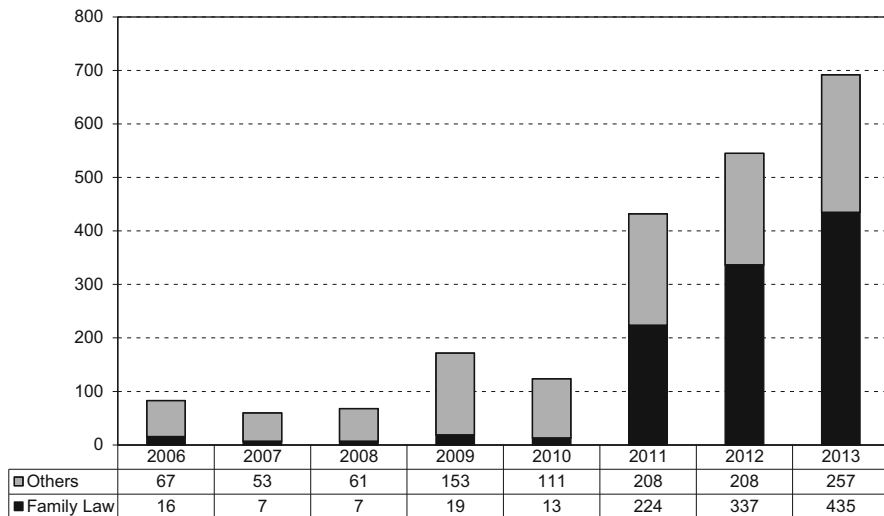


Fig. 7.2 Rates of court-connected meditation cases in district courts, 2006–2012

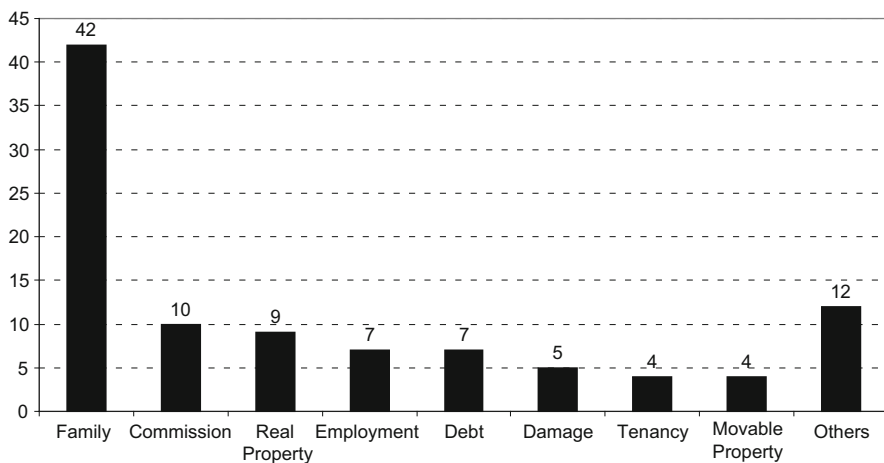


Fig. 7.3 Court-connected meditation cases, 2006–February 2013 (per cents; n = 1,550)

truly endeavours to satisfy the interests and needs of the parties and is not just about striving towards standard compromise solutions (see Fig. 7.4).

All in all, based on the documentary material, it seems that court-connected mediation, when successful, is a functional conflict resolution alternative for the traditional trial. The proceedings are quicker, they help control risks, they enable more versatile outcome possibilities and they keep the relations between the parties better.

Table 7.1 Commencing and concluding court-connected meditation by case groups (n = 412)

	Mediation commenced	Mediation not commenced	Settlement	Commencing percentage (%)	Settlement percentage (%) ^a
Family and inheritance	51	15	36	77	71
Real property	62	5	48	93	77
Building contracts	48	6	29	88	60
Movable property	38	7	24	84	63
Dept	34	4	21	89	62
Employment	30	2	19	94	63
Damages	25	5	18	93	72
Tenancy	12	2	9	86	75
Corporation and foundation ^b	27	1	14	96	51
Others	31	7	20	82	65
Total	358	54	241	86	68

^aPartial settlements concluded as well

^bIn practice, these are usually disputes relating to condominiums, these meaning disputes between neighbours

7.5 Change of Court Culture

The introduction in 1993 of settlement promotion and oral preparation in the courts and the introduction in 2006 of court-connected mediation are major change agents as regards court culture. It is no longer possible to hold that the courts are solely in the business of directing conduct or of providing protection under the law. Besides these traditional tasks, conflict resolution has become a more and more important aspect of court work. The courts do not only resolve legal disputes, but they often also strive towards amicable outcomes, so that the conflict between the parties is resolved holistically and conclusively.

It can well be said that Finnish court procedure is moving away from the ideals of material law and a substantively correct judgment and towards the ideal of negotiated and contextual law.¹⁴ It is no longer enough that the procedure meets the requirements of formal justice, but it must meet also the requirements of perceived procedural justice. In our times, the courts must be aware of the views of the parties regarding the quality of court work and the fairness of the trial. In short, the judicial role is undergoing a tremendous change.

Over the past decade, there has been a debate about the fragmentation of the law and about the role of justice in postmodern society. Some mention has been made

¹⁴ See Haavisto (2002).

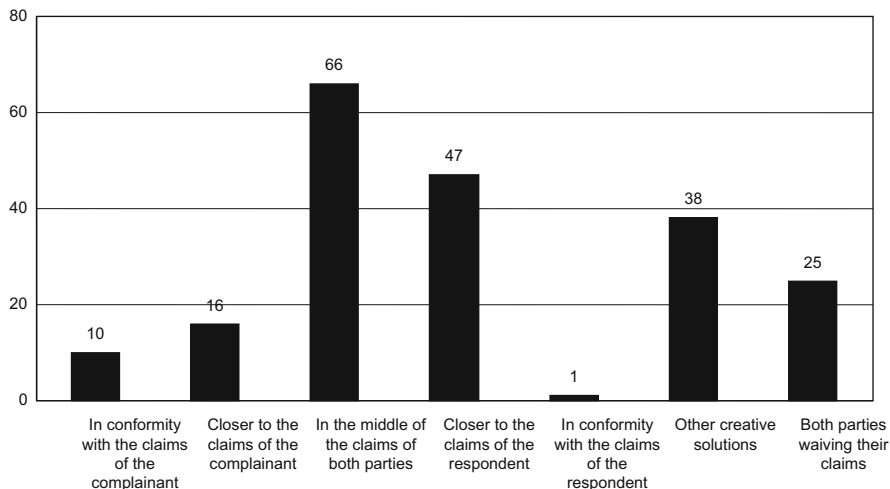


Fig. 7.4 The outcome of the cases settled (n = 203)

also of “postmodern lawyering”, where the lawyer must come forth from behind the barrier of the legal system; thus, a judge who encounters a difficult case cannot hide behind abstract legal concepts, but he or she must face the moral issues and take moral responsibility of the ruling. In a system such as this, the personality and the personal responsibility of the judge are brought into sharper relief.¹⁵

It appears that not all judges are yet in possession of adequate tools and skills—such as interaction and communication skills—for this new situation. There would be a clear need to develop incentives for the customers to participate in the discourse of the professionals, tools to grasp the customer’s way of conceiving the conflict, as well as methods to manage the customers so that this promotes the settlement of the conflict and prompts the experience of justice being done.

When all is said and done, alternative conflict resolution and various mediation procedures have gained in importance over the past decades in all developed countries. In Finland, the development has occurred as late as in the 2000s. The development is a reflection of change in Western culture in general, not only in our courts.

The increasing importance of alternative dispute resolution has, in many comments, been linked to the privatisation of the law, legal pluralism, polycentrism, the increase of cross-border legal relationships, social ruptures and postmodern law. The phenomenon has likewise been linked to judicialisation and litigiousity, “bargaining in the shadow of law”, problems in access to justice and reflexive justice. Many have argued that Western adjudication is in crisis. Court caseloads have been growing for a long time, but at the same time the long duration and high cost of court proceedings

¹⁵ Wilhelmsson (2001), Dalberg-Larsen (1999).

have prevented individuals from getting justice through the courts. People have turned their attention to out-of-court alternatives. Some have stated that in the postmodern society justice has become flexible, multifunctional and contextual, thereby losing its unitary nature.

An American scholar, Menkel-Meadow, has postulated that the Western, adversarial court system is no longer the best means for dispute resolution in today's postmodern, multicultural world. According to her views, the truth is illusory, incomplete, ambiguous and dependent on knower and knowledge, as well as, more importantly, complex. The increased complexity of modern proceedings, as well as modern life in general, means that most conflicts now have more than two parties. A multiparty and multiple conflict will become distorted if they have to be expressed as a two-party relationship. The courts, for instance, deal with issues relating to pollution, consumer affairs, mass misdemeanours and access to public services.¹⁶

Moreover, diagonally opposite presentations of the facts in a conflict are not the best means of getting to the truth. In contrast, polarised debate distorts reality, omits crucial pieces of information, oversimplifies complex issues and complicates clear ones. In addition, in a complex and multicultural world, individuals perceive "reality" in different manners. There are scholars who, for this reason, have questioned the assumptions that the adversarial system has about objectivity, neutrality and fairness.

In the opinion of the present author, in today's postmodern world, there is scope for multiple conflict resolution mechanisms, operating with differing sets of logical instructions and appropriate for the unlocking of different conflicts. There is a need for traditional court proceedings in cases where the parties clearly wish to have a judicial resolution of their dispute or where there is a public interest in the case being decided in this way. But there is also a need for various mediation processes, both court annexed and freestanding. That being said, however, also the traditional form of adjudication will have to be more responsive to the needs of perceived procedural justice and customer-centred conflict resolution.

To summarise, the Finnish system of conflict resolution is undergoing a number of changes: (1) the importance of extrajudicial conflict resolution methods will increase; (2) the importance of alternative methods—such as mediation—will be emphasised in the work of the courts; (3) the personality, professional competence and personal responsibility of the judges will become more prominent; and (4) perceived procedural justice will be more of a focal point in all court operations. All of these changes are reflections of the change in the fundamental task of the courts and civil procedure. In postmodern society, conflict resolution will be an ever more important function of civil procedure.

Most developed countries operate some sort of mediation mechanism linked to the courts. This development can be seen as an example of the privatisation of the law and also as a sign of changing court culture in the postmodern world. In this way, both adjudication and mediation have as their main objective to produce

¹⁶ Menkel-Meadow (1996).

decisions that satisfy the parties in context, in proceedings that are perceived as being fair. At the same time, the role of the courts as conflict resolvers becomes more prominent. This is a challenge also to legal scholarship.

Legal scholarship has, for long, lacked proper tools for analysing the changes in the tasks and functions of the courts. One reaction has been to emphasise the traditional, rule-of-law tasks of the courts and to give more and more weight to legalist principles and values in the courts. It is, of course, given that these lay down the ground rules for the work of the courts and the judges. That being said, however, mere legalism will not serve as a tool for understanding the entirety of (post)modern court operations or for developing such structural methods or principles that would aid in maintaining the uniformity of those operations at least to some degree. It is also clear that the traditional research paradigm in procedural law, the interpretation and systematisation of formal rules, will not alone suffice as a viewpoint to the courts' operations; instead, a multidisciplinary approach must be adopted.

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Chapter 8

Mediation in the Swedish Courts: Change by EU Directive?

Amie Dahlqvist

Abstract Since 1948, the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure (*Rättegångsbalken*) has enabled extensive utilisation of mediation in the district courts via the opportunity to have a special mediator appointed within the frame of the procedure in a civil case (*court-connected mediation*). Nonetheless, the use of a special mediator in Swedish courts has been very rare. In this paper, I attempt to answer the question why the method of mediation has not had any particular success in the Swedish courts. Due to the EU directive on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters, new Swedish legislation entered into force in 2011. Another question is thus whether the implementation of the directive has led to any practical changes inside or outside the courts. The new legislation comprised an entirely new law, the Mediation Act (*Medlingslagen*), and several changes in existing laws. The Mediation Act is applicable to out-of-court mediation in both domestic relations and in relations where one of the parties had his or her residence within another member state in the European Union (Denmark excluded) during the point of time when the process of mediation started. According to the Act, a mediator and his or her assistant have a duty of absolute professional secrecy, and a limitation or prescription period that is open during the point of time when the mediation starts will not expire until 1 month after the finalising of the mediation. Moreover, there is a possibility to make the agreement enforceable. The rule in the Code of Judicial Procedure on judicial settlement activities (held by the handling judge) and mediation (held by an independent mediator) has somewhat been sharpened. There is now an obligation for the district court to promote a settlement between the parties if it is not appropriate, given the nature of the case and other circumstances, and, when applying the rule, the court can decide to appoint a special mediator.

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The Government has stated that mediation and judicial settlement activities should be two clear and equally available alternatives for the parties during the preparation of the case and that other than large and complicated cases can be suitable for mediation. It is the parties who will pay for the cost of the mediator. The judicial settlement activities are free of charge. Through the years, the judicial settlement activities have been very successful and at least 30 % of all civil cases are settled through the method. Rules on confidentiality have been taken into new legislation: the obligation to testify in a court should not apply to mediators and his or her assistants, and there is also a duty of absolute secrecy in the general courts. The duty of secrecy is only applicable if the party has made a reservation that the information shall be confidential. The possibility to resort to judicial settlement activities and to appoint a special mediator in the appellate courts is now expressly stated. Before the new legislation, it was an unspoken rule and the methods were seldom used in the appellate courts.

As to the question of why mediation not has been common in the Swedish courts, there are many circumstances that influence this situation. The general opinion of the function of the civil justice system has had an effect on how the legislator has formulated the rules in the Code of Judicial Procedure. There has been a change from the court as mainly a provider of judgments (which will direct people how to act) to the court as a means of solving disputes. Thus, the formulation and interpretation of the rule of mediation (and also of the rule of judicial settlement activities) has changed during the years. However, the major changes did not occur until 2011. Before the legislative changes in 2011, the “signals” from the legislator could have led to that the judges did not find many cases suitable for mediation.

Is it likely that court-connected mediation will be more commonly used in time? The reasons stated by the district courts as to why mediation (up until 2007) not has been commonly used is mostly of a practical nature; the judicial settlement proceedings is successful enough, the parties think it will be too expensive, the court and the parties do not know how to find a suitable mediator and the possibility is not commonly known. The problem of finding a suitable mediator is now perhaps solved since the Swedish National Courts Administration keeps a list of mediators, easily found on their webpage. But the problem of the cost of the mediator still remains: It is not likely that the parties will choose a mediator if they can have the same result in the judicial settlement activities for free. It is reasonable to think that most of the cases that would be suitable for mediation not end up in the courts in the first place: they are solved in arbitral tribunals or by out-of-court mediation. Taken all the circumstances into account, a deliberate guess will be that court-connected mediation, despite the legislative and practical change that have facilitate this method, in the future will remain relatively uncommon.

8.1 Introduction

Although the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure (*Rättegångsbalken*) since 1948¹ has enabled extensive utilisation of mediation in the district courts via the opportunity to have a special mediator appointed within the frame of the procedure in a civil case (*court-connected mediation*), the use of a special mediator in Swedish courts has been very rare. In later years, this fact has been attended to by the legislator, not least since the European Union (EU) has encouraged the member states to facilitate other ways of dispute resolution than the traditional judiciary and eventually has issued a directive² on mediation. In this paper, I will try to answer the question why the method of mediation has not had any particular success in the Swedish courts. I will start with describing how the implementation of the EU directive on mediation has changed the Swedish legislation. The headline of this paper also suggests that another interesting question would be whether the implementation of the directive has led to any practical changes inside or outside the courts. Finally, is it likely that court-connected mediation will be more commonly used in time?

8.2 Definitions

In this paper, I will define *mediation* not as an alternative jurisdiction but as an alternative dispute resolution (ADR). The mediator is a neutral person who facilitates the negotiations between the parties. The mediation is a structured procedure built on free will. Essentially in a process of mediation is that non-legal issues can be taken into consideration. *Court-connected mediation*, I will define as mediation that takes place within a court procedure when the parties have consented to try mediation as an alternative to a judgment and the court thus has appointed a mediator in the case. The negotiations within the court proceedings, promoted via assistance of the handling judge, I will call *judicial settlement activities* or sometimes (the judge's) *promotion of settlements*.³ *Out-of-court mediation*, I will define as all other forms of mediation that takes place in disputes never filed as cases in a court.

¹ The Code of Judicial Procedure (1942:740) was enacted in 1942 and entered into force in 1948; see prop. 1942:5 and the Act *Om införandet av nya rättegångsbalken* (1946:804).

² Directive 2008/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.

³ Compare the definitions given by Lindell (2006), pp. 14–16, and Norman and Öhman (2011), p. 77. See also Engström (2011), pp. 16–17. See also the definition in article 3 of the EU directive on mediation (2008/52/EG), where the handling judges' promotion of negotiations is not defined as mediation.

8.3 Legislative Background to the Implementation of the EU Directive

In Sweden ADR through mediation has been available primarily outside the courts, for example, in arbitration tribunals, in the Swedish National Board for Consumer Complaints and in various organisations that offer mediation.⁴ However, court-connected mediation is also possible according to the law and, interestingly, it has not been a success.

In 2005, the Swedish Government called for an inquiry to analyse, among other things, the reasons why court-connected mediation was not commonly used in Swedish courts, as well as take a stance on whether actions should be taken to bring about increased utilisation of mediation in the courts.⁵ In the Government directives to the inquiry the European Commission's proposal of 2004 on a directive on alternative systems for dispute resolution were attended to.⁶ In April 2007, the inquiry was submitted to the Government. On 21 May 2008, the European Parliament and the Council adopted Directive 2008/52/EC on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters. The main aim of the directive was to enhance the availability to dispute resolution by means of encouraging the use of mediation through a good interaction between mediation and the ordinary court proceedings in the member states. In 2010, the Government issued a memorandum stating how the directive should be implemented in Swedish legislation.⁷ In 2011, a Government bill on the new legislation to implement the EU directive was issued and, on 1 August 2011, the new legislation entered into force.⁸

8.4 Judicial Settlement Activities and Mediation in the Court Proceedings

The procedure in civil cases consists mostly of both written and oral elements⁹ and is divided into two different stages: preparation and main hearing. The preparation aims to clarify the parties' claims, legal grounds, circumstances in the case, which facts are contentious and what evidence the parties will invoke. In short, the parties prepare the case to be ready for a concentrated main hearing. The other main aim of

⁴ See, *inter alia*, various Swedish Chambers of Commerce, such as West Sweden Chamber of Commerce www.handelskammaren.net or the Arbitration Institute of the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce <http://www.sccinstitute.com/>.

⁵ SOU 2007:26.

⁶ Dir 2005:77.

⁷ Ds 2010:39.

⁸ Prop. 2010/2011:128.

⁹ In some cases, there are only a written procedure and no oral elements; see Chapter 42, Section 18 of the Code of Judicial Procedure.

the preparation is to investigate the prerequisites for a settlement.¹⁰ The aims of the preparation have been the same since the Code of Judicial Procedure entered into force in 1948, although the text in the specific rule has been slightly altered on a few occasions.¹¹ As mentioned above, the Code of Judicial Procedure has also given the opportunity to appoint a special mediator in civil cases filed in the district courts ever since 1948, see Chapter 42, Section 17. The inquiry on a new Code of Judicial Procedure, which was submitted to the Government in 1938, stated that in some cases it would create better chances to reconcile the parties if a special mediator was appointed.¹²

The absolutely most common way to settle a dispute within the Swedish courts is through the judicial settlement activities the handling judge offers. Research has shown that the success rate of promoted settlements by the handling judge was approximately 33 %.¹³ How the handling judge shall act during the settlement activities is not regulated. The legislator has stated that the court is limited to the interest of maintaining the public's confidence in the court as objective and independent. The court must not contribute to a settlement where one of the parties has the feeling of being forced to give up his or her rights. If clearly expressed by the parties, there is no obstacle for the court to contribute to a settlement that is not in accordance with law. Within this frame, the judge can give concrete proposals to a settlement.¹⁴ In practice, the judicial settlement activities are often performed through the judge's dialogue with each of the parties (and their eventual representatives) separately. During this dialogue, the judge tries to get proposals of a solution from the parties.¹⁵ The method of speaking to the parties one at the time has been criticised since it would probably be a violation of the principle of contradiction stated in Article 6 of the European Convention.¹⁶ Thus, if the judge practises this method, the parties should first consent to it.¹⁷ The settlement can be taken into a judgment, which implies that the settlement will be enforceable. The judgment will also lead to that the same dispute cannot be a new court matter in the future since it will gain legal force (*res judicata*).

The question of how often court-connected mediation is used in Swedish courts was investigated by the inquiry of 2007 (see above). The inquiry surveyed the district courts and asked in how many cases during 2004 and 2005 they had

¹⁰ See Chapter 42, Section 6 in the Code of Judicial Procedure. For comments on the aims of the preparation, see, *inter alia*, Ekelöf et al. (1998), Chaps. 33 and 34, and Lindell (2012), Chaps. 7.5–7.6, and Westberg (2013), Chap. III.

¹¹ See, *inter alia*, Prop. 1986/1987:89.

¹² SOU 1938:44, p. 437.

¹³ See SOU 2007:26, supplement no 4. The period for the examination was only 2 months and covered only 12 district courts; therefore, the result must be evaluated cautiously.

¹⁴ See Prop. 1986/1987:89, pp. 111–114.

¹⁵ See Brolin et al. (2008), pp. 160–165.

¹⁶ See Lindell (2006), pp. 179–180; see also Westberg (2013), pp. 407–408, who stresses the disadvantages of the method.

¹⁷ See Ficks (2008), p. 503.

appointed a mediator; 52 of 59 courts answered the poll. During this period, appointments had been made in approximately 157 cases. Approximately 74 % of these cases led to a settlement. In most cases, the parties paid for the mediator. As many as 20 courts stated that they had not appointed a mediator in any cases at all. The statistics of the same period shows that the total amount of civil cases filed and determined were approximately 38,500. In this figure, the so-called small claim cases¹⁸ (*förenklade tvistemål*), joint petitions for divorce and family cases are excluded.¹⁹ Thus, the 38,500 cases would, at least theoretically, be suitable for mediation. Simple mathematics will result in the conclusion that in only approximately four cases per thousand a mediator was appointed. A vast majority of the courts stated in the poll that mediation was not requested by the parties or their representatives. However, most of the courts stated also that the majority of the parties and their representatives seemed unfamiliar with the opportunity to get a special mediator and, when asked, had been positive to the idea. On the question of why the courts thought that mediators were seldom appointed, they stated two main reasons: firstly, that the parties think it will be too expensive and, secondly, that the opportunity to judicial settlement activities within the courts makes it unnecessary to appoint a mediator. Other reasons were that the parties are not familiar with the opportunity, that the court does not come to think about it and that there is a lack of knowledge of suitable mediators. Some courts were worried that mediation would extend the proceedings. Another view was that not many cases are suitable for mediation. On the question of whether and how the rules of mediation could be enhanced, the courts stated, *inter alia*, that the Crown could contribute to the cost, suitable mediators should be listed, the opportunity should be better marketed and it should be mandatory for the court to bring about the question of mediation. A few courts even suggested that the court should be able to force the parties to try mediation.²⁰ In my opinion, the latter shows that many judges do not understand the nature of mediation and that there is a great difference between mediation and the negotiations that the handling judge can facilitate (see Sect. 8.14).

The inquiry suggested several actions to facilitate the use of court-connected mediation, as well as out-of-court mediation. Not all of the suggestions were realised through the new legislation—*inter alia*, the inquiry suggested a system of judges as special court mediators. The mediation would thus be held within the court, and the mediator (the judge) would be paid by the Crown.²¹ The Government's reasons not to implement the system of special court mediators were that judges already act to settle the parties and that this method is successful. It would,

¹⁸ Cases where the disputed amount does not exceed half a price base amount (in this period, approximately SEK 39,500, i.e. a disputed amount of SEK 19 750). These cases are determined by one judge; see Chapter 1, Section 3d in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

¹⁹ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2004), p. 11, and the Swedish National Courts Administration (2005), p. 11.

²⁰ See SOU 2007:26, pp. 95–96.

²¹ See SOU 2007:26, pp. 111–112.

therefore, be unfortunate to undermine this system with a new parallel system of “mediator judges”. Moreover, the Government stated, there is also a difference between a judge acting to settle the parties and a mediator; there are differences in the setup, the approach and pedagogical issues. Therefore, a judge (ever so successful in facilitating settlements) is not always the best mediator. Since mediation outside the courts is under strong development and getting more professional, it would also be unfortunate to compete with private enterprises.²² As a result, the parties also remain jointly and severally liable for the cost of the mediator.²³

8.5 The Mediation Act

As mentioned above, the EU directive on mediation eventually led to the implementation of new legislation in Sweden. In the following, I will describe and comment the changes regarding out-of-court mediation, and in Sect. 8.6. I will continue describing the changes regarding court-connected mediation.

Regarding out-of-court mediation, the EU directive led to the enactment of a new law, the Mediation Act (*Medlingslagen*).²⁴ The law is applicable to both domestic mediation and mediation where one of the parties had his or her residence within another member state in the European Union (Denmark excluded) during the point of time when the process of mediation started. According to the Act, a mediator and his or her assistant have a duty of absolute professional secrecy. Thus, for the first time, according to Swedish legislation, a mediator has a legally bound duty of secrecy. The mediator and the assistants are also prohibited to reveal information during a questioning as a witness in a court proceeding (this rule is according to a change in the Code of Judicial Procedure; see below). There is also a new rule on the mediations’ effect on limitation and prescription periods. According to the Act, a limitation or prescription period that is open on the point of time when the mediation starts will not expire until 1 month after the finalising of the mediation. Through the Act, there is now also a possibility to make the agreement enforceable. The parties or someone else that the parties have approved can apply at a district court and request the agreement to be made enforceable.²⁵

²² See Prop. 2010/2011:128, pp. 22–24.

²³ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, p. 28.

²⁴ *Lag (2011:860) om medling i vissa privaträttsliga tvister.*

²⁵ Through the new rule, there have also been a change in the Enforcement Act; see Chapter 3, Sections 1 and 13.

8.6 Legislative Changes in Court-Connected Mediation in the District Courts

Chapter 42, Section 17 of the Code of Judicial Procedure is applicable to civil cases in the district courts and in the Labour Court, when the Labour Court is the first level of jurisdiction. The rule has somewhat been sharpened through a change in the formulation of the text. The old rule stated that the court shall, *if it is appropriate* given the nature of the case, promote a settlement between the parties. The new rule states that the court shall promote a settlement between the parties *if it is not appropriate* given the nature of the case and other circumstances. Thus, according to the new formulation, there is a presumption that the court, *ex officio*, shall raise the question of the possibilities of a settlement.²⁶

Moreover, the old rule stated that if it is given in the circumstances of the case that it is more appropriate that special meditation be held, the court can summon the parties to a meeting with a mediator appointed by the court. The new rule states that the court, *when applying the rule of judicial settlement activities*, can decide that special mediation will be held *if the parties consent to mediation*. In this case, the court shall summon the parties to a meeting with a mediator, appointed by the court, *and decide a time-limit for the mediation to be finalized. The court can extend the time-limit if there are special reasons for the decision*. The new rule clarifies that the method of mediation is equal to the method of judicial settlement activities. Mediation and judicial settlement activities should be two clear and equally available alternatives for the parties during the preparation of the case.²⁷

But what does “the nature of the case” mean? Which cases would be suitable for mediation? The legislator stated in the 1980s that large cases with several disputable circumstances and extensive evidence would be suitable for mediation since they would take large amounts of recourses in the court procedure.²⁸ But the legislator has now, regarding the aim of the new legislation, stated that mediation has been used too seldom and therefore mediation should not be reserved only for large complicated cases that perhaps cover large amounts of money. Also, less complicated disputes on small amounts of money can be suitable for mediation, for example, if the parties have other disputes that are not (yet) involved in the civil case.²⁹ Cases in which the dispute only touches on issues of law are often not suitable for mediation.³⁰ It is important, though, that the court always evaluates the best way of resolution in view of all the circumstances in the case.³¹

²⁶ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, p. 89.

²⁷ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, p. 25.

²⁸ See Prop. 1986/1987:89, p. 207.

²⁹ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, p. 28.

³⁰ See Prop. 1986/1987:89, p. 207.

³¹ See Engström (2011), p. 46.

The expressed rule of the consent of the parties is a mere codification of an unspoken rule that has been applied also before the new legislation.³² The parties can choose to have more than one mediator if necessary, for example, if the dispute covers complicated issues on several disciplines, such as economic, technical and legal issues.³³

The obligation of the court to decide a time limit for the mediation to be finalised is connected with the obligation of the court to prepare cases with a view to their speedy adjudication.³⁴ Thus, the court should be deliberate when extending the time limit. Special reasons for extending the time limit could be if the mediator estimates that a settlement is soon reachable or if the mediator has been seriously ill for a long time.³⁵

8.7 Legislative Changes on Court-Connected Mediation in the Appellate Courts

According to the new legislation, the courts of appeal now also have a possibility to promote settlements between the parties and can also appoint a mediator; see Chapter 50, Section 11 of the Code of Judicial Procedure. If a mediator is appointed, the court must decide on the time limit for the mediation to be finalised. The rule is entirely new and is, to a large extent, formulated in a similar way as the rule applicable in the district courts. Even if the rule is new, the possibilities are not new in practice. Before the new legislation, it was an unspoken rule that the appellate courts could promote settlements and even appoint a mediator in the case. However, the opportunity was seldom used, and through the new legislation there is now a formal opportunity, as well as an expressed will of the legislator that agreements in the appellate courts are (sometimes) desirable.³⁶ As opposed to the rule applicable in the district courts, the rule is optional (*ought not shall*). There is no presumption that the court shall raise the question of the possibilities of a settlement (compare with the formulation of the “old” district court rule; see above). The reason to make the rule optional is that the role of the appellate court is to control the judgments of the district courts and thus serve as guarantee that the judgments are in accordance with law. The same reason goes for the legislator’s statement that the appellate courts shall apply the rule of mediation deliberately.³⁷ Thus, on the one hand, the legislator thinks it is a good idea to encourage

³² See Engström (2011), p. 47.

³³ See Prop. 1986/1987:89, p. 209.

³⁴ Chapter 42, Section 6 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

³⁵ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, p. 90; see also Engström (2011), p. 47.

³⁶ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, pp. 32–34; see also Engström (2011), p. 48.

³⁷ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, pp. 33 and 90.

settlements in the appellate courts; on the other hand, it must be done more cautiously than in the district courts.

8.8 The Prohibition to Testify in a Court Proceeding

The EU directive states that the member states must see to it that the mediators or others who are involved in the process of mediation must not be obliged to be a witness in a court procedure regarding information they have received in the process of mediation, except in certain expressed situations; see article 7:1 of the directive. As a main rule in Sweden, all inhabitants are obliged to be a witness in a court procedure. The exemptions from the rule are stated in Chapter 36, Section 5 of the Code of Judicial Procedure. The rule is often expressed as the prohibition of questioning (a witness in court—*frågeförbudet*). One exemption is applicable to lawyers (but only those who are members of the Swedish Bar Association and thus have the title *advokat* and are bound by the rules of the association). According to the rule, a lawyer can only be questioned as a witness if it is allowed according to law or if the client has consented. Otherwise, the main rule is applicable, namely that a lawyer has a duty of absolute professional secrecy.³⁸ After the implementation of the EU directive, the exemptions is now extended to cover also mediators and their assistants who are appointed by the general courts, by the rent and tenancy tribunals or who mediate under the Mediation Act (see Sect. 8.5). The mediators and their assistants can be questioned as witnesses in a court procedure only under the same prerequisites as lawyers. The prohibition to reveal information from the mediation procedure during a testimony is not applicable to the parties or their representatives (if the representative is not a lawyer).

8.9 The Duty of Absolute Professional Secrecy

According to the preamble of the EU directive, it is important to respect the confidential nature of a mediation procedure, not least to ensure the necessary mutual trust. The minimum standard of the directive is that the obligation to testify in a court should not apply to mediators. Sweden went further and chose also to change the Public Access to Information and Secrecy Act, according to which there now is a duty of absolute secrecy in the general courts (and in the rent and tenancy tribunals). The duty of secrecy covers personal and economic information that a party has given to a mediator or his assistant in a civil case, if the party has made a

³⁸ See Chapter 8, Section 4 of the Code of Judicial Procedure. See also the webpage of the Swedish Bar Association www.advokatsamfundet.se, where information in English, as well as translations to English of the rules applicable to members of the association, is given.

reservation that the information shall be confidential. The duty of secrecy is valid for 20 years.³⁹ The rule has higher status than the constitutional right to express and publish information.⁴⁰ Normally, the constitutional acts have higher status than the duty of secrecy, but the Government based this solution on the argument that the information has been given in a confidential situation that is built on mutual trust.⁴¹

8.10 Confidential Nature of Mediation

Parallel to the legislation of secrecy, which applies only in court-connected mediation, there are several codes of conducts and codes of ethics on the private market that apply to mediators. These codes often state that a mediator has an absolute duty of professional secrecy as to all information he or she has received during the process of mediation.

The parties and the mediator can also, in addition to the code of conduct, make a contract between them stating that all information given during the process shall be confidential. Since questions of confidentiality often is a part of the codes of conduct and of the codes of ethics, the mediator should, in an early stage in the process (of court-connected mediation), inform the parties that if they want their information to be secret within the court, they must make a reservation to the court about confidentiality. Otherwise, the information given to the mediator will be official in the court. The mediator should also be aware of that the assignment is personal and not, for example, given to their law firm or firm of accountants. Therefore, the mediator should ask the parties for permission before consulting his or her colleagues on something that concerns the mediation.⁴²

8.11 Who is Suitable as a Mediator?

According to the inquiry of 2007 (mentioned above), the district courts stated as one of the reasons that mediation was rarely used the lack of knowledge of suitable mediators. As a result of the new legislation on mediation, the Government commissioned the Swedish National Courts Administration to make a list over persons who have declared that they are willing to mediate in the general courts.

³⁹ See Chapter 36, Section 3 of the Public Access to Information and Secrecy Act (2009:400).

⁴⁰ See Chapter 36, Section 8 of the Public Access to Information and Secrecy Act; compare with Chapter 1, Section 1 of the Freedom of Press Act, and Chapter 1, Sections 1 and 2 of the Fundamental Law on Freedom of Expression.

⁴¹ See Prop. 2010/2011:128, pp. 74–75.

⁴² See Engström (2011), pp. 67–68.

To be on the list, there is no other requirement than the expressed interest of the mediator.⁴³ This is in accordance with the Swedish legislation, which simply does not state any desirable requirements of court-connected mediators or anything about out-of-court mediators; see Sect. 8.5. A suitable mediator can be a skilled judge, a lawyer or another person who is specialised in the field of the dispute.⁴⁴ The list of mediators, which is published on the webpage of the Swedish National Courts Administration, consists of 269 mediators, whereof 40 are women.⁴⁵ Of the total, 187 mediators are lawyers (members of the Swedish Bar Association) and 23 of those have stated that they have some sort of education as mediators, for example, accredited mediators according to West Sweden Chamber of Commerce. Also, 27 mediators are judges, and of those 11 have stated that they are educated in mediation. The rest of the mediators (55 persons) consist of, *inter alia*, a construction engineer, social workers, LL.M.s, a vice director, “mediators” and a pilot, of those 34 have stated that they are educated in mediation. Thus, out of 269 mediators, 68 have stated that they are educated in mediation. It is difficult to evaluate the extent and quality of the education since it varies between different organisations and the courses they offer.

8.12 Costs of the Mediation

As mentioned above, the parties are jointly and severally liable for the cost of the mediator. This fact can perhaps be unfortunate since one of the reasons that mediators are seldom used could be that the parties must pay for the mediator themselves and also think it will be expensive.⁴⁶ A remedy may be that it is common that the cost of a mediator is, to a certain extent, covered by the legal assistance insurance. Often is the prerequisite in the insurance that the mediator must be appointed by the court. This implies that an out-of-court mediation, according to the Mediation Act, is not covered by the most common insurances. Probably the insurance companies will change this prerequisite in the future since there are no substantial grounds for the distinction between the two alternatives of mediation.⁴⁷ If the cost for some reason cannot be covered by insurance, there is in some cases a possibility that the Crown will pay through legal aid.⁴⁸ The whole cost

⁴³ The catalogue can be found on <http://www.domstol.se/Tvist/Sarskild-medling/Forteckning-over-sarskilda-medlare1/>, visited on 23 October 2013.

⁴⁴ See Engström (2011), pp. 57–58, and Lindell (2012), p. 717. See also Prop. 1986/1987:89 s. 209.

⁴⁵ <http://www.domstol.se/Tvist/Sarskild-medling/Forteckning-over-sarskilda-medlare1/>, visited on 23 October 2013.

⁴⁶ According to the district courts in the poll issued by the inquiry of 2007; see SOU 2007:26, pp. 95–96.

⁴⁷ See Engström (2011), pp. 52–53.

⁴⁸ See Section 18 in the Legal Aid Act (1996:1619).

of the mediator will be paid through legal aid even if only one of the parties have been granted legal aid.⁴⁹

8.13 Ideal Point of Time to Appoint a Mediator

There is no rule as to when a mediator shall be appointed by the court. The reason is that the ideal point in time varies from case to case. There are advantages to appoint a mediator early in the process, among others, because the cost of the parties' representatives is not yet high or because the parties have not yet been locked in certain positions. The advantages of an appointment in a later stadium are that the case is more structured and clear and that the mediator more easily can survey the case and that the representatives (and parties) have a better picture of strengths and weaknesses in their case. The best point in time would, in any case, be when the parties have realised that mediation is better than a court procedure.⁵⁰

8.14 The Future of Court-Connected Mediation in Sweden

Having described the situation on court-connected mediation before the changes in the Swedish legislation and described and commented on those changes, I will now turn to the question of future development. Is it likely that mediation will be more common as a dispute resolution for civil cases in the Swedish courts? Closely connected to this question is the question of why mediation has not been a success within the Swedish courts. A thorough analysis of this question would need much more space and time than this paper can offer. It would, for one thing, need a deep examination of our legal and economic cultures in both a historical and an international context. However, I will give my deliberate thoughts on the topic based on the referred sources. But there are some important sources missing, which I need to account for before I can do a serious attempt to try and answer the questions, namely some of the Swedish scholars' views on mediation as ADR.

ADR has sometimes been called the third wave of the international movement of access to justice.⁵¹ In this movement, the citizen's perspective in the legal proceedings is emphasised. The first wave comprised issues of legal aid, legal

⁴⁹ See Prop. 1996/97:9 *Ny rättsjälp*, p. 221.

⁵⁰ See SOU 2007:26, p. 97, where the lawyers who participated in a mediation project were of the opinion that the chances of success would be better in a later stadium of the court proceedings when the positions of the parties were clarified and the status of required evidence was set. See also Brolin et al. (2008), p. 171, where the authors are of the opinion that the best point of time is when the preparation is finalised and the material can be surveyed. See also Engström (2011), pp. 55–57.

⁵¹ Lindblom gives the main credit for the important extension of the legal procedural discourse to Mauro Cappelletti (1927–2004), Florence and Stanford Universities (Cappelletti 1989 *The Judicial Process in Comparative Perspective*); see Lindblom (2006), p. 101.

insurances, lack of knowledge and psychological obstacles for the legal proceedings. The second wave is comprised of the problems of lack of balance between the parties where the institute of class action and other procedural issues about “the protection of collective, diffuse and fragmented interests”⁵² were highlighted. According to Per Henrik Lindblom, there is a built-in contradiction between the three waves. The third wave can namely be understood as “a retreat from the effort to enforce new laws that bolster the power and rights of consumers” and thus also “a retreat from the commitments and possibilities of the first two” (waves).⁵³ Lindblom argues that there is a risk that the third wave of access to justice—hence, ADR—will grow to a tsunami that will wash away some of the most important achievements of the first and second waves and also undermine the role of traditional civil proceedings and their role in society. Maybe the phenomenon of ADR is just a sign of a legal system that is seriously ill? A somewhat cynical view of ADR would be to regard its popularity in the light of the following circumstances: the politicians’ relief to get rid of the problem of not being able to give the courts enough resources, the lawyers’ prospects of a lucrative and growing branch and the judges’ pursuit to decrease the number of pending cases (and perhaps to moonlight as arbitrators or mediators themselves).⁵⁴ What if ADR does not give an increased access to justice but is a deliberate escape from justice, ordered from above? Perhaps ADR can be seen as opium to the legislator, to an overloaded judiciary system and to the people who are trying to seek justice? Then they will not miss the “real, equal, efficient and qualitative access to justice” that the courts can provide.⁵⁵ Although Lindblom discusses ADR in general, not mediation in particular, his reflections raise the important question of the advantages and disadvantages of mediation as one form of ADR.

According to the classical liberal view, the function of the civil court procedure is mainly, or only, to solve the conflict between the parties. This view is common amongst the promoters of ADR. If this is true, the change from judiciary to ADR will not result in any serious loss regarding the functions of the proceedings.⁵⁶

In Sweden, the view of the functions of the civil proceedings, during a long period of time, was under the strong influence of the scholar Per Olof Ekelöf.⁵⁷ According to Ekelöf, the main function of the proceedings is to direct peoples’ actions and to prevent them from disregarding the law. In Ekelöfs’ opinion, the proceedings as a means for solving peoples’ conflicts is not an important function. Ekelöfs’ books on procedural law were the dominant literature in the Swedish law schools during almost half a century. The books are still used but have, of course,

⁵² Lindblom (2006), p. 102.

⁵³ The quotations are originally from Cappelletti et al. (1982), “Access to Justice”, *RabelsZ*, p. 686 et seq.; see quotation in Lindblom (2006), p. 108.

⁵⁴ Lindblom (2006), p. 104.

⁵⁵ Lindblom (2006), pp. 103 and 105.

⁵⁶ Lindblom (2006), p. 109.

⁵⁷ Ekelöf was a professor in procedural law at Uppsala University 1943–1972.

during the years been updated, and one of the new authors has also presented other views (see below) on the topic of the proceedings' functions (although these views were presented for the first time in the edition of 2002).⁵⁸ I would say that it is only during the last 25 years that other opinions of the function of civil proceedings have really been observed in the legal discourse. A conclusion is thus that most of the practising judges from the 1950s up until today have been influenced by Ekelöf during their law studies.

When the legislator emphasises that the court shall try to reach conciliation between the parties, the role of the judge changes. Some scholars have said that the role changes from being an executor of the politicians' ideology to becoming a solver of conflicts.⁵⁹

Bengt Lindell is critical to Ekelöfs' theory and is of the opinion that the civil proceedings' ability to direct and prevent peoples' actions is strongly exaggerated; instead, he emphasises the function of conflict resolution between the parties.⁶⁰ Lindblom takes a stand somewhere between the two main poles presented above. In his view, there is no contradiction between the two functions since they cooperate—when solving the dispute at an individual level, the society gets a directive through the judgment.⁶¹

What disadvantages can there be of mediation compared with judiciary? According to Lindblom, there are actually five functions of the ordinary civil court proceedings, and the disadvantage of ADR, for example mediation, is that it only embraces the first of the functions listed below:

1. conflict resolution and reparation of damages (the individual and retrospective perspective);
2. the direction and prevention of peoples' actions (the societal and prospective perspective); through the open proceedings and judgments, people become aware of what will happen if they disregard the rules on civil legislation;
3. the creation of prejudice and the establishing of praxis;
4. the court's function of control vis-à-vis the legislative and executive powers;
5. the communicative function—through public proceedings and judgments, society becomes aware of the problems that might need new legislation to be solved.

Lindblom is not entirely critical against ADR. On the contrary, he thinks ADR has many benefits. His point is that there has to be a critical discussion in society about the advantages and disadvantages of ADR contra-ordinary court proceedings. Otherwise, ADR may take over as a solution in cases when what people (and the society) really would need is traditional judiciary. This would be a treat to our legal system

⁵⁸ See Ekelöf et al. (2002), pp. 13–30. In the first book in the series (*första häftet*), both Ekelöfs' view and other scholars' view, *inter alia*, that of Bengt Lindell and Per Henrik Lindblom, are accounted for by the author Henrik Edelstam.

⁵⁹ Bertilsson (2010), p. 32.

⁶⁰ See, *inter alia*, Lindell (2012), p. 29.

⁶¹ Lindblom (1984), p. 798.

and the basic principles upheld, *inter alia*, by the European Convention and the EU; accusation, contradiction, public access, orality, immediacy, concentration, efficiency, “equality of arms” and a right to re-examination.⁶²

If we turn to the more practical advantages and disadvantages of mediation, a disadvantage for the parties can be the cost of the mediator—at least if one compares the results that can be reached through the judiciary settlement activities within the court, which is free of charge. If the mediator uses the method of *evaluative mediation*, there is not any major difference compared to the promoting of a settlement of the handling judge.⁶³

According to this method, the (so-called) mediator evaluates the legal circumstances in the case and gives a non-binding decision. The decision is a prognosis of the judgment in case of a trial. The mediator points out the strangeness and weaknesses of the parties’ legal grounds and argumentation. Another characteristic of the evaluative mediation is that the representatives of the parties play an important role in the process of mediation and that the mediator has a more direct influence over the results. In many countries, this method is called non-binding arbitration.⁶⁴ The risk of the evaluative mediation is that the parties may feel that they are not participating in the procedure—instead they are omitted to their representatives and the mediator. Afterwards, they may feel frustrated that they could not speak up their minds, that the procedure was too legalised and that important issues never came up on the table.⁶⁵ The method of evaluative mediation is very close to the method of judiciary settlement activities within the court. If the advantages of mediation are very small or none, compared to the judiciary settlement activities, the parties may as well choose the latter. Why should they pay for something that they can have for free?

If the mediator instead uses the method of *facilitative mediation*, the difference to the judiciary settlement activities is clearer. According to this method, the parties participate actively during the negotiations and the representatives have a more withdrawn role. The mediator facilitates the parties’ negotiations by structuring their problems and helping the parties to understand their conflict. It is the parties’ choice and responsibility to solve or not to solve their conflict. The mediator listens to the parties and uses a special technique of questioning them. Through this kind of communication, the parties get help to reformulate and clarify their dispute and (hopefully) to understand it better. The facilitative mediation is built on the mediators’ ability to listen actively and to explain and summarise the parties’ positions in a pedagogical way. The mediator should avoid criticising what the parties say. This kind of mediation is very intense, and the procedure is quite quick—often it is enough with one day of negotiations.⁶⁶ If we compare facilitative

⁶² Lindblom (2006), p. 105.

⁶³ Engström (2012/2013), p. 757.

⁶⁴ See, *inter alia*, Norman and Öhman (2011), p. 86 et seq.

⁶⁵ See Engström (2012/2013), p. 757.

⁶⁶ See Engström (2012/2013), p. 758. See also Norman and Öhman (2011), p. 84 et seq., where different methods of mediation are reviewed.

mediation and judicial settlement activities, there can be many advantages of the former method: more control by the parties over the dispute, the right of the parties to choose a suitable person to help solve the dispute (for example, a specialist in the present field), the possibility to solve other (sometimes non-legal) disputes between the parties, better prospects of future good relations and, confidentiality.⁶⁷ The advantage of a settlement, disregarding the method of reaching there, compared to the ordinary court proceedings, would (in addition to the advantages of facilitative mediation) be the length of the proceedings—in most district courts, the length of proceedings in a civil case is over 7 months, and in the large cities, almost a year.⁶⁸ If the case is handled in the appellate court (and perhaps also in the Supreme Court), the length of proceedings is likely to be several years. Moreover, the estimated cost of the proceedings would be lower if a settlement is reached. This is, of course, not entirely true—if a party wins the case, the other party will have to pay the legal costs of the winning party.

8.15 Conclusion

As to the question of why mediation has not been common in the Swedish courts, there is certainly not one explanation but many circumstances that have had an influence on the situation. Although the possibility of court-connected mediation has been given in the Code of Judicial Procedure since 1948, the general opinion of the functions of the courts has not been the same up until today. The general opinion of the function of the civil justice system has had an effect on how the legislator has formulated the rules in the Code of Judicial Procedure. There has been a change from the court as mainly a provider of judgments (which will direct people how to act) to the court as a means of solving disputes. Thus, the formulation and interpretation of the rule of mediation (and also of the rule of judicial settlement activities) have changed during the years. However, the major changes did not occur until 2011. It was not until then the legislator made it mandatory for the court to bring about the question of mediation and also stated that other cases than the large and complicated would be suitable for mediation. Before the legislative changes in 2011, the “signals” from the legislator could have led to the fact that the judges did not find many cases suitable for mediation. Could another circumstance be that most of the practising judges up till today have studied Ekelöf in law school and therefore are influenced by his thoughts of the functions of civil proceedings, that is, the court should primarily give judgments, not solve conflicts? I think this conclusion is too far-fetched when speaking about the judge’s decisions on a day-to-day basis. If this was the case, the judiciary settlement activities would not be common either. However, the changed

⁶⁷ See Engström (2012/2013), p. 760.

⁶⁸ See Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 12–14.

view on the role of the courts will certainly have an indirect effect on the work of the individual judges since it has had an effect on the legislation.

But now when the legislation facilitates court-connected mediation also through the rules on confidentiality and absolute professional secrecy for the mediator, will the method be more common in the future? The reasons stated by the district courts as to why mediation (up until 2007) has not been commonly used are mostly of a practical nature, mainly that judicial settlement proceedings are successful enough, the parties think it will be too expensive, the court and the parties do not know how to find a suitable mediator and the possibility is not commonly known. The problem of finding a suitable mediator is now perhaps solved since the Swedish National Courts Administration keeps a list of mediators, easily found on their webpage. Various courses and certifications on mediation are also becoming more common in the market, which will enhance the skills of the mediators. But the problem of the cost still remains. Although the legislator has stated that other cases than the large and complex also can be suitable for mediation, the fact remains: the parties are not prepared to pay for a mediator if the cost is too high compared to the disputed amount. Therefore, they would choose judicial settlement activities, which they can get for free. It is also reasonable to think that most of the cases that would be suitable for mediation do not end up in the courts in the first place: they are solved in arbitrational tribunals or by out-of-court mediation.

Taken all the circumstances presented above into account, a deliberate guess will be that court-connected mediation, despite the legislative and practical changes that have facilitated this method, in the future will remain relatively uncommon—although more common than before the legislative changes. Perhaps out-of-court mediation will be more common in the future since the Mediation Act facilitates the method through the rules of confidentiality, limitation and prescription periods and the possibility to make the agreement enforceable. If people choose this way of solving their conflicts instead of going to the courts, the courts will have less civil cases in the future. This scenario will perhaps not lead to better access to justice, given the definition of the “first and second waves” (mentioned above). Another view is that more disputes overall will be solved since people, instead of just letting it be, would choose an out-of-court mediator before going to the court. The latter scenario will at least give more people the chance to solve their conflicts in a (hopefully) constructive way, which under all circumstances would be better than not solving them at all and thus losing all their rights to some kind of justice. But what is “justice”? That is the question.

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Chapter 9

Court-Connected Mediation in Danish Civil Justice: A Happy Marriage of a Strained Relationship

Lin Adrian

Abstract The chapter is about court-connected mediation in Denmark. It opens with a historical review of mediation activities in legal disputes with special attention to conciliation boards operating from 1795 to 1952. It goes on to describe the contemporary system of court-connected mediation with a review of the regulation, as well as the practice of mediation in this setting. The chapter goes on to examine the current status of court-connected mediation, demonstrating that there seems to be enthusiasm, as well as inherent ambivalence in the legal community towards this method of dispute resolution. Finally, the future role of court-connected mediation in civil litigation is addressed, concluding that it is not yet possible to determine whether court-connected mediation is on the rise or whether it is just a temporary feature of the civil justice system.

9.1 Introduction

This chapter is about court-connected mediation in Denmark. It opens with a historical review of mediation activities in legal disputes and goes on to describe the contemporary system of court-connected mediation in civil disputes, including the practice of mediation in this setting. The chapter then examines the current status of court-connected mediation and finally reflects on the future role of court-connected mediation in civil litigation.

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9.2 A Brief History of Court-Connected Mediation in Denmark

9.2.1 *The Middle Ages*

Informal dispute resolution in Denmark traces back to the Middle Ages. The earliest regional legislation from around 1200 has provisions regarding the possibility of making private settlements via mediation. This was the case in, for example, disputes regarding inheritance and adultery.¹ We also find examples of mandatory mediation. In cases of theft and cuts, an attempt to settle with the help of friends and relatives was a prerequisite for a more formal hearing.² This mention of settlement in the earliest legislation indicates that alternatives to more formal processes were used quite a bit at the time,³ which makes sense for an era where great importance was attached to maintaining peace.

Denmark had its first nationwide legislation in 1683, and this also mirrors the practices of informal settlement. For example, procurators (the attorneys of that time) were prohibited from obstructing settlement, and conflicts between vicars and parish clerks had to be mediated by the rural dean prior to going to court; see Danish Laws 1-9-10 and 1-2-15. During the eighteenth century, mediation was formalized in some settings, but the major push for mediation came in 1795, with the introduction of a national system of mediation in conciliation boards as a prerequisite for going to court.⁴ In the following section, detailed attention is given to these boards for two reasons: they are fascinating in their own right, and they are forerunners for modern day court-connected mediation.

9.2.2 *National Conciliation Boards*⁵

The conciliation boards were instituted by a royal resolution.⁶ In its preamble the King states that the purpose of the resolution is to prevent unnecessary and costly litigation between subjects, and accordingly cases could be filed in court only after failed attempts to settle by a board; see s 49 of the royal resolution. In other words, a mandatory mediation system was established, and, importantly, this system was

¹ Andersen (2010), pp. 60 and 80.

² Andersen (2010), p. 17.

³ Andersen (2010), p. 109.

⁴ Norway was part of Denmark at the time, and the resolution included towns in Norway. By a resolution in 1797, rural Norway was included as well.

⁵ For a more detailed account of the history of the conciliation boards, see Vindeløv (1997).

⁶ 10. juli 1795 Fr. om Forligelses-Commissioners Stiftelse overalt i Danmark, samt i Kjøbstæderne i Norge.

nonjudicial in nature. The boards were placed outside the courts,⁷ and with the exception of the city of Copenhagen, the commissioners were laypersons, and their task was to help the parties settle the case, not pass judgments. Attorneys were prohibited as commissioners—and from participating in any capacity whatsoever. In Copenhagen, one member of the three-person board was from the trial court, but even so the task was to settle and not to rule. Parties had an obligation to appear in front of the boards. However, if a party had a lawful excuse, he could send another person to represent him—but still not an attorney. Over time, this ban against attorneys was circumvented. Conciliation meetings were held behind closed doors and in confidentiality; see s 40–41. It is stated explicitly in s 41 that this was to ensure honesty leading to an amicable settlement. A total of 185 boards were established in towns and in the countryside.⁸

We do not know much about the settlement activities. The resolution does not regulate the commissioners' work, and records from the commissions basically state only the complaint and the agreement entered. However, the wording in the resolution's s 39 (“. . . someone, who has been summoned to listen to suggestions to be united. . .”) suggests that the commissioners not only helped the parties in finding agreements but also were actively making suggestions as to the appropriate outcome. This theory is supported by a couple of sources. In 1803—7 years into the life of the commissions—A.B. Rothe, titular Councilor of State and a commissioner himself, wrote extensively about the conciliation commissions. Among others, he provided a rather detailed description of what went on in the meetings.⁹ According to Rothe, at first the plaintiff presented the case and then the defendant responded.¹⁰ After the statements of the parties, the commissioner suggested an amicable settlement based on rules of ‘fairness and sensibility’ and pointed out the disadvantages of going to court. If the parties agreed, the settlement was recorded and was subsequently enforceable. It appears that the commissioners included other considerations in addition to the law in their suggestions for settlement. It also appears that commissioners were quite active in trying to settle the case and that their activities were influenced by a strong wish to avoid that the case continue to court. The eagerness of the commissioners may also have been influenced by the fact that outside Copenhagen, commissioners were paid only in cases that settled; see s 55 of the resolution.

Another source providing insight into the activities of the early commissions is a study of cases on the Island of Funen around 1800.¹¹ Judging from case summaries,

⁷ For a discussion of their status as part of the administration or the judiciary, see Adrian (2012), p. 38f., and Vindeløv (1997), p. 87.

⁸ Anette Jensen, The Danish National Archives, mail 6/7/2011.

⁹ Rothe (1803), p. 58ff.

¹⁰ If the disagreement turned out to be about matters where statements from witnesses were necessary, the case was referred to court to obtain these and afterwards referred back to the conciliation commissions. Most likely, this only rarely happened.

¹¹ Dombernowsky (1985).

it seems that the commissioners were rather active in pursuing settlements, including influencing the content of an agreement.¹² The practice of the mediators of that time is interesting from a modern-day perspective. In mediation literature, there is considerable discussion about the appropriateness of evaluative mediation, where the mediator influences the outcome by, for example, suggesting solutions and pointing to weaknesses and strengths of the respective points of view versus facilitative mediation, where the mediator limits himself or herself to facilitating the process without providing opinions about the issues at hand.¹³

Especially from the second half of the 1800s until the abolition of the boards in 1952, the conciliation boards changed in a number of important ways, and over time they lost their position. First of all, following the Constitution of 1849 a growing awareness of the proper administration of justice led to criticism of settlement activities taking place behind closed doors without the participation of lawyers. Second, a growing number of cases were exempt from appearing in front of the boards and could be filed in court straight away, leading to a decline in use. Third, beginning with the conciliation board established in connection with the Maritime and Commercial Court in 1861 and in the 1900s in other boards as well, attorneys were allowed to attend commission meetings and the requirement that parties participate themselves was relaxed. All these contributed to the decreased use of conciliation boards and probably also to more legally oriented settlement activities, raising concerns in the legal community. Also, appearing in front of the conciliation boards was increasingly regarded as a necessary evil, performed only because it was a prerequisite for going to court.

In 1952, conciliation boards were abolished and settlement activities transferred to the courts. Since then, judges have been required to conduct settlement activities in all civil cases as part of litigation; see s 268 of the Administration of Justice Act.¹⁴ These settlement activities remain an important part of civil proceedings but has very little in common with modern day court-connected mediation, as will be evident from the following sections.

9.3 Contemporary Court-Connected Mediation

In 2003, a pilot project regarding mediation of civil cases as an *alternative* to litigation was initiated in four district courts and one high court by a collaboration of the Danish Court Administration, the Ministry of Justice and the Danish Bar and Law Society.¹⁵ The pilot was modeled after court-connected mediation in Norway,

¹² See Dombernowsky (1985), pp. 140, 145 and 161f.; for the opposite, see p. 178ff.

¹³ For the concepts evaluative/facilitative, see Riskin (1996, 2003–2004).

¹⁴ This activity is called *forligsmægling*, whereas court-connected mediation is called *retsmægling*.

¹⁵ For a detailed account of the emergence of court-connected mediation in Denmark, see Adrian (2012), p. 43ff.

which at the time had been in effect as a pilot project since 1997.¹⁶ The pilot project demonstrated the usefulness of this type of mediation activity as a supplement to existing judicial settlement activities, and in 2008 a permanent system of court-connected mediation in civil cases was instituted by the addition of Chapter 27 to the Administration of Justice Act.

9.3.1 *The Purpose*

The main purpose for introducing a modern system of court-connected mediation was to provide citizens with a qualitatively different type of dispute resolution. The courts already provided adjudication and legal mediation, and the time had come to add a new service. The government hoped that by providing a different type of dispute resolution process where the parties' interests, needs and future could be addressed and where the parties could influence the process, they would reach solutions that felt more satisfactory. As expressed by the Minister of Justice, Lene Espersen, at the introduction of the legislation on court-connected mediation to Parliament on November 28, 2007:

The underlying purpose of introducing a permanent, nationwide system of court-connected mediation is to give parties in cases that are brought before the courts, an option, if they wish, for seeking the dispute resolved in another way than by the traditional legal mediation in court, which builds on current law, or by adjudication. Court-connected mediation makes it possible to reach negotiated solutions to the dispute, which can be experienced as more satisfactory for both parties, because the solution in court-connected mediation to a larger extent provides the parties influence on the process and take into consideration the parties underlying interests, needs and future¹⁷

The legislation was prepared by the Administration of Justice Committee (*Retsplejerådet*), and the committee cited additional two reasons for potential party satisfaction: time and money.¹⁸ Since mediation typically takes place early in the life of the court case, mediation provides the parties with a faster resolution to the dispute compared to trial and often save legal costs as well. It is possible that saving money for the courts and thereby the state was an additional motive for introducing court-connected mediation. Efficiency was on the agenda for the National Court Administration at the time, with considerable attention placed on moving cases faster and more efficiently through the court system to reduce delays in the system, and court-connected mediation fitted well into this agenda. This argument of saving money was indeed presented by some politicians during the

¹⁶ For an account of court-connected mediation in Norway, see Anna Nylund's chapter elsewhere in the book.

¹⁷ See the introduction of proposal for legislation on court-connected mediation, Lovforslag nr. 17 af 28. November 2007 om ændring af retsplejeloven, lov om retsafgifter og arveloven (Retsmægling mv.).

¹⁸ Report (*Betænkning*) no 1481/2005 on Court-Connected Mediation, p. 14.

parliamentary debate,¹⁹ but neither the government nor the Administration of Justice Committee preparing the legislation mentioned cost savings for the courts in their proposals.

9.3.2 *Definition and Central Features*

There is no definition of court-connected mediation or the role of the mediator in the Danish Administration of Justice Act, but according to s 272 the mediator is supposed to

...to assist the parties in reaching an agreed-upon solution to a dispute by themselves. . .

The *Ethical Guidelines* for court-connected mediators issued by the Danish Court Administration are more elaborate on this issue and define court-connected mediation in s 1:

Court-connected mediation is a voluntary dispute resolution method in which one or more neutral mediators through a structured process assist the parties in finding a mutually satisfactory solution to the dispute by themselves. The course of the mediation is planned in corporation with the parties. The mediator does not offer legal advice and makes no decisions in the dispute. The mediation is confidential.

Court-connected mediation is characterized by self-determination of the parties in relation to all aspects of the mediation – i.e. in relation to the course of the mediation, the content and the result.²⁰

This definition reflects a number of important features of court-connected mediation in Denmark. Participation is voluntary. Court-connected mediation is an option in all dispositive²¹ civil cases—but it is up to the parties whether or not they want to take advantage of this possibility. The parties are not sanctioned with regard to court costs or in other ways for not participating or by declining an offer from the other party in the course of mediation. The definition also points to a primarily facilitative approach to mediation by stating that the parties have to find a solution by *themselves* and underlining the parties' self-determination in relation to all aspects of the mediation, including planning the course of the meeting.

The role of the mediator is defined as that of a neutral person who *facilitates* the process whereby the parties may arrive at an agreement. The mediator cannot make decisions regarding the outcome and must refrain from giving legal advice. The role of the mediator is elaborated in s 2 of the Ethical Guidelines. Among others, the facilitative role is emphasized by stating that although it is not forbidden to make suggestions for a solution or pointing to strengths and weaknesses in the parties'

¹⁹ See 1. behandling af L 17 Forslag til lov om ændring af retsplejeloven, lov om retsafgifter og arveloven (Retsmægling m.v.), 13. December 2007, FT 2007–2008 (2. samling).

²⁰ Etiske regler for retsmægling, Domstolsstyrelsen (2012). (<http://www.domstol.dk/saadangoerdu/retsmaegling/Pages/Etiskeretningslinjerforretsmaegling.aspx>).

²¹ Matters that the parties cannot dispose of, like for example divorce, are exempt.

arguments, the mediator must be cautious in doing so and only when the parties ask for it and the mediator finds it appropriate and justifiable.²²

The definition in the ethical guidelines also states that mediation is confidential, reflecting the main rule in the Administration of Justice Act s 277. A number of exceptions are mentioned in s 277: the parties can agree otherwise, and information that is already public remains so. Information that according to other legislation must be passed on is exempt from confidentiality, for example the obligation to report to the appropriate authority regarding neglected children. Furthermore, each party can relate his or her own statements outside the mediation, and if the case ends up in court after all, information from the mediation can be used to make requests for documents to be part of the case. The latter rule ensures that the parties do not present documents in the mediation in order to ‘hide’ them from future proceedings.

Finally, the guideline’s definition of court-connected mediation states that the mediator uses a ‘structured process’. The specifics of this ‘structured process’ appear neither in the guidelines nor in the legislation but were subject to discussion in the Administration of Justice Committee. According to the committee, ‘structured’ means that the parties go through various steps in mediation and that it is the role of the mediator to maintain control of the situation and guide the parties through the process.²³

9.3.3 *Mediators and Cases*

All courts, except the Supreme Court, are obliged to offer mediation services, s 271 in the Administration of Justice Act. Attorneys and judges, including judges in training, with a special training in mediation can serve as mediators, and each court has a panel to choose from.²⁴ Judges serve this panel as part of their regular work at court, while attorneys are paid a set fee per case. When parties agree to mediate, a mediator is appointed by the court administration from the panel. In 2012, the cases were almost distributed evenly with 53 % referred to attorney mediators and 47 % to judge mediator, whereas in previous years judge mediators handled 60 % of the cases.²⁵ If the case is not resolved in mediation, the mediator cannot participate as judge or attorney in the continuing litigation, s 279 of Administration of Justice Act.

²² This is in line with the Administration of Justice Committee’s recommendation; see Report no 1481/2005 on Court-Connected Mediation, p. 156.

²³ Report no 1481/2005 on Court-Connected Mediation, p. 134.

²⁴ The issue of who could be mediators was rather disputed prior to the implementation of court-connected mediation in 2008. For this discussion, see Report no 1481/2005 on Court-Connected Mediation, p. 143ff.

²⁵ According to statistical information provided by mail from the Danish Court Administration 12 August 2011 and 30 August 2013.

Generally, mediation is offered in the early stages of litigation and, typically, after the case has been filed and the other party has responded. A mediator is provided free of charge to the parties as this service is covered by the filing fee. As a general rule, the parties must attend the mediation themselves, and attorneys can attend as well. Apparently, there are attorneys present on one or both sides in up to 80 % of the cases.²⁶

9.3.4 Enforceability

If an agreement is reached in a court-connected mediation, the parties can choose to make it enforceable by requesting that the agreement is added to the court record. This equates the mediated settlement with settlements made in the course of litigation. Consequently, it can be enforced without getting a ruling; see Administration of Justice Act ss 270 and 478. A study of 42 mediations ending in an agreement showed that in 2/3 of the cases the agreement was added to the court record.²⁷ If the agreement is not added to the court record, it is nevertheless still binding like any other agreement made between parties in Denmark, but in most instances the parties will be required to get a ruling before it can be enforced.

9.3.5 Relation to EU Directive

Denmark is exempt from EU regulation in the judicial domain. Hence, Denmark is not bound by Directive 2008/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters. The directive is aimed at cross-border conflicts but has spurred regulation across Europe in other areas as well, including legislation relevant for court-connected mediation.²⁸ In Denmark, it has had no effect. It is not transposed into national legislation on a voluntary basis, neither has it inspired additional legislation regarding mediation in the civil area.

²⁶ See the evaluation of the pilot project, Roepstorff and Kyvsgaard (2005), pp. 23, and Adrian (2012), p. 156.

²⁷ Adrian (2012), p. 165.

²⁸ De Palo and Trevor (2012), Introduction.

9.3.6 *Judicial Settlement Activities vs. Court-Connected Mediation*

To some, the border between the settlement activities carried out by a judge in the course of litigation and in court-connected mediation seems blurred. However, they are very distinct processes, and a number of fundamental differences exist between the two. Most importantly, settlement activities by a judge are an integral part of the judicial process; court-connected mediation is not. When the parties agree to court-connected mediation, the judicial life of the case comes to a halt and is reopened only if the case is not resolved in mediation. Hence, the rules of procedure in the Administration of Justice Act do not apply like they do when settlement activities take place in the course of litigation. In general, the role of the judge in litigation is that of a decision maker, and in settlement activities the judge commonly suggests a settlement that is aligned with the result of a legal ruling, whereas a court-connected mediator facilitates the parties' own decisions. The law is central in litigation and regular settlement activities, whereas the law plays a role in court-connected mediation only to the extent that parties desire. The parties are central for mediation. They have to attend and participate actively in the process. Attorneys assist the parties rather than represent them—if they are present at all. In litigation, the roles are reversed. Attorneys are the principal actors, and the case can proceed in court without the parties' presence. In litigation, only legal matters are handled. In court-connected mediation, the parties are free to bring up other issues as well.

As appears, there are many differences between settlement activities in the course of adjudication and court-connected mediation. The distinction between the two types of settlement activities is important as court-connected mediation is intended to differ from ordinary settlement activities and is introduced as a *supplement* to the settlement activities already in existence.

9.3.7 *The Nature of Regulation*

In this section, references have been made to various sources of regulation of court-connected mediation. The regulation in the Administration of Justice Act is limited to a few sections. The bulk of regulation is found outside the Act in the report prepared by the Administration of Justice Committee in 2006 supplemented by brief discussions in Parliament. In addition, a statutory decree concerning the appointment of attorneys as mediators has been issued and the Danish Court Administration has issued a set of ethical guidelines that have been referred to in this chapter already.²⁹ It is on purpose that the legislation is relatively brief

²⁹ For a review of the different types of regulation in Denmark and their hierarchy, see Blume (2011).

providing limited regulation of court-connected mediation. The governmental committee argues that

...the legislation on a permanent, national system of court-connected mediation ought to be limited mainly to some *central questions* (my italics), such as especially the process at the initiation of the mediation, who is eligible as court-connected mediator, confidentiality, conclusion of court-connected mediation, legal costs of the mediation and subsequent proceedings. According to the committee there is no need or basis for making detailed regulation of for example the role of the court-connected mediator. ...or for the procedure in the court-connected mediation itself. ...³⁰

Government and Parliament followed the committee's recommendations resulting in rather restricted legislation. This corresponds well with the thinking in parts of the mediation community, which often argue that mediation should not be regulated in detail.³¹ The argument is that detailed regulation of a practice that is intrinsically informal and flexible in nature could easily lead to overly formalized and legalized rules of practice, with the result that mediation becomes like the process it is supposed to be an alternative to. However, in addition to the *amount* of regulation, close attention ought to be given to the *type* of issues regulated. Interestingly, the *central questions* included in the Danish legislation are questions that are all central from a legal point of view. They concern, for example, division of legal costs, the discretion of the courts in appointing a mediator, and the profession of the mediator as judge or attorney. These issues are certainly relevant from a mediation point of view as well, but aside from the confidentiality issue, they would hardly be considered the most central. From a mediation perspective, other issues, not included in the legislation, would be considered important such as definition of mediation, guidelines for practice, types of mediation (facilitative or evaluative) and education of mediators. These are subject to soft law (for example, ethical guidelines), which does not carry the same weight as legislation. The choice of what and how to regulate in the Danish legislation probably reflects that the Administration of Justice Committee was made up by representatives with primarily legal and not mediation backgrounds. The choice of regulation also mirrors that the thinking and concerns from litigation are carried into the field of mediation.

9.4 Court-Connected Mediation in Action

So far, this chapter has dealt with the early history of mediation in conjunction with the court system in Denmark, as well as the contemporary system of court-connected mediation. In this section, attention turns to the practice of court-connected mediation. As pointed out by Roscoe Pound over 100 years ago in his famous article *Law in Books and Law in Action*, it is important to consider not only

³⁰ Report no 1481/2005 on Court-Connected Mediation, p. 134.

³¹ See, *inter alia*, Dalberg-Larsen (2009), p. 72f.

the law itself but also how it is practiced, as an important source of information about a legal phenomenon.³²

As mentioned already, the stated rationale for contemporary court-connected mediation is to expand the choice of processes in civil procedure and to provide a process that is qualitatively different from the processes provided already by the courts. Court-connected mediation was promoted by the legislature for its ability to generate more satisfactory solutions in civil disputes by granting the parties influence on the process and by resolving conflicts based on the parties' interests, needs and future rather than based on current law. The question is whether or not this is obtained. A study of court-connected mediation in Denmark provides some answers, and a selection of findings relevant to the theme of this article will be presented here, with special attention paid to the practice of mediation in the mediation meetings.³³

The study was an exploratory, qualitative study comprised of three parts: observations of 20 court-connected mediations, 55 interviews with mediators and parties to the cases and an archival study of 42 agreements from another pool of cases.³⁴ All types of civil cases and parties were included in the study, with the notable exception of cases regarding divorce, custody and visitation.³⁵ Mediators were a mixed pool of judges and attorneys with special training, and the parties were both private litigants and companies.

9.4.1 *Creative Solutions*

A central premise of mediation is the possibility of designing solutions based on the parties' interests, needs and future rather than exclusively based on law. In other words, mediation allegedly allows for creative problem solving in a way that is not possible in a court of law. In the archival study of 42 agreements, the parties' legal demands in the court case were compared to the written outcome of the mediation in order to examine whether the mediated agreement differed from the legal demands or not. The result of this comparison is given in Table 9.1.

As appears, in no cases were the parties' demands met in full. In almost half the cases (47.6 %), the parties came to an agreement that was somewhere between their legal claims. In over half of the cases (52.4 %), the agreement included items that were not mentioned in the legal claims as they appeared in the court documents.

³² Pound (1910).

³³ For a full account of the study, see Adrian (2012). Generally, there are few observational studies of mediation, and this study is the only one of its kind in Denmark so far. The other comprehensive investigation into court-connected mediation in Denmark is an evaluation of the pilot project based on statistical information, surveys and interviews; see Roepstorff and Kyvsgaard (2005).

³⁴ See chap. 5 in Adrian (2012) for a detailed account of the methodology of the study and the data.

³⁵ These cases are different from other civil cases in so many ways that an adequate study of them was impossible within the scope of the study.

Table 9.1 Content of mediated agreement

	Demands met	Between the legal demands	1–2 extra items	+3 extra items	Total
Cases	0	20	12	10	42
%	0 %	47.6 %	28.6 %	23.8 %	100 %

In 28.6 % of the agreements, one to two items other than the legal demand were included in the agreement, and in 23.8 % of the agreements, three items or more. These other items cover a wide range of issues such as exchange of property, selling or buying of property, taking over of debt, delivering of paint, repairing of goods, confidentiality regarding the dispute in the family, etc.

The result of the archival study suggests that a certain amount of creativity does occur in these mediations.³⁶ Since the agreements are entered into in a legal setting, there is a likely risk of not including agreed upon nonlegal issues in the final text, leading to an underrepresentation of these types of issues in the study. However, the agreements from the cases in the observational study where the mediations were observed in full suggest that this is not the case.

A few other studies have examined creativity in mediation of legal cases with inconclusive results as to the extent this occurs, and two of these studies are Scandinavian.³⁷ In a study of agreements in Norwegian court-connected mediation, Mykland et al. found an average of 2.38 demands in the cases as they appeared in court and an average of 4.55 elements in the mediated agreement, and in a Finnish study, Evarsti found that close to 20 % of the cases contained elements beyond the legal claims of the case.³⁸ Despite the variation in reported creativity in Scandinavian and other international studies alike, it seems safe to conclude that court-connected mediation does indeed offer parties an opportunity to include other items than their legal claims in mediated agreements and hence offers an opportunity for creativity in problem solving.

³⁶ This corresponds with the results of the evaluation study of the pilot project where 44 % of the participating attorneys and 63 % of the mediators found that the parties to a fair or high degree came to agreements that could not have been achieved in a ruling; see Roepstorff and Kyvsgaard (2005), p. 76.

³⁷ The others are American. In a study of 50 legal cases with parties who had a prior relationship, Golann (2002) found that in 63 % of the cases the agreements included either a relationship repair (22 %) or other integrative results (41 %). Wissler (2002) found that 82 % of the agreements contained monetary elements only and 18 % of the agreement with monetary elements in combination with other elements or other elements alone, and McEwen and Maiman (1981) found that only 12 % of agreements in small claims mediation contained conditions other than payment.

³⁸ Mykland et al. (2009) and Ervasti (2011).

9.4.2 *Interests and Needs*

The creativity in court-connected mediation agreements suggests that interests and needs are in fact addressed in these mediations.³⁹ At a minimum, alternative solutions must have been discussed as part of the negotiation phase of the mediation,⁴⁰ and the basis for doing so most likely stems from interest and needs having been included at an earlier stage in the mediation. This hypothesis was tested and supported in the observational study where five out of the six agreements containing items outside the legal claims of the court case were cases where interests and needs had in fact been addressed earlier in the mediation suggesting a connection between the two.

The observational study and interviews addressed the issue of interests and needs on a more general level and generated two main findings: parties in court cases do have interests and needs beyond the legal claims of their cases, and these interests and needs are, to some extent, included in the mediations.

In interviews after the mediations, parties regularly reported interests and needs that motivated their claims, for example a landlord who wanted some useless items returned after the termination of a lease as a matter of business ethics or a landowner who wanted compensation for trees that were cut down by a neighbour because she wanted to be asked permission before the cutting down, not because she wanted the trees per se. This finding suggests that parties in civil court cases do indeed have interests and needs that motivate their legal claims, making it possible to introduce these in the course of the court-connected mediation. However, this does not always happen, and there seems to be a number of obstacles for this to take place on a full scale. In the study of the place of interests and needs at the mediation table, five criteria were used to categorize cases: mediators' probing for interests and needs in the mediation, parties bringing it up, mediators following up on interests and needs, existence of interests not addressed in the mediation, and the relative amount of time spent on interests and needs in the mediations. Using these criteria, the cases in the study fall into two groups: cases where needs and interests are addressed in the court-connected mediations to some extent and cases where needs and interests are addressed only to a limited extent. Judging from mediation literature and anecdotal evidence, a third type of mediation seems to exist, mediations where interests and needs are prominent, but evidence of this type of case was not found in the study. The findings suggest that the promise of a conversation at the mediation table with a focus on the parties' interests and needs rather than their legal positions is not fully achieved. The study suggests that this happens for a number of reasons, among others the parties framing the conflict in legal terms, the

³⁹ Interests are understood as the motives underlying positions (demands) and needs as recognizable and universal needs underlying positions and interests; see Adrian (2012), p. 135. For interests and needs in general, see Fisher et al. (1999).

⁴⁰ For the different phases, see Adrian (2012) and Vindeløv (2012).

focus of mediators on facts, the mediators' legal background and the mediations' legal setting.

9.4.3 *The Role of Law*

The observation study shows that the mediators practice facilitative rather than evaluative mediation. In only 20 % of the cases did the mediator make suggestions or evaluate the parties' proposals, and these suggestions and evaluations were mostly based on common sense and rarely on legal grounds. However, the law was present in the mediations in other ways. Analyzing the 20 cases in the observational study for legal content related to the claim of the court case, three different positions were found: substantive law was either not present or only minimally so, substantive law played a central role or substantive law was present as an undercurrent.

In one-quarter of the cases, substantive law was either not present at all or minimally so. For example, in a case concerning termination of a business partnership and the dissolution of the business, most of the mediation regarded the troublesome collaboration of the parties during their business venture and trying to understand what had been going on. Only minimal time was used discussing recovery of expenses and ownership of various objects, and again this was primarily discussed from a moral rather than a legal standpoint. In another quarter of the cases, substantive law played a central role. The conversation in the mediation centered on legal issues, and this seemed apparent to the participants. An example of this type of case concerned the cancellation of a real estate deal. During the period of time from the agreement to buy to the cancellation of the deal, the value of the property was severely devalued due to the global financial crisis. The legal question was whether the chairman of the board in the buying company could be held liable for the loss. The legal arguments for and against were discussed at the mediation. In the remaining half of the cases, substantive law was not explicitly addressed in the mediation but seemed to have an implicit presence in the conversation. An example of this is a landlord-tenant case where the issue at dispute was whether the landlord could evict the tenants in order to occupy the apartment himself. The conversation in the mediation contained elements of what on the surface seemed like mundane issues for both parties such as their financial situation, their relations to family, the current and potential use of the apartment, etc. However, these issues were at the *same time* the criteria that a court of law would take into account if it were to make a ruling in the case. Interestingly, the parties did not bring up issues that were not relevant from a legal perspective such as the tenants' age and their psychological need for living in this particular space or the landlord's possibility to realize a certain dream of living situation. On the surface, they had a nonlegal conversation, but in reality their conversation could be interpreted as a negotiation of the legal merits of the case. The question is if the participants in the mediations were aware of the implicit legal content of the conversation. The study cannot answer this

question, but it seems fair to hypothesize that all participants in court-connected mediations—especially the legal actors—to some extent knew this. But because of the informal nature of the mediation conversation and because of the absence of explicit references to law, the participants were unaware of the important role law played in these mediations.

The mediations were influenced by law and the legal setting in other interesting ways: first, by parties asking for a legal assessment of their case. This occurred in 25 % of the cases but was generally rejected by the mediator. Second, by parties acting strategically in the mediations. No admissions of fault (whether legally or morally), apologies or admissions of uncertainty were made during conversations in these court-connected mediations. The parties were probably protecting themselves from jeopardizing their chances of winning the case in court should the matter not be resolved in mediation. The mediators seem to have similar concerns. Thus, court-connected mediation takes place with the court case and the legal system as a very present backdrop.

The role of law in court-connected mediation points to the dilemmas of a practice that, on one hand, intends to move out of the legal realm and, on the other hand, is placed in a legal context by the mere fact that the cases continue in the court if they are not resolved in mediation. The mediations can be understood as occurring *in the shadow of the court case*.⁴¹

9.4.4 A Conversation at Eye Level

Participants in court-connected mediation generally express satisfaction with their mediations.⁴² A possible explanation for this can be found in the study. It shows that parties generally find the mediation meetings to be at eye level. By eye level is meant that the parties' perspective is the focus of attention, the conversation takes place on the parties' terms, the parties are met by interest and concern by the mediator and the parties find that they can exert influence on both the process and content. In other words, they experience a high level of self-determination and a sense of ownership vis-à-vis the conflict and the process.⁴³

This sense of an eye-level conversation is reinforced by being physically at eye level. In contrast to a courtroom where the judge is seated on a platform at least 10 cm above the rest of the room, and where the parties are facing each other at separate tables at considerable distance, court-connected mediations take place in

⁴¹ This seems to be a more encompassing concept than Mnookin and Kornhauser's (1978–1979) idea of mediation taking place *in the shadow of the law* or Riskin and Welsh's (2008) notion of mediation taking place *in the shadow of the courthouse*.

⁴² This is supported by a host of international studies. For studies in Scandinavia, see evaluation reports on the Danish and Norwegian pilot projects, Roepstorff and Kyvsgaard (2005) and Knoff (2001).

⁴³ For ownership of conflict, see Christie (1977).

meeting rooms with all participants sitting around a table, typically with the mediator at the end and the parties on either side and the attorneys next to the parties. The experience of the participants is exemplified by the following quotes from three different cases:

When I go to court, it is either as a witness or as a party and I can speak only during the examination. Here [*the mediation*] I was allowed to talk which I am not at a court hearing. . . . It is not as hard core as court proceedings with a judge. The mediator was extremely good at facilitating a pleasant atmosphere and so forth. It wasn't so formal.

The courts have the big doors and all that. You have to feel small from the outset. You feel like a looser as soon as you pass the big doors. You are small. This [*the mediation*] was in ordinary offices. People feel more confident when they go in. You are not pointed derisively at and you don't feel small. Nobody is sitting on a platform. Nobody is looking down at you. You are sitting at eyelevel at the table.

We are sitting around a table and could drink coffee and communicate as we pleased.

These quotes illustrate that the parties feel at ease in the mediations and feel that they are in a setting where they are respected participants in their own case. A few parties (6 %) reported that this sense of ease backfired after the mediation as they had second thoughts on whether they had revealed too much in the conversation or been too generous in the negotiations.

Party satisfaction makes sense from the perspective of procedural justice. In a legal context, procedural justice typically refers to the objective fairness of the process by which authoritative decisions are made, whereas in a social psychological perspective it refers to the subjective fairness of the procedure experienced by individuals.⁴⁴ It is the latter meaning of the term that is addressed here. Four factors are found to positively influence procedural justice assessments: voice, neutrality, trust in third party and respectful treatment.⁴⁵ The ideal court-connected mediation meets these four factors. It provides voice for participants, the mediator is neutral, the proximity and contact with the mediator promote trust and, finally, the parties are treated with respect. This leads to a positive assessment of procedural justice that shows in general satisfaction measures, among others.⁴⁶

9.4.5 Concluding Remarks on Court-Connected Mediation in Action

In general, the study found that court-connected mediation is qualitatively different from the litigation processes that it aims to replace. However, the study also demonstrated that the legal setting and the law creep through the cracks into the

⁴⁴ Hollander-Blumoff and Tyler (2011), p. 3, and Adrian (2013), p. 108.

⁴⁵ Hollander-Blumoff and Tyler (2011), p. 5f., and Adrian (2013), p. 108f.

⁴⁶ Meares et al. (2012), p. 8f.

mediation and influence the thinking and the actions of the participants. The role of the law and the limited place for interests and needs in the meetings, as well as the strategic thinking of the parties mentioned, above are examples of this. Other examples are that emotions and relational issues are rarely addressed in the meetings; mediators have a widespread use of closed, factual questions; the problem definition in mediation often resembles that of the court case; etc. In sum, the elements of mediation that most resemble legal processes are emphasized, whereas those that are most unfamiliar tend to be diminished.

9.5 Where Is Court-Connected Mediation At?

The last third of this chapter aims to reflect on where court-connected mediation is at present and what position it might occupy in the Danish civil justice system in the future. The future will be dealt with in the next section. In this section, the question of where court-connected mediation is at will be addressed by examining the prevalence of court-connected mediations, as well as mediations of legal cases outside the courts and by examining the discourse on court-connected mediation in news magazines issued by the courts and by the bar association.

9.5.1 Use of Court-Connected Mediation

Unfortunately, court-connected mediation is poorly documented in Denmark. The Danish Court Administration is responsible for documenting all types of court activities, and much of this documentation is made available to the public through the agency's website.⁴⁷ On this website, it is possible to find a variety of statistical information about the latest decade, including types of cases handled by the courts, number of rulings, number of cases filed, number of settlements, etc. However, with regard to court-connected mediation, no statistical information has been made publicly available since this activity was implemented nationwide in April 2008. In contrast, the pilot project was very well documented with monthly statistics sent to participating courts, mediators and other interested persons, as well as with a preliminary evaluation report and a final evaluation report in 2005. The reason for the lack of available information from the statistical department over the past years is that there are problems in the reporting system, as well as with the mediation data submitted by the courts due to inconsistencies in the way cases are reported. These problems are regularly cited to be solved 'soon' but have not been to this day. It seems fair to speculate that the lack of public statistics is also a sign of limited

⁴⁷ See <http://www.domstol.dk/om/talogfakta/statistik/Pages/default.aspx>.

Table 9.2 Cases settled in mediation

	2009	2010	2011	2012
All municipal courts	330	412	422	422
Appeal courts	52	61	61	83
Total ^a	382	473	483	505

^aIn addition to the municipal courts and the high courts, mediation is offered in the Maritime and Commercial High Court. However, mediators from this court report that it is rarely used

attention given to court-connected mediation and a sign of ambivalence towards the position for this dispute resolution mechanism in the justice system.

As a consequence of the poor documentation, court-connected mediation has been in effect nationwide for more than 5 years now, with very little possibility for insight in what is going on. However, it has been possible to piece together information on settled cases in 2009–2012 from various sources, and the numbers are given in Table 9.2.⁴⁸

The numbers only account for the development of *settled* cases, and it appears there has been a rise over the years, albeit a fairly small one on the whole. There is no data from 2008, which is the year when court-connected mediation was expanded from the five courts in the pilot project to all courts (27 in total). A large increase is seen between 2009 and 2010 (19 %) and a fairly small increase the following year. From 2011 to 2012, the number of court-connected mediations remains the same. The future will show whether the stagnation seen from 2011 to 2012 is a permanent change in the pattern. By comparison, a total of 58,674 civil cases were filed in the participating courts in 2012, indicating a potential for increasing the use of court-connected mediation.⁴⁹ The reported numbers do not account for the number of cases *referred* to mediation or the *number of mediations* taking place. However, provided that the settlement rates are steady from year to year, the numbers are an indication of the development in referred cases too.⁵⁰

Another indication of activity in the area of mediation of legal cases at large can be traced by looking into the activities of lawyers who offer mediation services. In 2003, they formed an organization, *Danske Mediatoradvokater* (Danish Mediator Lawyers), affiliated with the Danish Bar and Law Society. In addition to this organization, the Danish Bar and Law Society supported the setup of a mediation agency, *The Danish Mediation Institute*, in 2007. The two organizations have joined forces in 2013 in order to promote mediation and appoint mediators from a joint platform. Training of lawyers in mediation began in 2002, and today

⁴⁸ Annual accounts (embedsregnskaber) from the two high courts, Østre Landsret and Vestre Landsret, 2009–2012, and mails from the Danish Court Administration, 12 August and 29 August 2013.

⁴⁹ <http://www.domstol.dk/om/talogfakta/statistik/Pages/civilesager.aspx>.

⁵⁰ Due to the lack of adequate information, there is considerable uncertainty with regard to settlement rates, but various statistics and reports suggest it is between 50 and 63 %. There is nothing that suggests substantial variations from year to year.

approximately 360 have participated in a rather comprehensive training program.⁵¹ About 190 are actively promoting and providing mediations through their professional mediation organization, and 51 of these are furthermore appointed court-connected mediators. The bulk of the mediations handled by the lawyer mediators concern legal disputes, but they offer mediation in other areas as well. Information on how many mediations are conducted by this group of mediators is unavailable, but anecdotal evidence suggests that aside from members mediating in court-connected mediation, the number is very limited.

As appears, an examination of available data, however incomplete, suggests that neither court-connected mediation nor mediation of legal matters outside the courts have taken off on a large scale.

9.5.2 *Presentation of Mediation in Professional News Magazines*

Another way to approach the question of mediation's position in the justice system is to examine the discourse on mediation. For a limited study of this, the writing of two publications from January 2001 to July 2013 was reviewed, especially for court-connected mediation and also about mediation more generally. The two publications are the news magazine from the justice system and the news magazine from the bar. These publications were chosen as they are the official channels of public communication of the two organizations that have the most at stake in court-connected mediation.

The Danish Court Administration issues a news publication, *Retten Rundt*⁵² (Around the Court), on the average, four times a year. The publication is primarily aimed at administrative and judicial staff in the courts at all levels, as well as employees at the Danish Court Administration's main office and staff from a small board providing decisions regarding appeal cases.⁵³ In addition, the newsletter is aimed at 'interested users', for example other parts of the legal community, other civil services, the media and the public. The Danish Bar and Law Society's magazine, *Advokaten* (The Lawyer), is published ten times a year and is aimed at members of the society. A stated additional audience are those interested in legal policy, including journalists.⁵⁴ Hence, both the Danish Court Administration's newsletter and the Danish Bar and Law Society's magazine are primarily

⁵¹ The numbers about the lawyer mediators are provided by the chairman of the board for the Danish Mediation Institute by mail, September 5, 2013.

⁵² Until 2010 called *Danmarks Domstole* (the Courts of Denmark).

⁵³ Regarding target group, see *Retten Rundt* nr. 13, marts 2013, p. 2.

⁵⁴ Regarding target group, see the magazine's website: <http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/Service/Publikationer/Medlemsbladet%20Advokaten.aspx>.

professional magazines, but they have a window open to the wider public and represent their respective organizations' official voice.

Retten Rundt has published six articles about court-connected mediation since 2001, none about mediation more generally, or about mediation schemes in other governmental settings. The six articles appear in 2003, 2004 (2), 2010 (2) and 2013. In addition, court-connected mediation is mentioned briefly in other articles one to two times most years. The three articles in 2003–2004 were published during the period of implementation of the pilot project on court-connected mediation. Nothing in particular happened in either 2010 or 2013 that would spark writing on the issue at that particular point in time.

When looking at the content of the articles, the early articles seem to have a dual function of information and promotion. The articles explain what mediation is so that the uninformed can learn about this new activity, and this is done in a very positive manner underlining the merits of mediation. Mediators are commonly quoted in the articles, and the quotes either explain elements of mediation or praise aspects of it. For example, in a news article under the heading *Court-connected mediation is a success* from April 2004, a mediator is quoted for having no doubts about the merits of mediation:

It [court-connected mediation] has been very positive and generally the parties have been very satisfied.⁵⁵

Mediation is also presented as the dispute resolution method of the future. An example of this is found in an article from December 2004, where a mediator in an article with telling heading *Court-Connected Mediation Is the Future* states:

There will probably be a general tendency towards parties choosing mediation in the future like in the countries we usually compare ourselves to . . .⁵⁶

In the same article, the Director of the Danish Court Administration is quoted for saying

I would really like to see the courts continuously developing towards our vision of being the central forum for dispute resolution. That we are attractive as dispute resolution specialists and can handle mediation, small claims cases as well as large business cases.⁵⁷

In articles from recent years, a voice of concern appears. Even though the articles in 2010 and 2013 continue to inform about mediation in a very positive manner, they also express concern with the low number of cases mediated. Court-connected mediation has not taken off in the way it was expected and as formulated in 2010:

. . .the advantages of court-connected mediation are so obvious, and the parties often have a positive experience, it is puzzling that relatively few choose it.⁵⁸

⁵⁵ *Danmarks Domstole* nr. 21, 2004, p. 19.

⁵⁶ *Danmarks Domstole* nr. 25, 2004, p. 12.

⁵⁷ *Danmarks Domstole* nr. 29, 2005, p. 6.

⁵⁸ *Retten Rundt* nr. 1, 2010, p. 10.

Various answers to this question are provided in the articles, such as court-connected mediation being a relatively new and different process, lack of information about mediation and scepticism among attorneys. Various examples are given on how courts implement mediation administratively and how mediators handle cases, serving as an indirect inspiration to colleagues and courts. The underlying message of all the articles seems to be this: court-connected mediation is great; use it!

Quite a large number of articles on mediation have appeared in *Advokaten* over the years, and many of these have concerned court-connected mediation. The bulk of articles are news articles, but articles discussing professional issues (confidentiality rules, definition of mediation, etc.) appear as well. The ten news articles from 2001 to 2013, which focuses either exclusively or partly on court-connected mediation, have appeared in waves following the same pattern as *Retten Rundt*. Three articles appeared in 2003, as the pilot project on court-connected mediation was initiated in collaboration with the Danish Bar and Law Society. The remainder appeared in 2008–2010 and 2013 (3) with no apparent cause. It is possible that the similar patterns of writing in the two magazines are because writing about mediation in one magazine inspires articles on the topic in the other.

In terms of content, the early articles are about a mix of court-connected mediation and mediation more generally, and they follow similar trends as the articles in *Retten Rundt* in being informative and very positive. For example, a British attorney and a mediation expert are cited in 2003 for saying

It is so much better to come to an agreement, a solution for both parties, than having a winner and a loser. Mind you, a winner who maybe, and only maybe, is satisfied. A mediator reaches a solution together with the parties that no other authorities can achieve.⁵⁹

Aside from being the year of the pilot project on court-connected mediation, which the society was instrumental in initiating, 2003 was also the year when the Danish Bar and Law Society in earnest embraced mediation, among others launching its mediation training and instituting a subcommittee organizing lawyer mediators. This is reflected in a total of eight articles on various aspects of mediation that year. Until then, mediation was a fringe activity among a very small subgroup of lawyers, especially those in the area of family law.⁶⁰ The head of the Danish Bar and Law Society's board expressed this new trend like this:

Mediation has been discussed in this country for many years and we must admit that until recently the phenomenon has been met with considerable scepticism on the part of Danish

⁵⁹ *Advokaten* nr. 4, 2003. (<http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/Service/Publikationer/Tidligere%20artikler/2003/Advokaten%204/Mr%20Mediator%20vil%20glæde%20begge%20parter%20i%20en%20konflikt.aspx>).

⁶⁰ A group of family lawyers were trained as mediators as early as 1996/1997, and in 2002 they were instrumental in providing mediation in family matters on an experimental basis in the Copenhagen Municipal Court.

lawyers. . . The Danish Bar and Law Society sees it as an important task to participate in developing mediation in a Danish legal context and in such a manner that lawyers are provided a natural role when the practical use of this instrument of dispute resolution spreads – and it will.⁶¹

As appears, mediation is framed as a new business opportunity for lawyers, and this theme of mediation as a business opportunity occurs in various articles in *Advokaten* over the years. Also, the firm belief that mediation is a dispute resolution method of the future is expressed in the quote and several times in other articles over the years.

It is not until 2009 that there is a news article exclusively on court-connected mediation again and although mediation is still commended, the article points to several problems such as the reimbursement of lawyers who mediate, access to mediation facilities the opening towards evaluative mediation, etc. One year later, an article appears under the heading *Court-connected Mediation is on a Roll*. In addition to reporting positive experience with mediation in this realm, it points to the fact that the new national court-connected mediation scheme came off to a slow start in 2008 (ostensibly due to massive reforms in the court system taking place at the same time) but seemed to be on the rise. In 2013, as much as seven articles addressed mediation, and three of those with a focus on court-connected mediation. This seems to be part of a strategy to promote mediation among lawyers and seems to be sparked from the underuse of court-connected mediation, as well as mediation outside the courts by lawyers. One author, a lawyer, finds that Denmark is lagging behind and continues:

For mediators it is a source of continuing puzzlement that Danish lawyers and companies have not embraced mediation as the evident method of dispute resolution that is both faster, better and cheaper.⁶²

This and other articles go on to suggest explanations for the apparent underuse of mediation in and outside the courts, implicitly recommending an increased use of this type of dispute resolution at the same time.

The review of the two news magazines exhibits certain patterns. Since 2003, court-connected mediation (and mediation in general) has been presented as a desirable form of dispute resolution in both *Retten Rundt* and *Advokaten*. Articles have generally been informative and very positive, and they exhibit a strong underlying intent of promoting this new form of dispute resolution. Critical voices have been almost nonexistent. Continuing references have been made to how mediation has taken off, internationally leaving the impression that Denmark is lagging behind the international community in this regard. Initially, international references were probably made to give mediation legitimacy and in anticipation of it as a growing field in Denmark, but in recent years references seem to be made to persuade legal actors of the appropriateness of mediation and as an argument for how puzzling it is that mediation has not taken off in Denmark the way that it

⁶¹ *Advokaten* nr. 5, 2003. (<http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/Service/Publikationer/Tidligere%20artikler/2003/Advokaten%205/Konfliktloesning.aspx>).

⁶² *Advokaten* 1, 2013, p. 36.

apparently is supposed to. The story told is that of a significant breakthrough for mediation in and out of courts perpetually just around the corner. Various explanations have been offered for the disparity between the wish to promote mediation and the number of mediations taking place, and the underlying assumption has been that mediation in legal disputes is good and desirable, whether in a court-connected setting or outside the courts.

9.5.3 Ambivalence Towards Court-Connected Mediation?

Somehow court-connected mediation remains a fringe activity, a sort of stepchild in the family of the justice system despite attempts to make it mainstream. Given that there are sufficient cases filed in court for a potential increase in referrals to mediation as suggested in section 9.5.1 above, how can the discrepancy between *the number* of cases in court-connected mediation as well as mediation of legal matters outside the courts and *the official voices of praise* in the justice system as well as among attorneys be understood?

It may be merely an issue of old habits dying hard, and over time with sufficient information and encouragement, this will change. One could even argue that the introduction of an object as foreign to the legal world as mediation has, in fact, been rather successful. In the big scheme of things, 10 years is not a long time for a new process to be accepted in a system as conservative and resistant to change as the legal world. On the other hand, one could argue that if all actors in the justice system (the court administration, the judges and the attorneys alike) *really* embraced court-connected mediation, it would be a group with sufficient leverage to flood the court-connected mediation system with cases in a very short period of time. I would argue that ambivalence and a fair amount of silent resistance towards court-connected mediation in the legal community serve as an important explanation for the present state of affairs. This ambivalence and resistance are not voiced in the official channels of information as just demonstrated, but numerous signs of it can be found elsewhere.

Ambivalence seems present in the Danish Court Administration. As mentioned already, data on court-connected mediation activities are lacking. In other areas, updated statistical information is available, which is a sign of priority and political attention. If the Danish Court Administration made mediation a priority, the obstacles in data collection would surely be overcome. The Danish Court Administration exhibits ambivalence in other ways. Court-connected mediation does not get focused administrative attention. There is no person or unit with an overall responsibility for this activity, which in other agencies that have introduced mediation seems paramount for successful implementation. Instead, responsibility for various aspects of court-connected mediation is spread out to various units with one being responsible for statistics, another for ethics and a third for educational activities. Furthermore, it can be argued that the Danish Court Administration's

change of vision implicitly expresses that mediation is not at the center of attention. Until 2012, the vision was

The Courts of Denmark is a highly respected and confidence-building organization that solves its tasks with the highest quality, service and efficiency. The Courts of Denmark secure the rule of law and is the contemporary and primary venue for *dispute resolution*.⁶³ (my italics)

The wording changed in 2012 to

The courts work in an up-to-date and professional manner for law and justice by *making correct rulings* in due time – rulings that are well-founded and understandable. In that way we earn the confidence and respect of the population.⁶⁴ (my italics)

As appears, the idea of being a primary venue of dispute resolution expressed in the earlier vision is deleted. The current vision emphasizes rulings and thereby the litigation process. It is probably not an intentional downgrading of court-connected mediation but rather an expression of a traditional understanding of courts as an adjudicative enterprise. In such an enterprise, there is limited space for court-connected mediation.

So far, attention has been paid to the national systems level. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that on the local level, court-connected judge mediators experience resistance.⁶⁵ It is not uncommon that the presiding judge does not make court-connected mediation a priority in terms of communication, meeting space and time for fast scheduling of mediations. Also, many judge mediators report that their judge colleagues do not actively refer cases to mediation and that mediation is driven by the small group of judge mediators appointed in each court. Since mediation in some courts has been around since the pilot in 2003 and in all others since 2008, it is hardly lack of information alone that accounts for the relatively low number of cases. Mediation has been presented in the news magazine of the courts, as demonstrated above, and information about court-connected mediation is available on the website of the Danish Court Administration, as well as the website of most local courts. In all courts, a group of judges serve as mediators and can also be consulted for information. Also, it is part of a professional responsibility to find out about new initiatives and legislation. Hence, if lack of knowledge is indeed a problem, it seems fair to see it as an expression of either open or indirect resistance through indifference to this form of dispute resolution.

In the community of lawyers, ambivalence seems abound as well. Attorneys are often the first to be presented with legal conflicts, and they have ample opportunity to suggest mediation to their clients in the course of dealing with the matter. Clients often defer to their attorneys for appropriate action and are likely to follow their

⁶³ *Danmarks Domstole* nr. 6, 2001, p. 4.

⁶⁴ <http://www.domstol.dk/om/maalogvaerdier/vision/Pages/default.aspx>.

⁶⁵ For the past 10 years, I have conducted a number of mediation trainings of judges, made presentations at local courts, interviewed court-connected mediators and had numerous informal conversations with judges, judge mediators and other court personnel. It is based on my impressions from these settings, coupled with written material, that I make these observations.

recommendations. Hence, if attorneys wholeheartedly embraced mediation in and out of court, there would likely be more cases in court-connected mediation than is currently the case and definitely likely be much more mediation activities outside the courts than is the case. As mentioned above, only a limited amount of cases are resolved through the attorneys' own mediation agency. This is hardly a matter of lack of information alone. As documented, much has been written on mediation in the Danish Bar and Law Society's magazine. It has been the subject of professional meetings, and many attorneys are trained mediators themselves. Additionally, lawyers have the same professional duty to stay informed about new activities and legislation as judges have. One would expect that at least attorneys, who are mediators themselves, refer cases to mediation in and out of court on a regular basis, but apparently this is not the case. According to their ethical guidelines s 16.9, attorneys have a duty to work for the cheapest solution for the clients and

[a]n attorney should at appropriate juncture counsel the client to consider a settlement or should refer the case for mediation or the like.⁶⁶

This outlines a duty to suggest mediation or other types of settlement activities, but since it is not a 'must' but a 'should', it is probably hard to hold attorneys to this ethical standard. However, it does send a message about the supposed role of mediation in modern practice.

For attorneys and judges alike, other issues than lack of knowledge seem to be at stake when it comes to the fairly limited referral to court-connected mediation. For attorneys, income is very likely of some concern, although it is not discussed openly. All other things being equal, a case resolved in mediation typically means less work for the attorney and consequently a lower fee. It is possible that over time, clients will reward attorneys who refer appropriate cases to mediation by placing more businesses with them and by referring others to their services, but in the short term, they are likely to experience decreased income in some cases. An additional concern may be the fear of 'giving away' clients. An attorney who refers a client to a colleague for mediation may worry about the client wanting to consult the lawyer who mediated or another lawyer in the future.

The matter of fees and clients is relevant for attorneys only, but attorneys and judges may draw on the same sources for their attitude to mediation in other respects. Belonging to the legal profession, judges and attorneys alike may not buy into the ideology of mediation. It introduces a new professional role and a new understanding of the role of the parties to the case that legal professionals may not be particularly interested in. On a fundamental level, they may feel uncomfortable taking on a new professional role and are insecure as to whether they can fill it. They may also fear for loss of status and power. In addition, the legal professionals may disagree with the idea in mediation that the parties in the case are

⁶⁶For an English version of the ethical guidelines in full, see Jørgensen and Lavesen (2011), pp. 307.

experts on their own conflict and that the rule of law is optional in conflict resolution.

Ambivalence may also occur on the side of the parties. Participation is voluntary, and parties may generally be uninterested in this method of dispute resolution and want to have their case heard and determined by a judge. Unfortunately, there are no data available to shed light on whether this is true or not. Above I have suggested that clients are likely to follow their attorney's recommendation on this question. An evaluation of court-connected mediation showed that the recommendation of the attorney significantly influenced the choice of mediation for more than half of the parties interviewed.⁶⁷ Similarly, in interviews with 35 parties who participated in court-connected mediation, many pointed to the recommendation of their attorney for their reason to participate.⁶⁸ Whether the opposite is true as well, that parties decline mediation on the recommendation of their attorney, we do not know. However, it seems quite likely that attorneys play an important part in the decision of their clients on whether to mediate or not, and if this is so, a negative attitude towards mediation among lawyers will be mirrored among clients as well.

9.6 Where Is Court-Connected Mediation Going?

The jury on court-connected mediation's role in the civil justice system in Denmark is still out. As demonstrated in this chapter, court-connected mediation has been part of the justice system for the last 10 years and may be on its way to become an integral part of the justice system. However, it may go the other way. Court-connected mediation is still a fringe activity and ambivalence on different levels of the justice system and its actors seem to be prevalent. The current situation can be understood as a silent battle between new and old paradigms of dispute resolution, where the primary challenge for mediation is whether there is indeed sufficient room for an equal and respectful new member of the civil justice family that is based on a fundamentally different ideology.⁶⁹

If permanent space is granted to court-connected mediation in civil justice, the challenge may well be to maintain its characteristics. The history of the conciliation boards outlined in the beginning of this chapter shows how a nonlegal way of approaching conflict risks being absorbed by the very system that it is supposed to supplement.⁷⁰ Similar concerns have been aired *vis-à-vis* arbitration, which over the years has come to resemble the traditional adjudicative process that it originally was supposed to be an alternative to.⁷¹ The practice of contemporary court-

⁶⁷ Roepstorff and Kyvsgaard (2005), pp. 29 and 32.

⁶⁸ Unpublished data from the study on court-connected mediation that Adrian (2012) is based on.

⁶⁹ For the different paradigms, see Vindeløv (2012), p. 37ff.

⁷⁰ See Vindeløv (2012), p. 345.

⁷¹ See for example Kovach and Love (1998), p. 90ff.

connected mediation seems to be influenced by elements of litigation filtering through the cracks into the mediation process. If this happens on a massive scale, court-connected mediation risks sharing fate with conciliation boards and arbitration and may ultimately be rendered superfluous, leaving the justice system once again with litigation as the only means of dispute resolution. If, on the other hand, court-connected mediation succeeds in establishing itself as a unique supplement to litigation, it may pave the way for other processes in the civil justices, thus turning modern courts into forums for dispute resolution rather than forums for litigation only.

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Chapter 10

Comparative Aspects Between the Nordic Countries and Austria: Court Mediation in or Out?

Liisa Sippel

Abstract This chapter concerns mediation in the Nordic countries and Austria in the framework of the Mediation Directive. The main attention is directed to those in the Nordic countries that are member states of the EU and have implemented the directive, such as Finland and Sweden. The chapter also partly addresses to Denmark, although it is not bound by the Mediation Directive or subject to it. However, legislation has been made in Denmark parallel with the directive. The writing strives to throw light on the differences and similarities of mediation in the comparison countries. Austria can be seen as one of the forerunners in the field of mediation, which creates the ground for the choice of the comparison country. The Austrian Act on Mediation in Civil Matters came into force in 2004. It contains detailed regulations concerning special registration of mediators, which means that the Act lays down basic professional duties that registered mediators need to fulfil.

10.1 Comparative Aspects Between the Nordic Countries and Austria: Court Mediation in or Out?

Alternative dispute resolution (ADR) has resulted in a revolution for dispute resolution. This is how Finnish legal scholar Risto Koulu described its importance. Undoubtedly, it has changed our understanding of the way how conflicts should be settled. ADR is one of the current legal scholarly mega-trends, concluding from the number of pages that have been used for scientific exchange of opinions on this subject. Most of the attention has been garnered by mediation.¹

¹ Koulu (2011), p. 5.

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One reason for the high current interest in mediation is the Mediation Directive of the European Union,² which was laid down in 2008. The implementation of the directive, which should have been done as of 21 May 2011, has been followed with interest. Commentators also ponder whether the directive has increased the use of mediation and whether or not its targets have been achieved.

10.2 Mediation in the EU and the Nordic Countries

Although this book elaborates on litigation and mediation in the Nordic countries, it is justified to review the situation in the EU as a background. EU legislation affects the development of the legislation of the Nordic countries. Most Nordic countries belong to the EU as a member state. Only Norway has stayed out of the EU. Iceland applied for EU membership in 2009. Its membership status is now as a candidate country; accession negotiations have been underway since July 2010. A significant proportion of the EU's laws are currently applied in Iceland.³ Denmark is a member state of the EU but has not taken part in the adoption of the Mediation Directive and is not bound by it or subject to its application.⁴ In spite of that, amendments in legislation have been made in Denmark parallel with the Mediation Directive. In fact, Denmark has enacted legislation that confirms in virtually all respects the provisions of the Directive without reference to it.⁵ The legislative situation of Denmark is discussed in more detail in Chap. 9. Finland, Sweden and Austria, which legislation concerning mediation is a subject of this comparative writing, became simultaneously members of the EU at the beginning of 1995.

10.2.1 Mediation in the Nordic Countries

In the Nordics, there is not any common mediation method. On the contrary, every country has its own traditions and features of mediation, which are introduced elsewhere in the book. In this chapter, attention has been paid to the comparative aspects of mediation between Austria and Finland, mainly. In the examination, attention is paid partly also to Sweden and Denmark. The comparison is restricted to these three Nordic countries, which have drafted their legislation in accordance with the Mediation Directive and are member states of the EU, such as Austria.

² Directive (2008)/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.

³ The membership status of Iceland. http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/countries/detailed-country-information/iceland/index_en.htm. Accessed 18 July 2013.

⁴ Recital 30 of the Mediation Directive.

⁵ Flagstad et al. (2012), p. 74.

Before the handling of the main topic, the mediation system in Sweden and Denmark is briefly described.

In Sweden, the first proposal of the Swedish government⁶ to transfer the legislation according to the Mediation Directive sought to incorporate all the major elements of the Mediation Directive, among others, pretrial mediation. The proposal aroused heated discussion, which resulted in delayed implementation.⁷ One fundamental issue to which consensus was not achieved was court-administered mediation. The government determined not to implement a proposal for court-administered mediation where the presiding judge could serve as the mediator. Several local courts took issue of the proposal, pointing to the conflicting interests of a judge?⁸

According to another view, the Mediation Act and other legislative changes have not been subject to much discussion in Sweden. It has been thought that the lack of the discussion will be caused partly by the perception that the Mediation Act was enacted primarily to avoid accusations that Sweden was breaching its treaty obligations. Court-connected settlement procedures of two different kinds have been available in Sweden for more than 20 years. In light of Sweden's historic use of mediation, the news that the directive accompanied did not cause much debate in Sweden. Rather, Sweden was already considered on the forefront of developments in this area.⁹

According to Swedish Mediation Act, it does not apply to mediation or settlement procedures in matters before the courts.¹⁰ This means that the Mediation Act only applies to private mediation that is conducted under an agreement to mediate without any connection to the court. In addition, the Act applies also to the enforcement of mediation agreements entered into in Sweden after private mediation and mediation agreements entered into in other member states (except Denmark). The rules governing Swedish court-connected mediation schemes and related mediation agreements are found in the Code of Judicial Procedure (CJP) (*Rättegångsbalk* SFS 1942:720). There are two different mediation or settlement procedures available to courts: special mediation and settlement negotiation (*Förlikningsförhandling*).¹¹

In Sweden, judges have not acted as mediators traditionally. Instead, there are good experiences of the fact that the court has worked for the parties to reach a settlement (*Förlikningsförhandling*). According to the Swedish way of thinking,

⁶ Government Memorandum, DS 2010:39 <http://www.ud.se/sb/d/12846/a/156281>. Accessed 21 July 2013.

⁷ By enacting the Act on Mediation in Certain Civil and Commercial Disputes, which entered into force on 1 August 2011 Sweden implemented the Mediation Directive (Mediation Act).

⁸ Engström and Marian (2011), http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2071935. Accessed 21 July 2013. See also Swedish Justice Department, Government Proposition 2010/11:128 <http://www.ud.se/sb/d/13654/a/166631>. Accessed 21 July 2013.

⁹ Ficks (2012), pp. 342–344.

¹⁰ The Mediation Act 1(2), Lag om medling i vissa privaträttsliga tvister 1(2).SFS 2011:860.

¹¹ Ficks (2012), pp. 342–343.

everyone has a right to expect of the court a professional manner in resolving dispute, but they did not believe that the best way would be to use court mediation, and therefore it ended up in a special mediation in the reform of the law. At the same time, the legislator made the decision of keeping the roles of mediating and adjudicating separate.¹²

If the matter at issue is amenable, the court may make a decision on a special mediation if the parties give their consent. In such a situation, the court shall arrange a meeting between the parties and the mediator that has been appointed by a court.¹³ In Sweden, there is no official scheme to certify mediators.¹⁴ The court can appoint as a mediator an expert, such as a lawyer, economist or engineer.¹⁵ In principle, any lawyer, as well as lay persons, with specific professional knowledge relevant to the dispute may be appointed as mediator. According to a prevailing view, a judge, other than the presiding judge, who will be considered biased, may be appointed as a mediator for special mediation.¹⁶

In Denmark, mediation is based on this generally accepted principle: the parties themselves, with assistance from a neutral mediator, will negotiate a reasonable resolution. Chapter 27 of the Danish Justice Act covers and describes mediation that is applied only to cases that have already been initiated in court by a writ or the like. In Denmark, there is a close link between court proceedings and mediation. Private mediation is not covered by the Danish legislation. Only judges and lawyers can be appointed as mediators by the court. The court itself decides which of the court's judges can act as mediators. Both judges and lawyers must have an education authorised by either the Courts of Denmark or the Law Society in order to act as mediator. Lawyers who can act as mediators select the Danish Court Administration. In Denmark, the ethical guidelines have been created to apply to all mediators who act as court-appointed mediators. The mediation in the court needs an active role of the lawyer, who has to request mediation. The court's role is passive, without any obligations to implement mediation. If both parties stay passive on the issue, the mediation will not be used in the case.¹⁷

In Finland, the implementation of the directive did not cause any big discussion. ADR came to the court proceeding in the 1990s, when the regulations on achieving a settlement in the trial were taken to the Code of Judicial Procedure¹⁸ and, after that,

¹² Government Proposition 2010/11:128, pp. 23–24.

¹³ Chapter 42, Section 17(2) of the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure (2011:861).

¹⁴ Ficks (2012), p. 353.

¹⁵ Ervo and Sippel (2013), p. 410.

¹⁶ Ficks (2012), p. 355.

¹⁷ Flagstad et al. (2012), p.75, pp. 79–80.

¹⁸ Section 26 (595/1993):

(1) In a case amenable to settlement the court shall endeavor to persuade the parties to settle the case.

(2) When the court deems it expedient in order to promote a settlement, with consideration to the wishes of the parties, the nature of the case and the other circumstances, the court may also make a proposal to the parties for the amicable settlement of the case.

the Act concerning the mediation of civil matters in general courts at the beginning of the 2000s.¹⁹ The new Finnish Mediation Act (Act on mediation in civil matters and confirmation of settlements in general courts, 29.4.2011/394), which implemented the Mediation Directive in Finland, did not lead to remarkable changes to the earlier legislation. The regulations of the earlier act related to court-connected mediation were transferred, mainly unchanged, to the new Mediation Act. Chapter 3 of the new Mediation Act contained amended regulations about the confirmation of enforceability of a settlement reached in out-of-court mediation. Those provisions about confirmation of enforceability apply also to a settlement reached in out-of-court mediation and in court-connected mediation in other Member States, except Denmark.²⁰

In connection with the Finnish legislation, reform was added to the Code of Judicial Procedure, the regulation according to which the mediator is, in general, not allowed to testify in the trial about the matter he or she has found out in his/her task of the mediated matter. The same relates to the auxiliary of the mediator. The regulation applies with some preconditions to the person who has acted as a mediator in out-of-court mediation. The law concerning the limitation of debt was changed so that the limitation will be interrupted if the outstanding debt is handled in such a mediation procedure in which reached settlement can be confirmed enforceable. The limitation will be interrupted when a decision or an agreement at the beginning of the mediation concerning the outstanding debt is made. The limitation is considered interrupted the day as to which the handling of the matter in the mediation has ended.²¹ In Finland, the regulation covers court-connected mediation that is conducted in court by a judge. Out-of-court mediation is organised by the code of conduct of the institutions that offer mediation services.

In Finland, there are two different kinds of mediation available for the parties of a civil dispute: out-of-court mediation and court-connected mediation. Court-connected mediation in Finland means that the procedure will be conducted in court by a judge of the court who has been nominated to work as a mediator in the case. In Finland, the mediator has to be a judge (other than the presiding judge of the case) in court-connected mediation. The Finnish court has nothing to do with out-of-court mediation before the possible confirmation of the reached settlement.

When comparing the main features of mediation in the three Nordic countries, one can state that mediation has its own individual features in every country. In Sweden, there is no court-connected mediation in the same meaning as in the two other countries. In Swedish “special mediation”, the court arranges a meeting between the parties and the mediator, who is appointed by a court, who may usually be a lawyer, an economist, a engineer or the like. This relates to pending matters the judge considers suitable for mediation. In Finland, court-connected mediation may be

¹⁹ Koulu (2005), p. 28.

²⁰ The Government Bill 284/2010, pp. 1, 15.

²¹ Ibid, pp. 1, 14.

commenced upon the application of a party or the parties to the dispute. The pendency of an action before the application is not necessary. In court-connected mediation in Finland, only a judge appointed by a court may act as a mediator. In Denmark, the commencement of court-connected mediation requires that the matter is already pending in court. The mediator in court-connected mediation is appointed by a court in Denmark. An appointed mediator must have a relevant education on mediation and a legal background such as a lawyer or a judge. Unlike in Finland, in Denmark a lawyer may also act as a mediator in court-connected mediation. In both countries, Finland and Denmark, the court takes into account the parties' wish for the person who will be nominated as a mediator but is not bound to it.²²

10.2.2 The Progression of Mediation in EU

With the creation of the internal market of the EU, the intensification of trade and citizen's mobility increased. The disputes between citizens from different Member States increased, especially because of the expansion of cross-border e-commerce. Correspondingly increased is the number of cross-border disputes brought before the courts. That kind of disputes tends to result in more lengthy proceedings and higher court costs than domestic disputes. Cross-border disputes often raise complex issues that involve conflicts of laws and jurisdiction. The significance of ADR has come out in the meeting of the European Council in Vienna 1998 and at the special meeting of the council that has been held in 1999 in Tampere.²³

The European Commission published a Green Paper on alternative dispute resolution in civil and commercial laws in 2002. The purpose was to initiate a broad-based consultation of those involved in a certain number of legal issues that have been raised regarding the use of ADR in civil and commercial laws. In the Green Paper, the alternative methods of dispute resolution are defined as out-of-court dispute resolution processes conducted by a neutral third party, excluding arbitration proper. It states in the Green Paper that one of the political priority tasks by EU institutions is to promote alternative techniques, to ensure an environment propitious to development and to do what it can to guarantee quality.²⁴

ADR relates to access to justice, which is a fundamental right, according to Article 6 of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The right to valid remedies has been determined by the Court of Justice of the European Union to be the general principle of Community law and confirmed, as such, by Article 47 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the

²² Koulu (2005), p. 76.

²³ Green Paper 2002, pp. 7–9, http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/com/2002/com2002_0196en01.pdf. Accessed 2 Aug 2013.

²⁴ Ibid, p. 5.

European Union. ADRs are an integral part of the policies aimed at improving access to justice.²⁵

ADR methods include features that promote achieving social harmony. In the forms of ADR in which third parties do not take a decision, the parties choose the means of resolving the dispute and play a more active role in this process in such a way that they themselves endeavour to find the solution best suited to them. This consensual approach increases the likelihood that once the dispute is settled, the parties will be able to maintain their commercial or other relations. One of the strengths of ADR is flexibility. In principle, the parties are free to decide which organisation or person will be in charge of the proceedings, to determine the procedure that will be followed and to decide on the outcome of the proceedings. Some of the points that weaken the access to justice are the proceeding times, which have lengthened, and the court costs, which have risen.²⁶ In a flexible procedure, the parties are able to affect, at least indirectly, the duration and costs of the procedure.

10.2.3 Mediation in Light of the Directive

The progression led to the adoption of the Mediation Directive²⁷ in 2008. According to Article 3, mediation means a structured process, however named or referred to, whereby two or more parties to a dispute attempt by themselves, on a voluntary basis, to reach an agreement on the settlement of their dispute with the assistance of a mediator. According to the definition, the concept covers mediation that is conducted by a judge who is not responsible for any judicial proceedings concerning the dispute in question. It excludes attempts made by the court or the judge to settle a dispute in the course of judicial proceedings concerning the dispute in question. The definition gets supplement from Recital 13, according to which mediation should be a voluntary process in the sense that the parties are themselves in charge of the process and may organise it as they wish and terminate it at any time. Recital 11 states that a directive should not apply to processes of an adjudicatory nature, such as certain judicial conciliation schemes, or to processes administered by persons or bodies issuing a formal recommendation, whether or not it is legally binding as to the resolution of the dispute.²⁸

The mediation meant by the directive is facilitative, in other words helping by nature, where the essential task of the mediator is to help the parties find a resolution for their conflict. In that case, the mediator tends to contribute to the

²⁵ Ibid, p. 8.

²⁶ Ibid, p. 9.

²⁷ Directive 2008/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.

²⁸ Ibid. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:136:0003:0008:En:PDF>. Accessed 3 Aug 2013.

communication between the parties but does not intervene in the matter itself or direct the contents of the final result. It is significant to survey the parties' interests and needs in the finding of the resolution. That is the starting point in mediation, where a lasting and acceptable resolution by both parties is striven for. The directive does not apply to evaluative mediation, in other words, an estimating mediation for which the starting point is the parties' legal rights and legal system. In evaluative mediation, the resolution is built on the proposal by the mediator, and it is based on substantive legislation.²⁹ Even if the Mediation Directive is not adapted to evaluative mediation, mediation may be conducted in an evaluative or directive manner. According to *Riskin*, evaluative mediation and facilitative mediation must not be examined as separate models of mediation. 'Evaluative' and 'facilitative' describe more the orientation or behaviour of the mediator, which can vary during the mediation procedure.³⁰ In the mediation meant by the directive, the resolution is not striven on the basis of substantive legislation and it is not intended to reach the resolution by making a compromise. In compromising a dispute concerning an 'orange', it would be resolved by splitting the fruit and by giving each party half of the orange. When the parties' interests are clarified according to the mediation method, it may appear that one party wants to have the peel of the orange and the other its juice. A settlement that satisfies parties better can be reached through mediation. (See the example also in the last part of Sect. 10.3.)

It is noteworthy that in the mediation meant by the directive, the mediator does not have to be a legal expert or an expert in the field to mediate. In that case, the expertise of the mediator does not need to be directed to the judicial system or, for example, to construction in spite of the fact that a construction dispute is being mediated. Thus, people who have a quite different background and expertise can act as mediators. A mediator has been defined in Article 3 of the Mediation Directive as any third person who is asked to conduct a mediation in an effective, impartial and competent way, regardless of the denomination or profession of that third person in the Member State concerned and of the way in which the third person has been appointed or requested to conduct the mediation. However, the mediator must have expertise of a certain degree about mediation. Experts of mediation have different views on the issue as to whether the mediator must be an expert in the field to be mediated. The national regulation may set demands on the mediator's expertise. It is so, for example, in the Finnish regulation concerning the mediation of family matters. The mediator must have studied psychology for cases concerning children and families or must have studied social welfare or child protection.³¹ It is noteworthy that the cases of family laws concerning especially the child's position and the best interests of the child are a special field that can be considered

²⁹ [Sovitteludirektiivin](#) täytäntöönpano 36/2010, p. 15. (The implementation of the Mediation Directive.)

³⁰ Hietanen-Kunwald (2013), p. 85, Riskin (2003), p. 30.

³¹ Laki lapsen huoltoa ja tapaamisoikeutta koskevan päätöksen täytäntöönpanosta 9§.

requiring a substantial know-how of the mediator. In Austria, the legislation sets certain minimum requirements for all registered mediators.

The regulations of the directive attempt to intensify and simplify the availability of access to justice. Mediation is a free-form procedure that is based on the parties' self-determination.³² These factors contribute to reducing the procedural obstacles. Furthermore, the parties can influence the duration and expenses caused by mediation at least indirectly by the autonomy. These features promote also access to justice. The purpose is also to promote the development of the mediation differently. The member states are requested, among others, to promote the mediators' basic and additional training.³³ The directive does not contain regulations concerning the mediation procedure, but it strives to promote the self-regulation of the field.³⁴ The starting point is to apply the directive only to mediation in cross-border disputes, but the Member States may apply provisions also to internal mediation processes.³⁵ This way, the situation has been solved in Finland in the Act within Mediation Directive that was implemented. On the other hand, in Austria, the National Mediation Act, which came into force before the directive, was adapted in internal mediation processes.

10.2.4 The Implementation of the Mediation Directive in the EU

In connection with the implementation of the Mediation Directive, many countries had a discussion on how the implementation should be arranged. Many viewpoints that should be taken into consideration were connected to implementation, such as how it should be adapted in a legislative environment in the best possible way in each country and how the separate aspects and possibilities of the directive should be utilised.

As the result of drafting of the laws, the response to the directive varies according to the country. A number of states have opted to apply the directive solely for cross-border disputes, thereby instituting a dual regulatory regime. Others have applied the directive provisions, to a varying degree, to domestic disputes. The discussion in connection with drafting of laws concerned, among other things, the use of incentives, sanctions and mandates. Only Italy has mandated participation in mediation as a prerequisite to litigation in a fairly broadly defined range of dispute. In Italy, mediation is a condition precedent to trial in a number of civil and commercial areas. France, Slovenia and Luxembourg require attendance at mediation information

³² Hietanen-Kunwald (2013), p. 74.

³³ Article 4 of the Mediation Directive.

³⁴ Sovitteludirektiivin täytäntöönpano 36/2010, p. 13. (The implementation of the Mediation Directive.)

³⁵ Recital 8 of the Mediation Directive.

sessions for certain types of cases. Some countries have used incentives in their legislation. According to the Czech Republic Mediation Act proposal, the parties are eligible to receive an award for costs in a later trial if they participate in an introductory mediation information session. Poland, Romania and Bulgaria have implemented a full or partial refund of court filing fees to encourage participation in mediation.³⁶

The general question seems to be why mediation is not used much more widely when its many advantages are apparent and its legislative support is burgeoning. Recent statistics on mediation use in almost all member states confirm that even those countries that stepped forward early to transpose the directive have seen a little increase in the use of mediation. Only Italy has seen a relevant increase in the use of mediation since the transposition of the directive. About a year after the mediation requirement became effective, the number of mediations in civil and commercial disputes had already climbed to over 13,000 per month. Before the implementation of the law, it had been less than 4,000 per year. This number is expected to reach over 80,000 mediations per month as a result of mediation becoming mandatory.³⁷

According to the view of *De Palo* and *Trevor*, whether a country's dispute resolution system results in mediation use depends, more than any other factor, on whether the system has achieved an appropriate balance between the voluntary nature of the process and the necessity of public incentives for litigants to actually engage in it. They content that Article 1 of the directive has not so far received the attention it warrants. It seems, albeit implicitly, to call for the number of mediations to rise above the current level of usage by asking for a 'balanced relationship between mediation and judicial proceedings'. The balance is clearly absent in virtually all member states, if the notion of balanced relationship, as seems only logical, includes the actual number of mediations and trials in a given country. The scholars claim more target-oriented control so that the balanced relationship target number between litigation and mediation would be reached. The absence of a clear arrival point runs the risk of not reaching the goals that are designed to be attained by the directive.³⁸

10.3 The General Features of Mediation

Through all ages, an attempt has been made to solve disputes with the help of the external quarter. The third party has often acted as the intermediary of parties who have gotten into a dispute and have tried to find the solution that satisfies them. Modern mediation is much more than the interceding of the dispute. It is a concrete,

³⁶ De Palo and Trevor (2012), p. 3.

³⁷ Ibid, pp. 5–7.

³⁸ Ibid, pp. 8, 10.

structured procedure that proceeds from the conflict to the solution of the dispute. The mediation is distinguished, as such, from other out-of court dispute resolution methods to its own procedure, which is in accordance with the principles concerning it.³⁹

The starting point of mediation in Austria, as well in Finland, is the needs of the parties but not the claims. It is concentrated on the procedure to the interests of the parties instead of the positions. It is possible in the mediation procedure to extend the number of matters that can be handled. In that way, the different interests will become a concern and will be satisfied more comprehensively. Mediation includes four central features: it is process oriented, customer oriented, concentrated on communication, and interest based. It is a question of the very demanding task in which the mediator adapts special strategies and techniques such as active listening, different inquiry techniques, repeating, mirroring, questioning and think tank. It has also been stated that such procedures as reformulating, questioning of unrealistic proposals and inciting of parties to obtain more information belong to the mediation working.⁴⁰ 'It is noteworthy, even though in mediation it is not an attempted solution according to substantive law, that the opposing parties do not operate judicially in a free or independent state. The parties are often entitled and obliged by their other agreements, which affect the matter. Attention must be paid in the mediation to the possible effects of the engagements of agreements, as well as the mandatory provisions of the law. Usually, only disputes where settlement has been allowed can be solved in the mediation, so the significance of the mandatory provisions can be considered minor but possible.'⁴¹

In order to succeed, the mediation procedure requires considerable ability to cooperate with the parties. During the procedure, the parties must uncover their interests connected to the dispute. The mediation procedure is not considered as a suitable solution for dispute if the parties are not ready for openness with regard to their interests.⁴² However, it is not always a question of the parties' readiness for openness. Sometimes the real interests are identified only in a mediation process. The real reasons for the conflicts are often in the background, the so-called hidden interests, which can be clarified after a process called interest analysis. Especially when the parties have been locked to their positions and their demands, they do not always identify their interests and needs. When interests are clarified, the important questions are as follows: what does one hope to reach with mediation, what is most important to him/her, what seems to be the most difficult and the most strenuous procedure and what matters are his/her priorities and what are less important. It has

³⁹ Pruckner (2003), p. 17.

⁴⁰ Ervasti (2009), pp. 1076–1077.

⁴¹ Pruckner (2003), p. 18.

⁴² Pruckner (2003), p. 17. Die Offenlegung ihrer Interessen erfordert von den Konfliktbeteiligten ein hohes Maß an Kooperationsbereitschaft, das nicht in jedem Konflikt gegeben sein mag. Nicht jeder Konflikt ist daher für mediative Lösungen geeignet.

been stated that a person's position is that which somebody wants to have. The interest, however, is why he/she wants to have it.⁴³

The following simplified example represents the mediator's task and the significance of the parties' interests in the settlement of the dispute. The mediator who utilises interest-based mediation will help the parties to find the key solution to the dispute by asking the disputing parties separately about why they want to have the orange. The first one tells that he/she wants the juice from the orange, and the other tells that he/she wants the peel of the orange for making cake. The decision that satisfies both (win-win) will be reached, that is, the juice that is pressed from the fruit will be given to one party and the other party who wanted to have its peel is given the orange.⁴⁴

10.4 Mediation in Austria Mirrored to the Finnish Mediation

Mediation has been defined in Austria before the directive was adopted. Mediation is an action based on the parties' voluntariness. A professional qualified, impartial mediator using acceptable methods systematically encourages the communication between the disputing parties, who shall achieve a mutually agreeable solution on their own.⁴⁵ According to the Finnish description, the objective of the mediation is that the parties themselves find a solution that satisfies them and, in the best case, both win. The mediator strives to create preconditions for the resolution but does not as a rule make proposal for the settlement. The procedure and the acquired solution do not need to fulfil the criteria appointed by the outsiders.⁴⁶ Later on the description has been supplemented by stating that mediation is an action that is unofficial, confidential, situation bound, flexible and that will be directed at the future and in which an attempt is made to reach the parties' needs and interests in a satisfactory solution.⁴⁷

⁴³ Ervasti (2012), pp. 108–109.

⁴⁴ Taivalkoski and Wallgren (2000), p. 625.

⁴⁵ Pruckner (2003), p. 17, Falk and Koren (2005), p. 48, Frauenberger-Pfeiler (2013), p. 9. See also §1 Abs. Austrian Code of Mediation in Civil Matters. Bundesgesetz über Mediation in Zivilrechtssachen §1: (1) Mediation ist eine auf Freiwilligkeit der Parteien beruhende Tätigkeit, bei der ein fachlich ausgebildeter, neutraler Vermittler (Mediator) mit anerkannten Methoden die Kommunikation zwischen den Parteien systematisch mit dem Ziel fördert, eine von den Parteien selbst verantwortete Lösung ihres Konfliktes zu ermöglichen.

⁴⁶ Pohjonen (2001), p. 62.

⁴⁷ Ervasti (2011), p. 11.

10.4.1 Organisation of Mediation in Austria and Finland

The definitions of mediation in the comparison countries express the same principles and emphasise the same elements as significance of the parties' interests. The Finnish court-connected mediation is based on the same idea of facilitative mediation, as the regulation of out-of-court mediation in Austria. As a dispute resolution method, mediation has been placed in a distinctly different environment in the legislation and has been given an essentially different position in the comparison countries. In Finland, the mediation of civil cases is the action of the court, and out-of-court mediation has not been regulated by law except by the Act on Conciliation in Criminal and Certain Civil Cases, which stays outside this writing. The Finnish Mediation Act extends its effects indirectly also on out-of-court cases if the achieved settlement is wanted by the parties to be confirmed as enforceable.

Mediation is a dispute solution that takes place out of court in Austria. Court-connected mediation is not known in Austria, unlike in Finland. However, the connection between the court and the mediators exists in Austria. If in the judge's opinion the pending civil case is suitable for mediation, he/she can propose mediation to the parties and call a mediator, if needed, to present the procedure of mediation. If the parties agree at the start of the mediation, the court procedure will be suspended.⁴⁸ According to the Act,⁴⁹ the court may work toward a dispute settlement at any time in the proceeding. If appropriate, it may also inform the parties about institutions that are qualified to facilitate dispute settlements.⁵⁰ The court cannot oblige parties to solve their dispute by mediation.⁵¹

The purpose of this chapter is to give the reader a general idea about Austria's mediation system. The organisation of the mediation in Austria and Finland differs in so essential a way that a detailed comparison is nearly impossible. Next concern will be about the Austrian regulation of mediation, the procedure for mediation, the position of the opposing parties and the mediators, agreement on mediation and settlement. After that, a brief overview of the out-of-court mediation in Finland is presented as a counterbalance and, finally, the summary of the position of the mediation in the comparison countries.

⁴⁸ The information was obtained from the secretary of ÖBM (Österreichische Bundesverband der Mediatorinnen) Dr.jur. Barbara Günther 7 June 2011.

⁴⁹ Article 204 of the Austrian Code of Civil Procedure.

⁵⁰ Leon and Rohracher (2012), p. 12.

⁵¹ Frauenberger-Pfeiler (2013), p. 26. (204§ Austrian Code of Civil procedure Law, 29§ Austrian Law on non-contentious jurisdiction in civil cases).

10.4.2 Regulation in Austria Concerning Mediation

Austria can be seen as one of the forerunners in the field of mediation. The Austrian Act on Mediation in Civil Matters *Bundesgesetz über Mediation in Zivilrechtssachen (Zivilrechts-Mediations-Gesetz-ZivMediatG)* came into force in 2004. The Act was path breaking when coming into force, containing detailed regulations concerning mediation. The unambiguous reason for the materialising of the legislation concerning mediation this early, particularly in Austria, cannot be found. However, there was an experienced “mediation boom” during the years preceding the enactment of the law. The huge interest in civil mediation appeared in the numerous congresses and symposiums that were arranged in different parts of the country. Also, the supply and demand of the mediation education was big. In addition to the universities, mediation education has been offered by different organisations.⁵² There has been a pilot project on mediation in family matters in 1994–1995 at courts in Vienna and Salzburg. As this project had been completed successfully, mediation was embedded in family law by amending the Act of Marriage Law 1999.⁵³

The Austrian legislator wanted to provide a framework that compensates the lack of strict, procedural rules through guaranteeing high-quality mediators performing mediation. That was materialised through the implementation of a registration system. The law lays down basic professional duties that registered mediators need to fulfil. The Mediation Act of Austria covers the establishment of an advisory board for mediation, the conditions and the procedure to get enlisted as a mediator, the conditions and the procedure to get enlisted as a training facility for mediators, the rights and duties of listed mediators and the suspension of time limits caused by mediation procedure. The Act applies to cases that, if referred to court, would lie in the jurisdiction of the civil courts. The legal concept of mediation is based on facilitative and transformative procedures. It focuses on the voluntariness of the parties to settle their disputes on their own, enabled through the help of a neutral, independent third person.⁵⁴ Although mediation is based on voluntariness of the parties, there are some special cases where the use of mediation before instituting legal proceedings is compulsory. For example, in neighbour disputes, the parties have to consult a conciliation committee or registered mediator before a claimant may file a legal action against his/her neighbour for obstruction of light or air by trees or plants. Legal action may be taken only after 3 months from the beginning of the mediation proceeding.⁵⁵

The Mediation Act was complemented in 2004 by the Regulation on the Training Requirements for Admission as a Registered Mediator (*Zivilrechts-Mediations-Ausbildungsverordnung*). The decree establishes the minimum number of course

⁵² Falk and Koren (2005), pp. 3, 21.

⁵³ Frauenberger-Pfeiler (2013), p. 4.

⁵⁴ Ibid, pp. 3, 5.

⁵⁵ Leon and Rohrer (2012), p. 14.

units to be completed and proven to the Federal Ministry of Justice in order to be registered as a mediator.⁵⁶

Since Austria had already developed high standards concerning the requirements for registered mediators, it had to be taught how the implementation of the Mediation Directive would be carried out without lowering the demands set in Austria's national law to the mediators. The working team that prepared the implementation ended up suggesting in 2009 that only the necessary regulations would be taken to the law within the directive. Next to it would be retained the existing Mediation Act with its preconditions for the registration as mediator.⁵⁷ The directive was implemented by a separate act on certain aspects of cross-border mediation in civil and commercial matters in the EU.⁵⁸ This EU Mediation Act, which expanded the provision of minimum standards of confidentiality and statutes of limitation to all mediators, registered and non-registered alike,⁵⁹ came into effect on 1 May 2011.

The above stated means that Austria upholds a dual approach to mediation. National mediation is treated in a different way than mediation in cross-border cases because of the implementation of the Directive within EU Mediation Act. It is allowed in Austria to conduct mediation without being a listed mediator and without being bound to the high quality standards determined in the Austrian Act on Mediation in Civil Matters.⁶⁰ Finland's situation is quite different in this relation. There is only one Mediation Act that is applied to both cross-border and national disputes. There is a registration system or specific requirements set by law for mediators to guarantee high-quality mediators. In Finland, the Mediation Act relates to the court-connected mediation, where the judges act as mediators. Quite many of them have got brief education in mediation, but it is allowed for them to act as a mediator without any special education.

10.4.3 Participating in the Mediation Procedure in Austria

The bringing of the dispute to mediation procedure signifies two matters essentially from the point of view of the parties. Firstly, they have to concentrate consciously on, instead of their judicial demands, their reciprocal interests in the handling of the dispute. Secondly, they have to give up consciously the clarifying of the question of guilt and have to direct their resources for the materialisation of the resolution that will direct their future. The opposing parties have the responsibility over the

⁵⁶ Ibid, pp. 11–12.

⁵⁷ Entwurf EU-MediatG, p. 8.

⁵⁸ Bundesgesetz über bestimmte Aspekte der grenzüberschreitenden Mediation in Zivil- und Handelssachen in der Europäischen Union, EU-Mediations-Gesetz.

⁵⁹ Leon and Rohrer (2012), p. 18.

⁶⁰ Frauenberger-Pfeiler (2013), p. 7.

mediation procedure, which means that they are responsible for the materialisation of the resolution themselves. The mediator's responsibility is the finding of neither the solution nor the contents. The procedure is in the hands of the parties in many relations. The parties can decide the chronological and procedural progress of the mediation. They may agree when and how often, which theme is handled and how much time for each handling is used.⁶¹ Because the parties are responsible for the expenses caused by mediation, it is proper that it is possible for them to agree on the points that are related to the procedure in so far as they have an effect on the materialising of a solution and costs. The costs are usually agreed upon in the mediation agreement. The mediator's task is to help at the stages of the mediation process in which the dialogical connection between the parties has broken or is under threat to break or the parties believe that they are in the situation alike. The mediator attempts with the help of his expertise in mediation and by the utilisation of different discussion techniques to direct parties to reach a dialogical connection spontaneously again and to overcome the lack of confidence known by them towards each other. Thus, the mediator tries to help parties themselves to find the solutions to the problems that come up during the process.⁶²

10.4.4 The Position and Responsibilities of the Opposing Parties in Austria

The decision to start a mediation procedure means the commitment of the opposing parties to certain obligations in relation to each other. Quite irrespective of it, whether a settlement is reached or not requires a mediation in accordance with the general principle that the parties can cooperate with each other. The readiness to cooperate means that the parties should bring out all necessary information in the mediation and process this kind of information confidentially. The parties have to restrain themselves from all the high-handed measures, which may endanger the carrying out of the mediation. Likewise, they have to refrain from judicial measures of the matter in question during the mediation. The ability to cooperate, which is related to the mediation, still includes that the parties give up calling the mediator as their witness in a possible later trial. The negligent breaking of obligations leads to liability in principle. The separate matter is how the damages possibly caused by the breaking of the obligations can be proved. The parties' duty is to operate honestly in its intentions and to inform another party immediately if the party is not willing or able any more to work in the mediation to accomplish the joint solution. The duty to declare also applies to the points that may endanger or may prevent the mediation.⁶³

⁶¹ Pruckner (2003), p. 18. See also Falk and Koren (2005), pp. 66–67.

⁶² Falk and Koren (2005), p. 64. See also Pruckner (2003), p. 18.

⁶³ Pruckner (2003), pp. 26–27.

The opposing party's duties also include the readiness to process the accuracy of his/her own views in the mediation. The duty also is to bring the process to the end, which aims at amicable settlement. However, it must be remembered that the party has a right, if so desired, to discontinue the mediation. Mediation must look in this context to emphasise the parties' responsibility for its genuine aim in the reaching of a common objective. A party's misleading from essential points in the mediation so that this would not have made a mediation agreement at all, since he/she would be conscious of the real circumstances, can lead to the liability of the party who has misled. Furthermore, the procedure can entitle the misled party to require declaring the agreement invalid through litigation on the basis of the misleading.⁶⁴

10.4.5 The Position, Tasks, and Responsibilities of the Mediator in Austria

The mediator registry maintained by the Ministry of Justice in Austria records the personal data and contact information of the mediators, in addition the special branch of the mediators. Only natural persons can register as a mediator. Mediation is a professional activity that can be freely practiced and does not require the registering of the mediator, but the Mediation Act is adapted only to registered mediators. An applicant who has turned 28 years old, is reliable and competent professionally and binds himself/herself to participate in the further trainings can be accepted to register as a mediator. Furthermore, he/she must have a valid liability insurance, the amount insured of which has to be at least EUR 400,000 per damaging event. In the law, there are also some other conditions concerning liability insurance, such as the duty to inform the registration authority of any deviation from the insurance agreement or any circumstance that would affect the validity of the insurance.⁶⁵

The applicant should prove his/her reliability required by law with the submission of his/her criminal record. It should appear from the criminal record that the applicant has not been convicted of any act that would disprove his/her ability to act as a reliable mediator. The criminal record must not be older than three months. The applicant must show his/her professional capacity by presenting his/her certificate of mediation education. According to the Regulation on the Training Requirements for Admission as a Registered Mediator, the accepted education is divided into theoretical and practical. The contents and length of the period depend on the basic education of the ones to be trained. If the applicant does not have a basic education on mediation, which is considered an advantage, the duration of the mediation education will be at least 365 h, of which 200 h have to be theoretical education and

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ The registration preconditions for the arbitrator have been listed in §9 and §20 of the Austrian Mediation Act.

165 h practical education. Occupational groups like lawyers, psychologists and psychotherapists must have mediation education the duration of which is 220 h, divided into theoretical education, which lasts for 136 h, and practical education, which lasts for 84 h.⁶⁶

Any person, irrespective of his basic education, can be accepted as a registered mediator when he/she meets the preconditions mentioned in the law. The registration requires that the mediator makes sure that he/she meets the requirements also after the registration. The registered mediator must also complete his/her further training, which, according to the law, has to be for at least 50 h in the course of a 5-year time period.⁶⁷ Upon the completion of the training required by law, the mediator must deliver his report to the Ministry of Justice. Likewise, the mediator must notify the registrar of all the changes that took place relative to the information given by him/her in connection with the registration.⁶⁸ If it comes to the knowledge of the Ministry of Justice that the registered mediator does not any more meet the preconditions for registration, it can remove the mediator from the register. The same is true if the mediator neglects to inform of the further training or otherwise breaks the mediator's obligations roughly or in spite of the remark goes on the breaking of obligations. Before his/her removal from the registry, the Ministry of Justice must get the statement of the conciliation board in the matter.⁶⁹

A mediator should commit to directing the mediation in a professional manner so that it will be possible for the parties to accomplish the settlement spontaneously. However, the mediator is not responsible for the materialising of the settlement and for the contents thereof. If the mediator neglects his/her obligations, the parties may to direct compensation demands to the mediator. Justified demands lead to the reduction of the mediator's reward in practice. The registered mediator cannot be heard as a witness in court as to any information he/she has obtained during the course of the mediation. The prohibition to be heard as a witness applies in trials involving civil cases. The prohibition to be heard as a witness or the right to refuse to testify applies only to registered mediators. The parties cannot agree otherwise.⁷⁰

The start of the mediation, as directed by the registered mediator, prevents the running of the limitation period or interrupts it. The period of limitation is interrupted during the whole period of mediation. Likewise, the situation is by the deadlines concerning the rights and demands which are related to other matters to be mediated. The parties may agree on the interruption, the time of the mediation,

⁶⁶ 47. Verordnung des Bundesministers für Justiz über die Ausbildung zum eingetragenen Mediator (Zivilrechts-Mediations Ausbildungsverordnung-ZivMediat-AV).

⁶⁷ From the demand that is related to the further training it is adjusted in §20 of the Austrian Mediation Act.

⁶⁸ §21 the Austrian Mediation Act.

⁶⁹ §14 the Austrian Mediation Act.

⁷⁰ Pruckner (2003), p. 35.

deadlines and periods of limitation related to other legal relationships existing between them. According to the law, the mediator must document the mediation procedure, which begins when the parties have agreed on the transfer of the conflict to the mediation. The procedure will end when any of the opposing parties or the mediator informs the other or the parties that he/she no longer wishes to continue with mediation or when a settlement in the matter is achieved. The record drawn up by the mediator will serve as evidence for the interruption of the deadline. The mediator's duties include the advice duty of a certain degree towards the opposing parties. If the party, for example notifies that he/she is discontinuing with the conciliation and possibly resorting to other legal remedies, the mediator has to advise the parties of the significance of the deadlines in relation to a civil action.⁷¹

The mediator's primary obligations are to ensure neutrality and secrecy. It is also his/her responsibility to take care of the progress of the procedure. The mediator has a so-called mediation authority or transmission authority, on the basis of which he/she should make sure that the opposing parties observe the terms agreed upon in the mediation agreement concerning the procedure of the mediation, the general principles of the mediation and regulations of the law. The mediator is liable to the opposing parties if he/she has caused, by reason of his illegal and careless actions, damage that he/she was capable to foresee and is possible to prevent. In practice, this kind of damage usually results from an error of mediation, such as breaking of the duty of secrecy. Furthermore, the mediator can be sentenced to a fine or imprisonment for a violation of this duty.⁷²

10.4.6 Agreement on the Mediation

Agreement on mediation is free-form, where parties agree together with the mediator on the carrying out of the mediation in a certain civil matter that has been individualised. It is recommended to include in the agreement the mediator's reward, the grounds for the reward, and the manner of executing it. The parties in the mediation agreement are, on one hand, the opposing parties, which may be several depending on the case and, on the other hand, the mediator. In certain situations, in the agreement there may be a third party. This may happen in, for example, mediation cases involving a company, in which the company serves as the principal party in the mediation in relation to the mediator and a payer of the mediation reward. In situations of this kind, the carrying out of the mediation, the subject of the mediation and the use of time and premises, as well as the mediator's reward are usually agreed between the mediator and the company. Usually, the probable number of the opposing parties is agreed upon. It is recommended to agree also on the participation option, which will entitle, when the resolution of the dispute

⁷¹ Ibid, pp. 25, 35.

⁷² Ibid, pp. 24, 29–31.

requires it, the participation of more parties in the mediation, as estimated. It is good to agree on the report, which is possibly given to the principal company concerning the mediation, and its form. Attention must be paid to the mediator's duty of secrecy, concerning matters related to the mediation, when agreeing on a report. Except for the mediator's reward, the same matters are agreed upon by the mediator and workers who are opposing parties in the mediation. Within an agreed framework are the stipulated details related to the procedure.⁷³

The parties can agree beforehand of an alternative dispute resolution by including in the agreement a clause of the mediation for possible later use. One Austrian organisation concerning commercial mediation (*Forum Wirtschaftsmediation*) has published a model of clause of mediation. The following serves as a free translation:

The parties try to solve the disagreements caused by this agreement and its effects with mutual negotiations. If the negotiations do not lead to the result within 30 days, binding oneself parties to serious attempt to solve the conflict in the mediation. The parties make a decision jointly on the themes of conflict to be handled, on the progress of the mediation and on the choice of the registered mediator. Each agreement party may freely from the beginning of the mediation, without the sanctions interrupt the mediation in order to start possibly judicial further measures.⁷⁴

10.4.7 Agreement on the Settlement

Agreement on the settlement is the totality of the terms of agreement reached by the parties, which means the solving of the opposing parties' conflict. Usually, it contains a concrete solution to agree that the dispute is final. At the same time, the mediation agreement terminates the mediation procedure. The reaching of the final agreement can require a long and multiphased agreement process. In the first stage, the matters that may be agreed on are further measures; matters that are taken in the settlement agreement, or the supplementary agreements that are attached to it; and the schedule of the process. It is recommended for the parties to test during the agreement process, in a suitable way, the permanence and validity of the emerging alternative solutions. In commercial disputes between companies, it may be reasonable before the final decision making to go through solution alternatives involving different quarters of the company organisation, such as a production group and management team. If the parties' attorneys do not participate in the agreement process, it is recommended to have the agreement by lawyers checked before final acceptance. It may be that the mediator would participate in the follow-up, subsequent to the agreement of the adapting stage or the carrying out stage of the agreement, in which the results of the mediation are estimated. In that case, the

⁷³ Ibid, pp. 19–22.

⁷⁴ http://www.wirtschaftsmediation.at/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=122:mediationsklausel&catid=44:kurzmeldungen. Accessed 14 August 2013.

mediation will end only after this so-called post-meditative stage. Opposing parties can decide the date on which mediation will end.⁷⁵

It is recommended to draw up the settlement agreement in written form, even though the law, the mediation of civil matters, does not require it. However, Austria's legislation requires a written form in certain settlement agreements of family laws.⁷⁶ The settlement agreement cannot be enforceable as such; it would require the decision of the competent *Bezirksgericht* court, which is called *Prätorischer Vergleich*. It is capable of giving a fast decision on the matter. The judge of the court gives the decision irrespective of the character or economic value of the settlement agreement. In *Bezirksgericht*, the courts hear at first instance the civil matters involving interest that does not exceed EUR 15,000. Irrespective of the value of the dispute, these courts are competent to handle certain types of legal matters, especially family law and tenancy law matters. Furthermore, their authority extends to offence punishable by a fine or imprisonment of not more than one year.⁷⁷ Mediation does not always end in settlement and agreement. It is clear that a resolution cannot always be reached on the conflicts that are the subject of the mediation. As a final result, the mediation may jointly state that an amicable settlement was not reached in the process. The opposing parties always have the right, without stating the reasons therefor, to withdraw from the mediation because the procedure is based on the voluntariness of the opposing parties. Mediators have to commit to carry through to the end of the mediation and to make himself available at the parties' disposal. Therefore, the mediator must present justifiable grounds if he/she withdraws in the middle of the mediation. It is acceptable to interrupt the mediation if it is impossible to continue with it because the opposing parties neglect their obligations or are deeply offended by the conduct of the mediator. In practice, such grounds include repeated irrelevant appearance by a party in the mediation, violence or intimidation. If a mediator perceives that the condition of the mediation will be of such nature that it is not possible to carry through the mediation according to the basic principles set in the mediation procedure, he/she can interrupt the mediation.⁷⁸

⁷⁵ Pruckner (2003), p. 52.

⁷⁶ The determinations are included in Familienlastenausgleichsgesetz 1967 (FLAG).

⁷⁷ Die Bezirksgerichte sind im Zivilrechtsbereich zur Entscheidung in erster Instanz für alle Rechtssachen mit einem Streitwert bis 15.000 Euro sowie (unabhängig vom Streitwert) für bestimmte Arten von Rechtssachen (insbesondere familien- und mietrechtliche Streitigkeiten) zuständig. Die Bezirksgerichte sind weiters im Strafrechtsbereich zur Entscheidung über alle Vergehen, für die eine bloße Geldstrafe oder eine Freiheitsstrafe angedroht ist, deren Höchstmaß ein Jahr nicht übersteigt, zuständig (z. B. fahrlässige Körperverletzung, Diebstahl). <http://www.justiz.gv.at/internet/html/default/8ab4a8a422985de30122a924323c630f.de.html>. Accessed 14 August 2013.

⁷⁸ Pruckner (2003), p. 53.

10.4.8 *Out-of-Court Mediation in Finland*

Out-of-court mediation in Finland, which is facilitative by nature, represents mediation by the Finnish Bars Association (FBA). It confirmed its own rules of mediation in 1998.⁷⁹ The parties can agree on the mediation of possible disputes, which are created in the future from their agreement, or of disputes that have already arisen. The rules of mediation are considered as part of the agreement to mediate. In principle, it is possible to use this mediation in all nonmandatory civil matters. A mediator acts as an advocate, who has received education on mediation and who is marked to the mediator list of the board of mediation of the FBA.⁸⁰ According to Section 4 of the rules, the mediator has to be impartial and independent. Before acting as a mediator, he/she must inform the parties about the facts that can cause reasonable doubts as to his/her impartiality or independence. The members of the FBA are bound to good advocate practice and to the rules of mediation of the association. According to good advocate practice, mediators have to take into consideration the benefits of all clients equally. This rule has been interpreted from the starting point so that the mediator will be responsible for the propriety and impartiality of the procedure but not for the fairness of the contents.⁸¹

Until now, the FBA is, in practice, the only organisation in Finland that serves out-of-court mediation services in civil and commercial areas, which are purely facilitative by nature. In the autumn of 2012, two students of the Turku University of Applied Sciences, in concert with the FBA, drafted a questionnaire study to the members of the FBA about their experiences and attitudes towards mediation. Only 52 of the 1,900 members answered the survey. This may possibly reflect the amount of current interest towards out-of-court mediation among the advocates, which is rather low. The number of cases that have been mediated pursuant to the mediation rules of the FBA is very low, only a few cases yearly.

The Finnish Association of Civil Engineers (RIL) offers RIL conciliation services. RIL conciliation focuses on dispute resolution and risk management of construction projects. It is a private out-of-court ‘mediation,’ whose procedure is official and based on material law. RIL conciliation has its own specific Code of Conciliation,⁸² which came into force in 2007. The purpose of this is to standardise and intensify the conciliation and to guarantee the impartiality and transparency of the conciliation. In their application, the party or parties can request a recommendation, statement or decision. The latter requires a prior agreement to conciliate, which is actually an arbitration agreement, and the procedure, which is based on this kind of an agreement is a matter of arbitration. A statement is usually given

⁷⁹ The rules of mediation by the Finnish Bar Association, <http://www.asianajajat.fi/asianajotoiminta/sovintomenettely/sovintomenettelysaannot>. Accessed 6 August 2013.

⁸⁰ Taivalkoski and Wallgren (2000), p. 626.

⁸¹ Ibid, pp. 629–630. See also Ervo and Sippel (2013), pp. 388–389.

⁸² The code of RIL conciliation <http://www.rilsovittelu.fi/web/files/saannot.pdf>. Accessed 6 Aug 2013.

when only one of the parties asks for the conciliation. A recommendation is nonbinding. The conciliation that leads to recommendation can be based on the term of agreement, in other words on the clause of conciliation by RIL conciliation. Usually, the parties make an agreement according to recommendations made by the conciliator. The fact that the parties reach a settlement with the assistance but without any proposal made by the conciliator is probably not excluded. In that case, the procedure is nearly mediation, because of that, RIL conciliation is justified in this context. The difference between mediation and conciliation is not a very well-discussed topic in Finland. It is not always obvious what kind of procedure is in question. In Finnish language, there is only one word, *sovittelu*, for conciliation and mediation, which does not express what type of procedure (mediation or conciliation) is in a question.⁸³

10.5 The Position of Mediation in the Comparison Countries Now and in the Future

The methods that have been created for the mediation of civil matters in the comparison countries differ. They deviate also from the starting points concerning the mediation of the EU. In a Green Paper, mediation is defined as an out-of-court dispute resolution process,⁸⁴ like in Austria. On the other hand, the Mediation Directive requires member states to promote the creation of voluntary procedural rules and quality control methods, not to produce legislation, as in Austria. However, the Mediation Directive allows mediation of civil cases in the courts, as in Finland, even though it has probably been thought that the mediation will be performed out of court. Development of this kind of mediation has been left mainly to non-governmental organisations in Finland. In this field, the activity is represented by the Finnish Forum for Mediation.⁸⁵

In Austria, the statistics are available only for government-funded mediation, which includes only mediation about custody rights, visitation rights, alimony disputes and separation of property after divorce. From 1 May 2005 until 1 April 2012, there were 2,504 government-funded mediations, of which 1,616 were divorce settlements, 210 were divorce proceedings, 614 were separations, and 64 were not specified. Family conflict mediation has become a more common practice. Concerning mediation in commercial matters, there is a lot of promotion to be done. That is still in a very early stage but has a lot of development potential in Austria.⁸⁶

⁸³ Ervo and Sippel (2013), pp. 361–362.

⁸⁴ GREEN PAPER on alternative dispute resolution in civil and commercial law, 2002, p. 6. http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/com/2002/com2002_0196en01.pdf. Accessed 22 August 2013.

⁸⁵ Finnish Forum for Mediation <http://www.sovittelu.com/>. Accessed 22 August 2013.

⁸⁶ Leon and Rohrer (2012), pp. 17–18.

In Finland, out-of-court mediation will probably not increase significantly, at least in the short run. Instead, clear signs can be perceived from the increase in court-connected mediation. At the beginning of 2011, a 2-year experiment was started in Finland about an expert helper's use of court-connected mediation for a dispute involving child custody, visitation rights and support payable to a child. Furthermore, could 'expert helper' rather mean 'professional assistant'. It was started in four district courts (Helsinki, Espoo, Oulu and Pohjois-Karjala),⁸⁷ but the results were so good that it extended in autumn 2012 to seven new courts.⁸⁸ The activation of the court-connected mediation system was chosen as a quality theme of the year 2012 in the Court of Appeal of Rovaniemi.⁸⁹ The number of court mediation matters differ considerably in different courts. Some courts have promoted an affirmative trend with their development operations to mediation. The District Court of Oulu, for example, has invested in court mediation with different measures such as education, organising of the mediation activity and documentation of good practices. In 2012, in the District Court of Oulu, 63 civil matters were conducted in court mediation, which was 30 % of the mediation matters of the whole country.⁹⁰

Confidence in the fact that the position of mediation will be stable in the future in Finland is perceived. It has been stated that it is only a matter of time before mediation will be the third established method of dispute resolution in civil and commercial matters, in addition to litigation and arbitration.⁹¹ It remains to be seen if this concerns both court-connected mediation and out-of-court mediation.

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⁸⁷ See more about the experiment in Ervo and Sippel (2013), p. 418.

⁸⁸ Kuuliala (2012), p. 1108. The new courts were Pirkanmaan, Kanta-Hämeen, Etelä-Karjalan, Keski-Suomen, Pohjanmaan, Kemi-Tornion ja Lapin käräjäoikeudet.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ 'Experiences of the practical possibilities in the mediation', Presentation in the event of the Finnish association for lawyers on 28 January 2013 by the District Court Judge Antti Savela.

⁹¹ Taivalkoski (2012), p. 111.

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Part III
Access to Court: Problems and Solutions

Chapter 11

The Main Problems in Access to Court Regarding the Dispute Resolution of Finnish Companies

Anna-Liisa Autio

Abstract Companies seem to prefer some other dispute resolution mechanisms instead of litigation in the state general courts in dispositive civil disputes in Finland. There are signs that the courts have lost their power to judge in business disputes. This is partly evident from the low number of case law in Finland that relates to business-to-business disputes. Companies are eligible to the access to courts according to the Constitution of Finland, Section 21 and the European Convention on Human Rights (EHRC) Article 6. Corporate access to court is important both for companies and substantive law. The author has conducted a study dealing with the issue of corporate access to court and corporate dispute resolution recently at the University of Turku. This article will focus on some of the main findings in that study. The research hypothesis included a claim that the main factors affecting the use of the courts are duration, costs and publicity of the procedure, the judges' expertise in business disputes and, lastly, predictability of the judgment. The study method was empirical, and it included a sample of 250 largest Finnish companies. The results indicate that in order to widen the access to court from a corporate point of view in the future, it should be necessary to make the litigation quicker and broaden the judges' knowledge in the area of business disputes.

11.1 Introduction

The role of courts in Finnish corporate dispute resolution appears to be changing. Courts seem to be less attractive for the corporate dispute resolution than before. There is no commercial court in Finland, and, moreover, arbitration seems to have

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more benefits than litigation.¹ The trend is preferable if the aim is to reduce the cases in the courts, but it is not necessarily good for justice.

The access to court or access to justice from a corporative point of view has not been seen as a topical research subject and has not academically been studied before in Finland. So there are unanswered questions about the barriers in access to court and unanswered questions as to how to make courts more accessible and attractive for business disputes. Notwithstanding, it would benefit the business community and substantive law if the knowledge of business disputes could be more available.

The case law for business disputes is low in Finland. The Supreme Court of Finland gave, for example, 109 precedents in 2012, and only one of these dealt with a dispute between companies and one a dispute between two traders.² This trend illustrates that the Supreme Court seems to have a very restricted possibility to give precedents in business-related issues.³

Several civil procedure and legislative reforms and policies have been taken to change the civil procedure to meet the needs of a modern and well-functioning procedure during the last 20 years in Finland. The main purpose of these reforms has been to improve due process and improve the ability of the courts to handle civil cases from the beginning to end and give sound reasons for judgments and to improve a party's position in trial. The main changes include orality, immediacy and concentration of the proceedings. All these principles were meant to lead to a faster, cheaper and more effective civil procedure.⁴ At the same time, it seems like the reforms accelerated the use of arbitration. Accordingly, the effects of the reforms turned out partly to be barriers in terms of access to court. The reasons to choose arbitration instead of litigation have been justified usually from the vision that arbitration fulfils the needs of corporate dispute resolution. The history of privately solving the corporate disputes is long, and the first arbitration act is from 1928.⁵

¹ The Market Court deals only with market law, competition and public procurement.

² The precedents are KKO 2012:1 and KKO 2012:72. In the precedent KKO 2012:65, the issue was board members' liability to company's liability to damages. In 2013, two precedents have been given so far on cases with companies as parties KKO 2013:41 and KKO 2013:47.

³ The number of cases dealt in a main hearing at the district court was 3,397 in the year 2011 and 3,085 in 2012, which is about 300 less in 1 year. Almost all of the cases handled in the district are decided in the preparatory phase. *Official Statistics of Finland* (OSF): Decisions by district courts in civil cases [e-publication]. Helsinki: Statistics Finland [referred: 23.8.2013]. Access method: http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/index_en.html.

Yleiset tuomioistuimet ja Työtuomioistuin. Toimintakertomus (2011) (General Courts and Employment Court, Annual Report), according to appendix 6 a, 2,525 cases ended up with the main hearing. This is 25 % of all wide civil disputes. Cases dealt in a summary procedure (money claims) are not within these numbers. See also *Ervasti (2009)*, p. 47.

⁴ HE 15/1990 vp. (Government Proposal), pp. 11–13.

⁵ *Laki välimiesmenettelystä* (Arbitration Act) (46/1928), it was annulled by a new Arbitration Act in 1992 (967/1992). In 1911, the first rules for arbitration were created in the year 1911 in Finland (The Arbitration Board of Helsinki).

The phenomenon of business cases moving to private dispute resolution may lead to a changing role of jurisdiction (rule of law) and to a different status and role of courts in the substantive law of business disputes. Business disputes are resolved more often by a private institution that cannot explicate or give force to the values in statutes. The judgments are not public, and this might be crucial for the development of substantial business law. The abandonment of courts in business disputes means, at the same time, a depreciation of the civil justice in business-related areas.⁶ In developing civil trials, the goal should be that also businesses choose trial as a dispute resolution mechanism.⁷

This article is based on my PhD project at the University of Turku.⁸ During the time of that study, I had a unique opportunity to take part in the NOS project. The project made possible to widen the study perspective of access to courts in Finland to Nordic state of affairs.

According to the results, companies tend to avoid litigation and utilise instead arbitration—particularly in contractual situations. However, it looks like the most frequently used dispute resolution mechanism is still litigation. The reason for this might be that in bilateral contracts companies have the possibility to choose dispute resolution mechanism in advance, and whereupon an arbitration clause is often added to the contract. But in the out-of-contract situations, disputes tend to go more frequently to traditional courts.

In the study, the hypothesis for the barriers to access to court consisted of five factors: length, costs and publicity of procedure, lack of the resolver's expertise in the substantive law, and the predictability of the judgment. These factors were supposed to constitute the main barriers to access to court, and they were researched empirically.⁹

⁶The civil justice at the courts offers a legal framework that supports the efficient functioning of the economy and emphasises the respect to contracts. While handling civil cases, the courts strengthen the norms and behavioural standards between private people, companies and authorities. See Genn (2010), pp. 4 and 181.

⁷In an interim report, OMKM 2003:3, it was stated that the commission did not approve of a trend where numerous civil cases are taken out of courts and submitted to arbitration because "court proceedings are perceived as too slow and devoid of expertise". The commission stated, furthermore, that it is important that courts hear and decide a wide and comprehensive variety of disputes that have arisen from every sector of society. The reasons for this are for the preservation of the position of the courts in society, for the social internalisation of material legislation and for the development of the law. OMKM 2003:3, pp. 293, and 559. Koulu (2008), p. 15.

⁸The title of thesis is *Lainkäyttö yritysten riidanratkaisussa* (Litigation as Corporate Dispute Resolution Mechanism). It is published in Finnish by *Lakimiesliiton kustannus*, Helsinki, Finland.

⁹Same factors have been discussed, for example, in an international arbitration research at the Queen Mary University and in a market survey of the Finnish law firm Roschier: Roschier Disputes Index (2010, 2012). "Justice is not simply a matter of achieving the right result." Justice is also justice that is not delayed "where justice is delayed justice may be denied"; see Sime (2010), p. 1. See also Cappelletti (1993), pp. 284 and 287, and Ervasti (2011), p. 376.

The research question was whether the hypothesis was true or not. Moreover, questions were, what factor or factors affect most as an obstacle to access to court, and what is the relative order between the factors? Furthermore, the aim of the study was to find out the ways to improve the access to court from a corporate point of view. In this article, the main findings are presented. The function of this article is to bring out a piece of main results of the study to English-speaking scholars.

11.2 The Regulatory Basis in Access to Court

Companies are allowed to the access to court just like individuals.¹⁰ The claimed barriers included in the hypothesis have probably relevance to all court users, albeit some of these barriers are more important than others in relation to companies than they are in relation to individuals. Corporate dispute resolution is different from dispute resolution between individuals because of the usually very high monetary interest and confidential nature.

The statutory basis for access to court is very clear. Companies are eligible to access to court according the Constitution of Finland, Section 21, and the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), Article 6. According to Article 6, access to court means also access to justice.¹¹ These concepts may be separated from each other with a distinction that access to court means access to justice, but access to justice means more; it means actual access to justice.¹² Access to court is kind of a first step to reach one's rights. Access to justice contains also normative material, and therefore substantive laws affect access to the rights.¹³

¹⁰ Article 6(1) of the European Convention of Human Rights 1953 (ECHR). The article creates five sets of guarantees, and the first of them is access to justice.

¹¹ Ervo (2005), pp. 124–125, and Ervasti (2011), p. 378. Right to get a trial at court, see, for example, Ervo (2005), pp. 116–124 and Pellonpää et al. (2012), p. 464 and Nylund (2006), p. 47.

¹² The distinction can be made according the quality of the right and the access to the right. Virolainen and Pölonen (2003), pp. 256 and 268. Also, the quality of the right can be also seen as the possibility for the institution to give a resolution that is based on substantive law. Access to justice means the real possibilities for individuals to get one's disputes to court. Viitanen (2003), p. 124.

¹³ Ervo (2005), p. 117, reference 8. In the European access to justice movement, the actual availability of access to court with procedural clarity, trial costs, the quality of the reasons for the judgment have been considered important. See also, for example, Letto-Vanamo (2005), p. 4. Cappelletti (1993), p. 282, states that particularly in Europe access to justice was comprehended as a theoretical movement. Ervasti (2011), p. 375, reference 14. In England, the civil procedure reform included the following factors to ensure access to justice: the cases should be dealt justly; the procedure should be fair, cheap, speedy and efficient. Genn (1995), p. 394; Woolf (2008), p. 311; and Ervo (2000), pp. 1086–1087.

Whether a company is legitimated to a human right is dependent on the material content of the right itself. For example, the protection of personal freedom is of such a nature that the company cannot apply.¹⁴

11.3 Empirical Survey

11.3.1 *Objectives of the Empirical Study*

The methodology of the study was empirical. The exact information that gives answers to access to court and corporate dispute resolution was best to be surveyed by an empirical survey. This was because the companies themselves know the authentic and realistic answers to the question. Furthermore, there was a lack of specific statistics on national business disputes in courts. The main objective of the empirical study was to emphasise what dispute resolution mechanism companies used and what and which of the pre-named barriers to access to court appear in corporate dispute resolution. Actually, the corporative dispute resolution sphere was studied more widely in the thesis in terms of what are the proactive measures companies do in order to avoid disputes. But this article concentrates only on the main findings of the study in answering the research question.

The survey questionnaire applied to disputes that could be adjudicated by a Finnish court or by taking recourse to Finnish institutional arbitration or ad hoc arbitration or could be settled using the services of a Finnish mediator or negotiator. Furthermore, the scope of the research was dispositive civil disputes, and therefore administrative and criminal cases were set aside. Mainly, the study interest was complex and demanding disputes. International dispute resolution was under the scope only partly as a mechanism of secondary analysis of data.¹⁵

¹⁴ Pellonpää et al. (2012), pp. 16 and 230. In ECtHR case *Comingersoll S.A. v. Portugal* 6.4.2000, the question was if Art 6(1) was breached. The company was allowed to have compensation for breach of the article because the trial had lasted over 17 years. The case dealt with a bill of exchange. In addition, in *Fortum Corporation v. Finland* 15.7.2003, the ECHR found a violation of the convention. Fortum did not have a possibility to take part in the trial because it was left without information in a memorandum sent to court.

¹⁵ Some questions in the international arbitration surveys give answers to similar questions also at a national level in the empirical survey of this paper. For example, three empirical surveys made by International Arbitration by School of International Arbitration, Centre for Commercial Law Studies, Queen Mary University of London, and a market survey made by Roschier law firm.

Table 11.1 Sample and respondents

	N	%
Sample size in the beginning	250	100
Bankruptcy ^a	1	0.4 %
Final sample	249	99.6 %
Accepted responses	80	32 %
Crop failure	169	67.6 %
Contacted but did not answer	2	0.8 %
Crop failure cause not known	167	66.8 %

^aBankruptcy of the company named Elcoteq

11.3.2 Material and Data Collection

The sampling was focused on 250 of the largest companies in Finland based on annual turnover in euros for 2011.¹⁶ The turnover of these companies varied from 191 million up to 42.4 billion. Moreover, the sample included 62 listed companies (NASDAQ OMX Helsinki). The survey was conducted in the end of 2011. The sample and information about the respondents are illustrated in Table 11.1.

The total amount of completed questionnaires was 80, which formed 32 % of response per cent. The amount of listed companies in the sample was half of all the listed companies in Finland during the time of sample collection. At least 30 of the listed companies responded. So listed companies constituted 38 % of the respondents.

The corporate general counsels (GC) were selected to survey questionnaire recipients because they were assumed to be leading decision-makers in dispute resolution and, therefore, they knew best the corporate practices. The survey analyses perceptions of corporate GCs or persons involved in dispute resolution (when there was no GC or other, an in-house lawyer in the company). The purpose of the survey was that recipients answered about the views of the whole organisation and not only from his or her own views.

The study consisted of a survey with 33 multiple-choice questions. The data were collected by a survey questionnaire, firstly, by a postal questionnaire and, secondly, by an electronic questionnaire. The quantitative questions formed the core of data collection, and open questions were used to give extra information. Likert scale was used in several questions.¹⁷ The following scales were used:

- all the time, frequently, sometimes, never, no answer;
- decisively, a lot, little, not at all, no answer;
- excellent, good, moderate, bad, extremely bad;
- unquestionably important, important, fairly important, not at all important, no answer.

¹⁶ *Talouselämä 500 tiedosto (Talouselämä 500 datafile)*. The companies were collected from a file of the largest 500 companies in 2011. The comparative part in the thesis mentioned before included a survey questionnaire also to a smaller number of English companies.

¹⁷ A Likert scale is a scale in this study with five indicators to collect attitudes and reasoning of the recipient of the questionnaire. More about the Likert scale, see Bryman (2008) p. 223.

Quantitative results were analysed in relation to background variables. The background variables were chosen from typical factors that help to characterise the company size and activity. These were

- the size of company turnover,
- the number of employees,
- the company's business area,
- the percentage amount of the company's international trade, and
- whether the company is a listed company or not.

The confidentiality of the answers was fully protected. The results of the study were presented so that participating companies could not be identified. The questionnaire had also gone through a preliminary study by two GCs before the launching. Additionally, the research had obtained an approval by the Ethics Committee of the University of Turku.

11.3.3 Statistical Analysis

The results were fed to the Webropol application. Data were analysed with the SPSS statistical package (16.0 version). In all, the study had a total of 216 variables. Data description was performed by looking at the frequency distribution of background variables and parameters. Background variables were classified in three to eight classes, and comparisons between the classes were done with cross tables using percentage divisions.¹⁸ The statistical analysis was conducted at 95 % confidence level. The Chi-square (χ^2) test was used in the statistical testing. The test result is the P value, which indicates the probability of an incorrect conclusion. P value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. This means that the probability of an incorrect conclusion may be 5 %.¹⁹ However, the results referred to in this article do not go in many details in Chi-square (χ^2) test results.

The results were reported in writing and numerically with tables and figures. Citations given in the open questions were used to describe the opinions of the respondents in the companies. Quotes were written in italics. The results of the percentage digits were rounded to the nearest ones and tens.²⁰ Other quantitative methods were not used because of the short amount of responses.

¹⁸ With the help cross tables, it is possible to clarify the connection between column and row variables. Heikkilä (2008), pp. 210 and 212. Cross tabulating was used in the study in spite of only 80 responses.

¹⁹ See more about statistical testing, for example Bryman (2008) pp. 326–327 and 333–334, and Heikkilä (2008), p. 213, and Keinänen (2005), p. 52. P = probability. See more about P value, for example Keinänen (2005), p. 57 and (2008), p. 22.

²⁰ The rules for rounding were the following: if the post-decimal number was five or more, the number was rounded up.

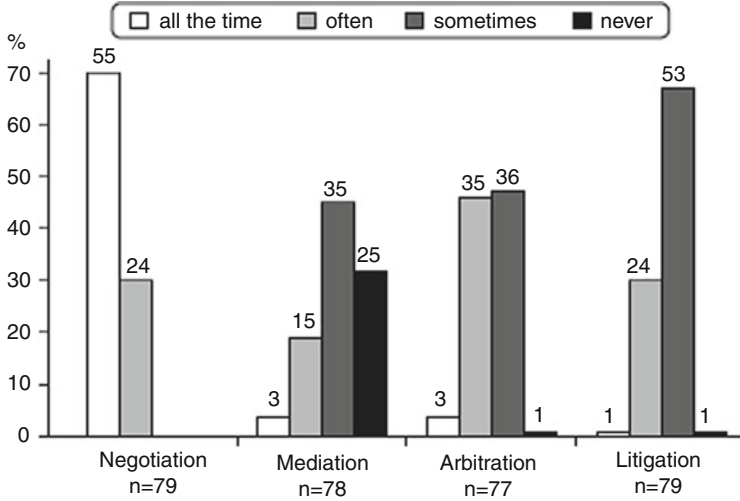


Fig. 11.1 Dispute resolution mechanisms used by companies

11.4 Results

11.4.1 Use of Dispute Resolution Mechanisms

The companies were asked what dispute resolution mechanisms they used. The results are shown in Fig. 11.1. The number of the respondents is also shown in the columns.

This figure describes the designed use of dispute resolution mechanisms. Over half of the respondents answered that they use litigation only sometimes. Negotiation is the most preferred way to resolve disputes. It is also clearly visible that arbitration is more popular than litigation or mediation.

In the open questions, companies responded, for example, as follows:

“By choosing arbitration the speed of the procedure and the expertise of the resolver can be taken into account.” Moreover, “Resolving a dispute means often a settlement and publicity makes compromising harder.”, and “The company does not want any image loss.”

11.4.2 The Use of Dispute Resolution Mechanisms During the Last 5 Years

The actual disputes solved in five different mechanisms are displayed in Fig. 11.2. The number of usage per last 5 years is described by different column colours. The survey was completed in 2011, and with 5 years, it was meant the 5 years prior to this.

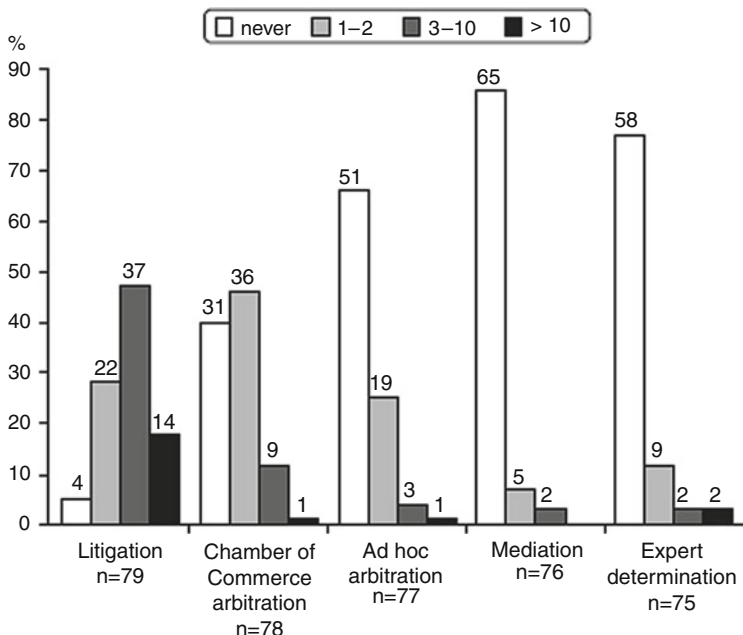


Fig. 11.2 Dispute resolution mechanisms during the last 5 years

The figure is interesting because it shows that the actual dispute resolution mechanism seems to be litigation. Up to 14 companies answered that they have been in a trial over ten times during the period in question. Also, almost half of the respondents replied to have used litigation three to ten times during the period in question.

11.4.3 Problems in Access to Court

The respondents were asked about the meaning of factors in the hypothesis in the choice of dispute resolution mechanism when the company had chosen some other mechanism than litigation. These results are shown with details in Fig. 11.3.

The results indicate that the publicity of litigation is decisively the most important obstacle in access to court to one-third of the survey respondents. The length of the procedure is considered as the second major barrier. The results show also that over half of the respondents considered that the length of litigation affects a lot as a hindrance to choose litigation. The court's or the judge's experience level in business disputes is seen as the third largest problem.

The outcome of the biggest problems in access to court in relation to all respondents is as follows:

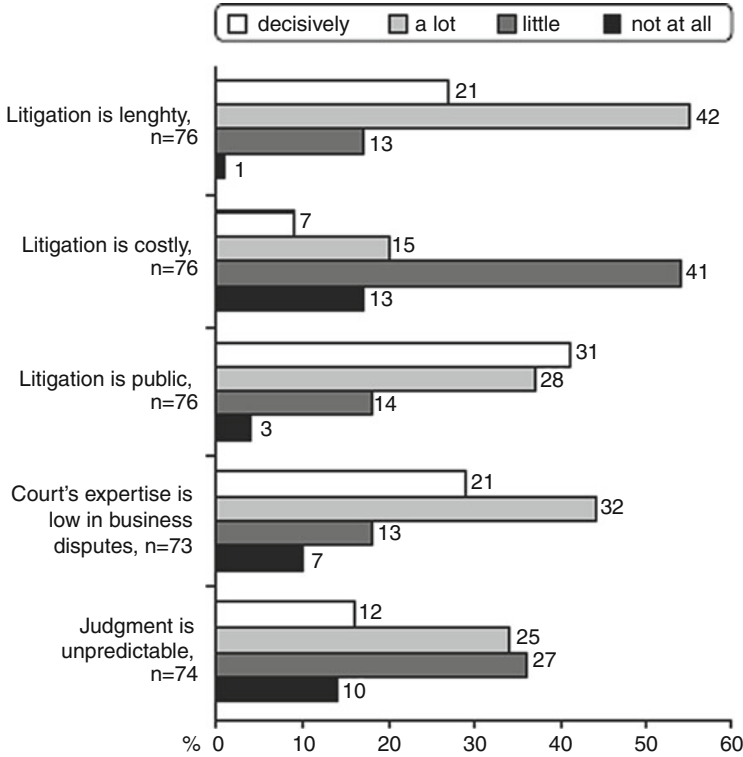


Fig. 11.3 The hypothesis of the problems in access to court

1. publicity,
2. length of the procedure,
3. expertise in business disputes,
4. predictability of the judgment,
5. costs.

11.4.4 Problems in Choosing Court as a Dispute Resolution Mechanism

The respondents were asked with a wider scale of elements which of those form is a barrier in choosing the courts as a dispute resolution mechanism. Results are put in a frequency order in Table 11.2.

The lack of expertise, the length and publicity were the main problems found with regard to access to court in this question. The problems with costs do not show as important factors as the other factors in the hypothesis. For 43 % of the respondents, neutrality of the court was not at all a problem.

Table 11.2 Problems in choosing a court as a dispute resolution mechanism

	Decisively	A lot	Little	Not at all
Non-expertise	34 % (25)	39 % (29)	27 % (20)	0 % (0)
The Length of procedure	30 % (23)	51 % (39)	18 % (14)	0 % (0)
The Publicity of the procedure	25 % (19)	44 % (33)	28 % (21)	3 % (2)
Efficiency of the enforcement	22 % (16)	24 % (17)	35 % (25)	6 % (4)
Unpredictability of the judgment	17 % (12)	43 % (31)	35 % (25)	6 % (4)
Doubt on neutrality	8 % (6)	16 % (12)	32 % (24)	43 % (32)
The dispute resolver cannot be chosen	5 % (4)	23 % (17)	58 % (43)	14 % (10)
Costs of the procedure	4 % (3)	17 % (13)	56 % (42)	23 % (17)
Procedural rules	3 % (2)	14 % (10)	59 % (42)	24 % (16)
Resistance of the contracting party	3 % (2)	9 % (6)	50 % (33)	38 % (25)
Lack of communicative skills of the judge	3 % (2)	14 % (10)	59 % (39)	24 % (16)
Party's low knowledge of the procedure	1 % (1)	5 % (4)	36 % (26)	44 % (32)

11.4.5 *The Affecting Factors in Choosing the Dispute Resolution Mechanism*

The respondents were given a chance to answer also to a question with some other problematic factors in access to fulfilling their legal rights in general. So all the mechanisms are under the scope in these results (Table 11.3).

The integrity of the dispute solver is the most decisive factor in choosing the dispute resolution mechanism. The Neutrality and equality were highly valued criterions as well. The factors in the hypothesis have a different order than in Fig. 11.3. The reason for this might be that in this question all the mechanisms were involved, not only litigation. The expertise of the dispute resolver has the most impact, and after that are non-publicity and duration of the procedure. Predictability and costs seem to have less importance in this question, as in the previous questions. The factors mentioned in the hypothesis are in the following order in this question:

1. expertise of the resolver,
2. non-publicity of the procedure,
3. length of procedure (duration),
4. predictability of the judgment,
5. costs.

11.4.6 *The Chi-Square Tests*

The Chi-square tests unveil that the length of procedure has less importance for companies with the largest personnel and turnover. Additionally, a connection was found between a listed company and a non-listed company status. The length of

Table 11.3 Factors affecting to the choice of dispute resolution mechanism

	Decisively	A lot	Little	Not at all
The integrity of the dispute solver	73 % (55)	19 % (14)	4 % (3)	4 % (3)
The independence of the dispute solver	57 % (42)	36 % (27)	4 % (3)	3 % (2)
The dispute solver's expertise	55 % (42)	38 % (29)	7 % (5)	0 % (0)
The equality of the procedure	43 % (31)	43 % (31)	10 % (7)	4 % (3)
The confidentiality of the procedure	42 % (32)	49 % (3)	8 % (6)	1 % (1)
The possibility to use experts	41 % (30)	46 % (34)	14 % (10)	0 % (0)
The enforceability of the judgment	41 % (30)	41 % (30)	16 % (12)	3 % (2)
The non-publicity of the procedure	30 % (23)	51 % (39)	17 % (13)	3 % (2)
The duration of the procedure	26 % (20)	68 % (48)	11 % (8)	0 % (0)
The predictability of the procedure	25 % (19)	56 % (42)	17 % (13)	1 % (1)
The possibility to choose the person to resolve the dispute	15 % (11)	49 % (37)	32 % (24)	4 % (3)
The flexibility of the procedure	13 % (10)	70 % (53)	17 % (13)	0 % (0)
The reputation and recognition of the dispute resolver	11 % (8)	51 % (38)	31 % (23)	8 % (6)
The fact that the solving institution is well known or not	6 % (4)	51 % (37)	33 % (24)	10 % (7)
The communicative skills of the dispute solver	6 % (4)	46 % (33)	39 % (28)	8 % (6)
The costs of the procedure	5 % (4)	42 % (32)	49 % (38)	4 % (3)
The possibility to appeal	4 % (3)	26 % (19)	61 % (45)	9 % (7)

procedure was a bigger problem to a company that was not a listed company.²¹ It looked also like that the larger the turnover and size of personnel is, the more constitute the publicity of the procedure and the lack of expertise a problem to access to justice.²² The smaller and mid-sized companies among the respondents seemed to appreciate more the predictability of the judgment than the larger companies. Non-publicity and confidentiality are very important elements in dispute resolution in business disputes. But they are not the only elements that make companies to choose arbitration and other alternative forms of dispute resolution.

11.5 Discussion

The results in the study mean that there might be problems in the access to court from a corporate point of view. The answers from the respondents showed that the companies wanted to use arbitration after the choice for negotiations in dispute resolution. Hence, litigation was actually used mostly. The reason for this might be that companies tend to choose arbitration if they have a possibility to do it in advance. The results give evidence to the conclusion that courts seem not to meet

²¹ $P = 0.009$.

²² $P = 0.042$.

the needs of companies, especially in the areas of confidentiality and speed of the procedure and expertise in business disputes.

The results provide some confirmation that the initial hypothesis claims are the factors that most likely contribute to access to court. The new information is that costs are not a problem compared to publicity, duration and expertise. The results also confirm the difference in need of corporate dispute resolution compared to dispute resolution between individuals.

The results seem to be similar to the results in other studies. The statistics of the Arbitration Institute of Finland Chamber of Commerce (FCC) reveal that the number of applications for arbitration procedure has increased from 14 in 1998 to 69 in 2012.²³ The results in the survey report by law firm Roschier are parallel. In that report, it was stated that even 72 % of the respondents used arbitration and only 9 % used litigation as a dispute resolution mechanism.²⁴

In Table 11.2, the neutrality of the court showed to be not at all a problem. Neutrality and impartiality of the legal system were important factors also according to 66 % of the respondents in the International Arbitration Survey.²⁵ Neutrality, strong reputation and widespread recognition were also important.²⁶ Also, the results of the Roschier's study indicate that, for example, neutrality affected positively in choosing litigation. According to that survey, also the enforceability and the predictability of the judgment were positive for litigation. The problems of litigation in Roschier's study results were the duration and the publicity of the procedure.²⁷ So those are the same factors that are found in Fig. 11.3.

The respondents were large companies, but it was the largest companies in this sample that answered the most. Listed companies were well represented in the survey results. The findings can be generalised to a listed company because almost a half of listed companies in the sample answered the survey. The results describe best a listed company in the business area of industry, with personnel more than 10,000 and with a turnover more than 1 billion euros. The reason for this type of best respondent group could be that these kinds of companies have usually a legal

²³ FCC statistics <http://arbitration.fi/fi/tilastot/>.

²⁴ Roschier Disputes Index (2012), p. 4. Moreover, mediation was more popular among Finnish companies than Swedish companies. Up to 19 % Finnish companies had used mediation or other alternative dispute resolution mechanisms except arbitration. The same use of those mechanisms was only 11 % among the Swedish companies, Roschier Disputes Index (2012), p. 8.

²⁵ Queen Mary University of London School of International Arbitration, Centre for Commercial Law Studies (2010) International Arbitration Survey 12.

²⁶ *Ibid* 3; *ibid* 17–18: The most important factor is the 'formal legal infrastructure' at the seat (62 %), which includes the national arbitration law and also the track record in enforcing agreements to arbitrate and arbitral awards in that jurisdiction and its neutrality and impartiality. After that factor comes convenience (45 %), which means "location, industry specific usage, prior use by the organization, established contacts with lawyers in the jurisdiction, language and culture and the efficiency of court proceedings".

²⁷ Roschier Disputes Index (2012), p. 4.

department and an in-house lawyer. In-house lawyers understand dispute resolution and the terms, and they were able to answer the survey questionnaire.²⁸

The results could be challenged on the ground that the number of responses is not large enough for statistical testing, but it still gives support to the idea that dispute resolution has changed to settlement and arbitration. The effective collection of data is dependent upon the recipient's willingness to cooperate. It has been stated that a growing tendency of refusing to participate has increased, and that has affected the declining response rates of social surveys in many countries.²⁹ Indeed, this tendency has been clearly visible in this survey. The worse problem with the empirical method is the crop failure. The expected amount of answer could have been larger. The validity of the research is affected by non-response. Thus, the results in previous studies added the validity and certainty to this research. Completing the questionnaire was assumed to take 20–30 min, depending on how completely the respondent answered the questions. Obviously, the length of completing the survey might have been one reason that has affected the willingness to answer.

In the renewal programme of the administration of justice, it has been stated that the Reform of District Courts in the beginning of 2010 did affect positively the reinforcing of the expert knowledge among judges.³⁰ The programme paper discusses many ways to improve access to court by increasing expertise in this context and speeding up the procedure.³¹

11.6 Conclusion

The main aim of this article was to highlight the main results of testing the hypothesis and to give answers to what are the primary problems in access to court. The publicity of the procedure is meant to promote access to justice. For the responded companies, it seems to hinder radically the access to court. The duration of the procedure is often dependent on the possibility to appeal. The responded companies were of the view that duration was a major problem. So it was understandable that in Table 11.3 the possibility to appeal seemed to affect only little the choice of the dispute resolution mechanism.

Corporate dispute resolution needs usually significant monetary and time-related effort from the company and its staff, and the interest in the dispute can be considerable high, and the resolution may be complex as well, compared especially to the average or normal disputes between individuals, for instance in a dispute between neighbours. Access to court is important to the companies also from a

²⁸ Sorsa (2009), p. 138.

²⁹ *Ibid* 51 at 180.

³⁰ *Oikeudenhoidon uudistamisohjelma* (2013), pp. 24–25.

³¹ I examine also different ways to improve litigation in my thesis in Chap. 6.

societal point of view. The dispute and the process of resolving the dispute affect the parties and its sphere of operations in several vexatious ways. The barriers to access to court affects the company, as well as its employees, and even the society in, for example, the form of how much tax income society will receive.

The development of substantive business law would need a more open access to business case law. It seems that the courts cannot fulfil this duty. The FCC's new regulations of publication of the arbitration awards are welcomed at this point.³² A perfectly functioning procedural space in litigation affects positively arbitration as well.

Corporate behaviour is influenced by the mission of a company. The aspiration to profit maximising leads also to dispute resolution.³³ A company has transaction costs in dispute resolution as in its other activities. Transaction costs are costs caused by transportation of products or services. In dispute resolution, these costs consist of communication, negotiation and decision-making, among others. The rules are not equal in this mode. The company has to choose the mechanism that is the most efficient regarding the resources (costs, time and inconvenience) if there are two legal rules and they are equivalent and both secure the rights.³⁴ The company has to minimise the disadvantages caused by the dispute and dispute resolution.

Arbitration is a private and well-functioning commercial system itself. This nature of it allows it to adapt more easily to the demands of business disputes compared to litigation and procedural rules. It is against arbitrators and institutions to have a system that would have more disadvantages than advantages.³⁵

The principle of one's right to dispose the matter in civil process is a guiding principle of nonmandatory civil cases.³⁶ The parties are entitled to a free contract in relation to their interests, and therefore they have the right to agree to their dispute during the process. The parties have power to rule how they will resolve their nonmandatory disputes.³⁷

The study has shown that costs are not the main problem in corporate dispute resolution. The problems are publicity and length of the procedure and also judges' lack of expertise in business disputes. The statistics of the FCC show an increase in

³² Arbitration rules of the Finland Chamber of Commerce adopted on May 2013. Section 49.4 states that the institution may publish excerpts or summaries or selected awards, orders and other decisions provided that all parties' names and other identifying details are deleted, http://arbitration.fi/rules_eng/#/1/.

³³ The economic theory of company is a theory of profit maximising firm. A neoclassical theory of company describes company as an institution that aims to gain maximal profits by producing different products or services. Microeconomical definition of a company. See, for example, Cooter and Ulen (2012), p. 28, and Kaisanlahti (1998), p. 53.

³⁴ Cooter (1995), p. 57, and Kaisanlahti (1998), p. 56. According to Hemmo, the standard contracts reduce the preparation costs. Hemmo (2009), pp. 37–38.

³⁵ See, for example, Jackson (2011), pp. 235–237.

³⁶ Jokela (2005), p. 175; Virolainen (1988), p. 163; and Tirkkonen (1974), p. 29. In the criminal procedure so-called official principle rules.

³⁷ Jokela (2005), p. 175.

the applications for arbitration procedure. It was expected that arbitration would have been the main mechanism, but the actual mechanism was litigation. So it could be stated that the intention of the companies and the reality do not meet. Litigation is often used in employment cases because arbitration is not appropriate in a relation to non-equal parties.

A modern trend to settle the disputes is visible in results. Negotiation is the first mechanism in dispute resolution. Recent procedural reforms have highlighted the importance of amicable dispute resolution.³⁸ The role of the court and the status of litigation have changed. In addition, the role of the judge has changed.³⁹ The values of society, the people and the companies have been under changes. Many administrative institutions seem to have lost their position. In this environment, courts have to earn their legitimacy every time over and over again.⁴⁰

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³⁸ Ervo (2011), p. 147.

³⁹ Ervasti (2004), p. 512, and Ervo (2011), pp. 154–155.

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Chapter 12

The Risk of Legal Costs and Its Effects on Access to Court

Satu Saarensola

Abstract Issues raised by costs and funding are of great significance in countries that have during the past decades reformed their civil procedure rules to reduce delays and costs. The article provides a general overview of distribution of legal costs in Finland. The emphasis is on the rule that determines the liability for a loser to reimburse a winner. The primary concern of the observations is with the fact that litigation costs are unpredictable and sometimes even undisproportionate. Yet the system shifts nearly all of the litigation costs to the loser. A positive remark is the fact that there is an exception rule that makes ex officio judicial control possible and could, to some extent, assure equality of arms between litigants of widely differing resources. However, in practice, it seems that the rule is too complicated and is not working effectively. The legal analysis focuses on the question whether cost shifting rules in reality constitute serious barriers for access to court and thus endanger private people's access to justice by limiting their individual rights.

12.1 Introduction

“Better a bony agreement than a fat disagreement”. This old Finnish proverb is an excellent guideline for those having conflicts and planning to bring a suit to a court. It makes you consider whether there are other pathways than pursuing a legal action. It also reminds you of the fact that the most satisfying alternative is not necessarily the one you find the most fair but the one you can accept in the long run.

The revision of the Code of Judicial Procedure in Finland entered into force on December 1993, modernising civil proceedings to comply with the principles of

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oral, immediate and condensed procedure.¹ The key purpose of the reform was to improve legal certainty.² One of the other purposes was to avoid excessive legal costs.³ The latter purpose was also emphasised in a reform in 1999 when the rules on legal costs were amended after having given rise to concerns about high and disproportionate costs and the fairness of the way they were shifted.⁴

Yet the studies where the national system has been evaluated against criteria of cost show that the development has not been desirable in all respects.⁵ According to the reports published by the National Research Institute of Legal Policy in Finland,⁶ the amount of legal costs⁷ has almost doubled between 1993 and 2008.⁸ In almost every second case reaching the main hearing, the total amount of legal costs has exceeded the value of the legal claim.⁹ In matters concerning, e.g., a claim of damages, real property and employment contract, the legal costs have been multiple¹⁰ compared to some other matters.

This kind of development has not always been greeted with pleasure. Traditionally, the majority of clients in district courts have been ordinary people with limited economic resources. Transferring of unpredictable legal costs of the successful party to the unsuccessful party has been a ruinous and unfair experience. If legal costs have not always been in the focus of academic writers,¹¹ they have at least

¹ Civil proceedings was divided into two main parts: the preparation and the main hearing. The purpose of the preparation that was partly written and partly oral was to clarify the case before the main hearing. The purpose of the main hearing was to concentrate on evidence directed towards the disputed facts. See, e.g., Lappalainen (1996), pp. 407–423; Ervasti (1997c), pp. 34–36; and Möller (1999), pp. 449–450. See also Heuman (1999), pp. 478–481, about the principles in Sweden.

² The reform was not only aimed at guaranteeing legal certainty. A speedy, effective and inexpensive proceeding was also emphasised. See about these controversial aims Norrgård (2000), pp. 87–104.

³ See HE 191/1993 vp, p. 4. It was believed that the fear of full compensation of legal costs affected the parties in a positive way and made them avoid unnecessary proceedings. This in turn contributed to the speedy proceedings. See also Lindblom (2000), pp. 113–114.

⁴ See HE 107/1998 vp, p. 1 and 13.

⁵ See, e.g., Jokela (1998), p. 966; Ervasti (2006), p. 613; and Viitanen (2006), p. 614.

⁶ The task of the institute is to produce independent research on justice to support planning and decision-making in legal policy. The institute is operating under the Finnish Ministry of Justice. See, e.g., reports by Ervasti (1994, 1997b, 2004, 2005).

⁷ The amount of legal costs refers both to the amount presented by the claimant and to the amount assessed by the court.

⁸ Ervasti (2009b), p. 50, which clearly indicates that the median assessed by the court was 2,852 euros in 1995, while the median assessed by the court was 5,277 euros in 2008.

⁹ Ervasti (2009b), p. 49. See also Hodges et al. (2010), p. 71: most European countries are facing the same problem. England, Wales, Ireland and Denmark are striking examples of that.

¹⁰ Ervasti (2006), pp. 602–604.

¹¹ See Hodges et al. (2010), pp. 6–7, where it is presented that in an international level there has recently been stronger interest in this subject.

earned particular attention among politicians¹² and lawyers¹³ in general. A worry about the unexpected development has been expressed both by laymen and professionals. Ordinary people have kept on asking whether they should settle instead of pursue their legal actions. The most skeptic professionals have had visions about court houses being built down because courts no longer provide an adequate venue for seeking the protection of rights or for resolving problems.

In this article, I will discuss the rules on cost shifting from the Finnish point of view. I will illustrate what the main rule in practice means in dividing legal costs between parties. The purpose of my article is, firstly, to show that the main rule leaves the financial burden of litigation to the unsuccessful party. Therefore, there is a risk of legal costs and the risk is real. In this article, I will also analyse the number of suits being brought to the court and the process the suits go through. The purpose of my article is, secondly, to prove that the risk of legal costs prevents at least part of ordinary people from bringing their suits to the court or to defend themselves in the court. Therefore, there is also a risk that those people are at least, to some extent, excluded from the litigation system.

Finally, I will, in the light of the Constitution of Finland and Article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights, discuss the problems related to the high threshold of seeking redress in a court. I will state that effective ways of making compensation equitable are lacking in cases where one of the parties is liable for the costs of the other party and where the liable party is an economically weaker party. I will seriously ask if the risk of legal costs in those conditions is an obstacle and if access to court therefore is in danger.

12.2 The Risk of Legal Costs

12.2.1 *Legal Costs*

Every jurisdiction has rules that regulate the economic consequences of litigation, that is, rules on litigation costs or legal costs. The basic elements that make up quantifiable costs in Finland are similar to those in other jurisdictions:¹⁴

1. charges for use of the courts and their processes, including associated officers and bailiffs;
2. evidential costs for witnesses and experts;
3. lawyers' fees, where lawyers are involved.

¹² At least four written questions concerning legal costs have been raised between 2004 and 2010 by the members of the Finnish Parliament and forwarded to the speaker of the Parliament.

¹³ Legal costs have been the topic of different seminars and meetings arranged by the Association of Finnish Lawyers and the Finnish Bar Association.

¹⁴ About the basic elements, see Hodges et al. (2010), p. 12.

Like most countries, Finland imposes court fees on those who initiate proceedings. Court fees are not affected by the value of the claim. Court fees are dependent on how many procedural steps there are before a case is resolved by the court.¹⁵ However, the court fees are decent, and as a matter of principle they are not intended to cover all or even most of the state's costs of running the court system.¹⁶ Therefore, court fees hardly make an obstacle to seeking redress in a court.

Evidential costs normally consist of *per diems*, compensation for lost income and travel costs payable to witnesses.¹⁷ Evidential costs for witnesses do not have great impact on the total amount of legal costs and are therefore not the major costs within litigation. Slightly more impact on the total amount of costs may have evidential costs for the experts appointed and paid by the parties themselves. However, they may not be avoided in most complicated disputes like disputes related to medical, technical and insurance matters.

In Finland, it has been traditionally possible for a party to initiate proceedings, as well as to defend himself or herself in court.¹⁸ Nevertheless, in practice, it is almost impossible in a civil case without a judicially qualified lawyer.¹⁹ That is because parties have to struggle in a growing jungle of new rules and statutes. Furthermore they have to get acquainted with the civil procedure that has become more and more complicated. In a modern procedure, the judge cannot take the role of a counselor because otherwise the impartiality of the court will be disturbed.²⁰

That means that the parties have to be prepared for lawyers' costs that are occasionally unpredictable and disproportionate.²¹ The unpredictability may be due to the fact that lawyers' costs in civil cases are not regulated by tariffs in Finland.²² They are based on hourly rates. The disproportionality in its turn may be due to the fact that there are not enough different costs rules or cost shifting rules in

¹⁵ Court fees in civil disputes are lowest if a case is resolved in the written preparation and highest if a case is resolved after the main hearing in the composition of three judges. They vary from 86 to 196 euros in the district court.

¹⁶ See HE 241/1992 vp, pp. 1–8. See also Viitanen (2011), p. 51. The court system is mainly funded by taxes collected from taxpayers.

¹⁷ Jokela (1995), p. 5, and Viitanen (2011), p. 51.

¹⁸ KM 2003:3, pp. 241 and 243.

¹⁹ Lappalainen (1995), p. 303. See also Ervasti (2009c), p. 11, according to which only 5 % of plaintiffs and 15 % of defendants were in 2008 without judicially qualified lawyers in civil cases. See even Cappelletti (1989), p. 244, about the growing need for expert assistance characteristic of advanced societies.

²⁰ See also Viitanen (2011), p. 58.

²¹ See Hodges et al. (2010), pp. 70–71, about unpredictable and disproportionate costs.

²² As lawyers' costs are not regulated by tariffs, they may be difficult to estimate the time that the diligent preparation of the case in condensed procedure requires. On the other hand, there may be a temptation to exaggerate the time needed for the preparation of the case.

case the legal costs strikingly exceed the value of the claim²³ and alternative dispute resolution pathways are not always used effectively.²⁴

12.2.2 *Cost Shifting in General*

The level of the threshold of seeking judicial redress²⁵ is not only dependent on the amount of legal costs. It is also dependent on how the costs are finally shifted²⁶ between the parties. In different legal systems, the legal costs are shifted differently. There are polar opposite rules to be distinguished, the British rule and the American rule.²⁷ The British rule, which is prevailing in Britain and in much of Europe, means that the loser of the matter pays all legal costs. Or to say it in other words, the prevailing party recovers some or all litigation costs from the unsuccessful party. The American rule, which is prevailing mainly in the United States of America, in turn means that each pays his or her own legal costs.²⁸ The litigation costs of a successful party are not transferred to an unsuccessful party. Furthermore, there are a lot of exceptions of both rules in most legal systems.²⁹

Finland, as well as other Nordic countries, has adopted the British rule as a main rule. In Finland, Sweden and Denmark, the main rule emphasises the unsuccessful party's obligation to pay the legal costs of the opposing party. In Norway, the main rule expresses the successful party's right to compensation from the opposing party. The idea behind the rules is, despite different expressions, the same: the loser pays.³⁰

²³ There is a tariff-based cost rule for undisputed civil matters and eviction. There is also a special cost-shifting rule for some family matters that have comparatively low costs.

²⁴ There is a rule about court-connected mediation, but until now the rule has not played a major role in civil procedure. In the course of the process, the judge is also obliged to find out if any possibility for a settlement exists.

²⁵ The threshold of seeking judicial redress refers to those factors that determine the opportunities of a person to initiate proceedings in the court. See more about economical, psychological and social factors, Viitanen (2011), p. 3.

²⁶ Typical for cost shifting is to shift at least some of the costs of civil litigation to a party other than the plaintiff. See more in Reimann (2012), pp. 9–16.

²⁷ Dnes (1996), pp. 169–171.

²⁸ Hodges et al. (2010), p. 17. See also Visscher and Schepens (2010), p. 11.

²⁹ Hodges et al. (2010), p. 18. One of the most typical is a rule on how to deal with the situation where the claimant only succeeded on part of the claim or the defendant succeeded on part of the defence or counterclaim. The result, overall, is that both sides were partially successful. In general, the outcome is that the costs are apportioned between parties. See also Reimann (2012), pp. 18–19.

³⁰ See Ekelöf (1980), p. 145; Skoghøy (2011), p. 113; Gomard and Kistrup (2007), p. 672.

12.2.3 Cost Shifting from the Finnish Point of View

In Finland, the loser-pays rule is in chapter 21, section 1 of the Code of Judicial Procedure. It runs as follows: “The party who loses the case is liable for all reasonable costs incurred by the necessary measures of the opposing party, unless otherwise provided by an Act”. The rule is in the beginning of chapter 21, which concerns legal costs in general. Because it is right in the beginning of chapter 21, it clearly reflects the fact that it is the main rule and as a main rule, a very dominant one. The primary justification for the rule is in the fundamental principle that the winning party should not have to suffer a loss from the proceedings.³¹

The court has some discretion over the award of costs in case they are not directly approved. According to chapter 21, section 1 of the Code of Judicial Procedure, only the reasonable costs and the costs that have been necessary to assert one’s rights can be compensated.³² Nevertheless, it seems that the courts do not easily cut legal costs of the successful party.³³ The risk of unpredictable and disproportionate legal costs is therefore present.³⁴ The risk applies to the following cases: the court decides a matter by rejecting the claim or the claims of the plaintiff, or the court orders the defendant to compensate all the plaintiff has requested. In both cases, one of the parties has been defeated. In the first one it is the plaintiff, and in the latter one it is the defendant that has been defeated. The risk consists of the following: the losing party is obliged to pay the costs of the winning party, and the losing party is therefore responsible for his or her own costs, as well as the costs of the opposing party. In the worst case, the losing party is responsible for the value of the legal claim as well.

12.2.4 The Reality of the Risk of Legal Costs in Finland

In principle, the proceedings in civil cases in Finland are funded by parties themselves. In case a person lacks sufficient means to retain a lawyer independently, the state can on certain conditions provide free legal assistance. Due to strict demands,³⁵ legal assistance with no excess covers only a tiny part of private people seeking redress in civil cases in district courts. Furthermore, it does not free from compensating the legal costs of the opposing party if the case is lost.³⁶ Sometimes the legal

³¹ See also NOU (2001):32 section 20.5 and Ot.prp.nr. 51 sections 22.2 and 22.3.2. Furthermore, see retsplejerådets betaenkning 1436, pp. 250 and 252.

³² See also Lindell (2012), p. 563; Hov (2010), p. 687; Gomard and Kistrup (2007), pp. 671–672.

³³ Cutting legal costs was typical before the revision of the Code of Judicial Procedure.

³⁴ That applies to the loser. The winning party can rely on the primary justification for the basic rule: he or she does not have to suffer a loss from the proceedings.

³⁵ See Nylund (2002), pp. 282–283.

³⁶ See Nylund (2002), p. 289.

costs of the party are also funded by the insurance companies.³⁷ However, the legal expense insurance covers normally only the costs of the insured party³⁸ and only to a relatively low extent³⁹ with the excess of 10–15 %.⁴⁰

In civil cases related to a claim of damages, real property or employing contract, the total amount of legal costs⁴¹ can be tens of thousands of euros, as mentioned before. For an average employee, this is an enormous amount compared to his or her monthly salary or wages, which according to some statistics were in 2012 only about 3,000 euros per month before taxes. For a private person living on unemployment benefits, this is an amount impossible to bear. The risk of legal costs is therefore a reality.

12.3 The Effects of the Risk of Legal Costs on? Access to Court

12.3.1 *Finnish Civil Procedure in a Nutshell*

In Finland, the courts of law can be divided into two categories: general courts with jurisdiction in private civil and criminal matters and administrative courts with disputes of public interest between a public authority and private individuals. The district court is the general court that handles civil disputes as a first instance.⁴² All the judgments of the district court are, in principle, subject to appeal in a court of appeal. Sometimes leave to continue the proceedings granted by a court of appeal is required.

The procedure in the district court is made up of a preliminary hearing and a main hearing. The preliminary hearing is at the first stage conducted in writing. That means that there is always a claim and a response and, if needed, one or two statements. Normally there is also an oral hearing.⁴³ The purpose of this preliminary hearing is to clarify the case. In this preliminary hearing, the plaintiff's demands and the defendant's responses are brought forward. The undisputed facts and the disputed facts are separated. The evidence that is presented about the disputed facts is gathered. If the case is not settled in the preliminary hearing, there is a main hearing. The main hearing consists primarily of the opening and

³⁷ Disputes that have arisen in a 2 year's time period after the insurance was taken are however excluded. Furthermore, labour disputes and disputes concerning investments, etc. are excluded.

³⁸ In rare cases, the costs of the opposing party may be covered by the insurance.

³⁹ The maximum amount covered by the insurance is 8,500 euros.

⁴⁰ Viitanen (2006), p. 627.

⁴¹ That does not include the value of the claim.

⁴² The other instances are the courts of appeal and the Supreme Court.

⁴³ Oral hearing is unnecessary only in cases where witnesses are not appointed and where the judgement is based solely on written evidence.

closing discussions of the parties and, of course, the hearing of witnesses and experts. The last but not the least before leaving the case to the court to decide is the discussion of legal costs.

12.3.2 Development of Civil Disputes in Finnish District Courts

According to statistics, the number of civil disputes in district courts has diminished dramatically during the past 10 years.⁴⁴ The majority of disputes that become pending in district courts are judicially less demanding petitionary matters⁴⁵ that are decided without a hearing being held and undisputed debt or eviction matters that go through a simple summary procedure. Only a few percentages of disputes are more complicated disputed civil matters that reach at least the preliminary hearing or even the main hearing of the court.⁴⁶ Calculated in quantities, the number of civil cases that reached the preliminary hearing in 2008 was 2,224 and the number of civil cases that reached the main hearing was 3,314.⁴⁷ Altogether, the number of civil cases handled in oral hearing was 5,538.⁴⁸ As no rise in the amount of civil cases reaching the preliminary hearing and the main hearing of the court has happened, a fear of district courts being profiled as family and criminal courts has been expressed.⁴⁹ It has even been stated that the traditional civil procedure is in danger of becoming an alternative dispute resolution.⁵⁰

12.3.3 The Confidence of Private People in Courts

The reasons for less civil disputes becoming pending in district courts can be diversified. The most typically mentioned are the backlogs of cases, delays in civil proceedings, the risk of increasing costs and the quality of judgments. In this article, I'm going to concentrate only on increasing costs. I will discuss the effects of the risk of legal costs on private people's confidence in courts.

⁴⁴ Ervasti (2009b), p. 47.

⁴⁵ Petionary matters are matters that pertain to the everyday life of people, e.g. divorce, custody of child and right of access, appointment of guardians, bankruptcies, etc.

⁴⁶ Ervasti (2009b), p. 47.

⁴⁷ Ervasti (2009a), p. 744, and (2009b), p. 46.

⁴⁸ The number of civil cases handled in written procedure was 224,610. That is 98 % of all civil cases handled in district courts. See more in Ervasti (2009b), p. 44.

⁴⁹ Koulu (2005), p. 28. See also Havansi (2007), p. 43.

⁵⁰ Lindblom (2001), p. 159.

The Scandinavian countries can pride themselves on their citizens traditionally trusting on prevailing legal systems.⁵¹ In Finland, information about legal conditions has been assembled, analysed and produced for decades to help assess the status of legal phenomena and to form a picture of the factual legal conditions. The confidence⁵² of private people in legal institutions has been in the focus of those studies.⁵³ One of the aspects of the studies has been the people's views and experiences on the functioning of general courts.⁵⁴

Such confidence has been studied both from national and international perspectives and in relation to other institutions in society. The most significant surveys in the international level are the World Values Survey⁵⁵ and the Standard Eurobarometer Survey.⁵⁶ In the national level, it is mostly the National Research Institute of Legal Policy that has contributed to the surveys of this type.⁵⁷

According to the last World Values Survey, the confidence of private people in general courts in Finland was relatively high.⁵⁸ Whereas only 66 % of ordinary people trusted in general courts after the civil proceedings was reformed in 1993, the confidence among private people was 81 % in 2005.⁵⁹ The development, especially in the twenty-first century, has been in many respects favourable: not only the amount of people trusting in general courts has increased, but also the intensity that measures the confidence of people in general courts has grown.⁶⁰ Compared to other key institutions in the society, the confidence in general courts is exceptionally high.⁶¹ Only the confidence in police and the armed forces is ranked above the general courts. Similar results were gained in Standard Eurobarometer

⁵¹ See Lasola (2009), p. 21.

⁵² See Ervasti and Aaltonen (2013), pp. 10–11. Confidence is a complicated term and can be studied at many different levels and with various methods. The interpretation of results is also demanding because it should happen in certain frameworks and in relation to something.

⁵³ See Lasola (2009) summary, p. 418. Confidence as such has been regarded as a pillar of social capital, perhaps making it the most cohesive force in society. The existence of confidence, together with its propelling force that reaches into future, has been considered even more important than the internal rules of a system that are particular to a certain period of time.

⁵⁴ Haavisto (2007), p. 20, where it is emphasised that the courts are no longer authorities and therefore it is important to listen to the clients who have personal experiences from the courts.

⁵⁵ World Values Survey has been carried out by the European Values System Study Group. The first material was assembled between 1981 and 1984 from Western European countries. The surveys were repeated in 14 other countries. The last material has been assembled between 2005 and 2008. The project has been conducted by professor Ronald Inglehart from Michigan University. More detailed information about the results concerning Finland can be found at www.fsd.uta.fi.

⁵⁶ Standard Eurobarometer Survey, among other things, assembles information about the public confidence in general courts. More detailed information about the results can be found at <http://europa.eu.int/comm>.

⁵⁷ See Lappi-Seppälä et al. (1999). See also Niskanen et al. (1999).

⁵⁸ Lasola (2009), p. 24.

⁵⁹ Lasola (2009), p. 16.

⁶⁰ Lasola (2009), pp. 17–18.

⁶¹ Lasola (2009), p. 25.

Survey in 2008. The confidence of ordinary people in general courts in Finland is unique in the European Union level as well because it is far above the results in other European Union countries.⁶²

Despite the fact that there is no lack of confidence in general courts, private people and their lawyers do not always dare to bring a suit to the court. According to some national surveys, private people have reported that they have abandoned bringing a suit to the court because of the risk of legal costs.⁶³ A closer look at the surveys shows that the number of private people that tend to think that way has grown.⁶⁴ Furthermore, it is not only private people: the opinion is widely shared by the attorneys interviewed for the surveys.⁶⁵ Both those operating with the legal aid and those paid by the clients have, according to surveys, faced situations where they have not been able to go to a full-blown adjudication because of the risk of legal costs.

The reasons for civil disputes disappearing from district courts can be multiple, as mentioned before. As long as the reasons have not been thoroughly studied, we can only present guesses on them. However, the above-explained studies support the statement that the foregoing development must be at least partly due to the enormous legal costs and the fear of private people being responsible for all of them if losing the case.⁶⁶

12.3.4 The Consequences of the High Threshold of Seeking Redress

There are contradictory values that affect the level of legal costs. On one hand, the promotion of the rule of law and the importance of stability demand that legal costs should be sufficiently low to allow individuals to vindicate their rights in the courts. On the other hand, the same values require that costs should be sufficiently high to deter frivolous or vexatious behaviour.⁶⁷ Furthermore, there are some more practical factors affecting the level of legal costs: the civil justice system is covered mostly from limited general public funds and only to a small extent from the payments by individual litigants.⁶⁸

⁶² See Lasola (2009), pp. 18–20 and p. 25: only 46 % of ordinary people in European Union countries trust in courts. An exception is Denmark, where even more people than in Finland tend to trust in courts.

⁶³ See Lappi-Seppälä et al. (1999), pp. 91–93; Niskanen et al. (1999), pp. 89–93; and Lasola (2009), p. 29.

⁶⁴ See Lasola (2009), pp. 30–31.

⁶⁵ Litmala (2004), p. 177.

⁶⁶ This is an argument that the supporters of alternative dispute resolution movement like to refer to. See, e.g., Nader (1979), p. 1001.

⁶⁷ Hodges et al (2010), p. 4.

⁶⁸ Hodges et al (2010), pp. 4–5.

It is difficult to say whether the high threshold of seeking redress in Finnish courts is an intended choice of the legislator or if it only reflects the negative attitude of the legislator to conflicts.⁶⁹ However, it seems to work effectively. In the worst case, disputes never become pending in any court. Neither do they come up for more or less serious judicial discussion between the parties and their attorneys. To quote Galanter:⁷⁰ “Most disputes that, under current rules, could be brought to a court are in fact never placed on the agenda of any court. Many of these disputes are resolved by resignation, lumping it or exit by one party”. In a slightly better case, the disputes never become pending in any court. Yet they come up for more or less serious judicial discussion between the parties and their attorneys. To quote Galanter again: “Of those disputes pursued, a large portion are resolved by negotiations between parties”.⁷¹ In a much better case, the disputes become pending in a court but they do not go through the whole process. As Galanter has said: “Of those disputes taken to a court, the vast majority are disposed of without full-blown adjudication and sometimes without any authoritative disposition by the court”.⁷² According to the research report published by the National Institute of Legal Policy, only a few percentage of cases reached the preliminary hearing or the main hearing of the court in 2008.⁷³

The above-mentioned development undoubtedly leads to the shrinking selection of cases in courts when only certain types of cases are directed to the courts and other types of cases shifted from the courts. Typical cases directed to the courts are undisputed cases concerning a debt of certain amount or eviction.⁷⁴ They are normally decided in the written preparation because the defendant does not respond within the time limit and because the court issues a judgment by default allowing the plaintiff’s action. Typical cases directed to the courts are also cases where the value of the claim is high. They are often labour disputes or consumer disputes where private people initiate actions against companies⁷⁵ and where the value of the claim exceeds 25,000 euros.⁷⁶ The reasons these cases are directed to the court are two. Firstly, there are no external alternatives to the court.⁷⁷ Secondly, in case there

⁶⁹ See Koulu (2007), pp. 111–112, where this question has been considered. It has been stated that conflicts in Finland are still interpreted as something unusual: people having conflicts have not adapted to the society or have an exceptionally difficult temper. In order to avoid conflicts, the society has to prevent those people from pursuing their suits.

⁷⁰ Galanter (1981), p. 149.

⁷¹ Galanter (1981), p. 149.

⁷² Galanter (1981), pp. 149–150.

⁷³ Ervasti (2009c), p. 6.

⁷⁴ Viitanen (2011), pp. 29–30. See also Ervasti (2009c), p. 2. Household debt problems and payment difficulties people face in the instant loan market are a major reason for these cases.

⁷⁵ Viitanen (2011), pp. 35–36.

⁷⁶ See Ervasti (2005), pp. 46–48. The value of the claim in 2004 was in general less than 15,000 euros. In cases initiated by companies against individual people, it was less than 5,000 euros.

⁷⁷ That concerns labour disputes. See Viitanen (2011), p. 36.

are external alternatives to the court, those alternative forums can produce only recommendations that are not enforceable.⁷⁸

If only certain kinds of cases are directed to the courts, it is obvious that part of the others are resorted to institutions where they do not belong. A typical institution for that kind of cases is the office of the Parliamentary Ombudsman, where thousands of complaints are decided annually.⁷⁹ It is understandable from the individual people's point of view to seek redress from any available authority because many individual needs require the conflict to be handled formally.⁸⁰ However, it is not the task of the Ombudsman to solve that kind of disputes.⁸¹ The task of the Ombudsman is to decide if the legal system is working well in the general level.⁸² The purpose is to express that there are cases that could be handled in the court. But the risk of legal costs prevents people from bringing their cases to the courts. Instead people let their cases resolved in other institutions like the office of the Parliamentary Ombudsman although the primary task of the office of the Parliamentary Ombudsman is not to resolve such cases.

It is assumable that the risk of legal costs prevents private people more easily than companies from bringing their suits to the court or to defend themselves in the court. In general, the plaintiff has the burden of proof for the legal facts he or she refers to. Private people as plaintiffs often have more limited resources than companies to bring evidence to the court. With the limited resources, private people have worse opportunities than companies to succeed⁸³ in disputes tied to the evaluation of presented evidence. Therefore, the threshold of seeking redress is higher among private people than among companies.⁸⁴ The same applies to private people as defendants. Because of the unbalance in resources, private people after receiving a claim or claims from companies have to consider carefully whether it is worth denying the claim or claims.⁸⁵

We are sure to agree about the fact that it is difficult to create a civil justice system that is satisfactory "from the perspectives of cost proportionality and a low level of affordability".⁸⁶ Still, we do have to admit that financial costs and the risk of litigation in civil proceedings, to some extent, determine in Finland who has, and who is being denied, access to court. Those who cannot afford to sue or to defend themselves are likely to be excluded from the litigation system.⁸⁷

⁷⁸ That concerns consumer disputes. See Viitanen (2011), p. 36. It is not an extremely attractive idea to bring, e.g., a case concerning purchase of housing to the Consumer Disputes Board where there are long delays and a risk that the opposing party does not obey the recommendation of the board.

⁷⁹ According to the information gained from the websites of the Parliamentary Ombudsman 5 002, complaints were decided in the office of the Parliamentary Ombudsman in 2012.

⁸⁰ Ervasti (2002), p. 596.

⁸¹ Haapaniemi (2002), p. 614.

⁸² Haapaniemi (2002), p. 614.

⁸³ Ervasti (1997a), pp. 14–15. According to the statistics, private people have not been very successful in trials against companies.

⁸⁴ Ervasti (1997a), pp. 116 and 162; Ervasti (2005), pp. 49–52; and Ervasti (2009c), p. 13. Compared to the past, individual people as plaintiffs won their disputes in 2008 seldom.

⁸⁵ Ervasti (2009c), pp. 14–15. In trials initiated by companies against private people, companies have won four out of five cases.

⁸⁶ Hodges et al. (2010), p. 5.

⁸⁷ Reimann (2011), p. 4.

12.4 Access to Court

12.4.1 General Principles

One of the purposes of legislation and legal institutions is to provide people, irrespective of their economic status,⁸⁸ legal protection when they face judicial problems. According to the Constitution of Finland⁸⁹ Section 21, “Everyone has the right to have his or her case dealt with appropriately and without undue delay by a legally competent court of law or other authority, as well as to have a decision pertaining to his or her rights or obligations reviewed by a court of law or other independent organ for the administration of justice”. The right to have his or her case dealt by a legally competent court of law or other authority and the right to have a decision reviewed by a court of law or other independent organ for the administration of justice require that there is an access to court.⁹⁰

Access to court is also one of the components of the right to fair trial protected by Article 6⁹¹ of the European Convention of Human Rights. The text of the Convention does not contain reference to the right to access the court.⁹² However, the European Court of Human Rights has confirmed that in its judgment in *Golder v. The United Kingdom*,⁹³ where it held that Article 6 “secures to everyone the right to have any claim related to his civil rights and obligations brought before a court”.

The right to access to court is not an absolute right. Some limitations may be compatible with the Convention if they have a legitimate purpose and if they are proportional to the goal they aim at. The European Court of Human Rights has, e.g., found in its judgment in *Kreuz v. Poland*⁹⁴ that excessive court fee and the refusal of the court to grant exemption in violation of the applicant’s right to access to court. The court has stressed that the domestic authorities had failed to secure a proper balance between the interest of the state in collecting court fees and the

⁸⁸ Lindblom (2002), p. 630. The problem in Finland and Sweden has been that only the very rich or very poor have had an opportunity to bring a suit to a court. Those too wealthy for subsidised legal aid but not wealthy enough to be able to self-finance civil litigation have had more difficulties with bringing a suit to court. See Tuil and Visscher (2010), p. 176, where the latter group is called a sandwich class.

⁸⁹ The Constitution of Finland entered into force on March 1 2000 following the tradition that had been adopted in 1995, when the system of fundamental rights was reformed. See Viljanen (1996), pp. 788–815, about fundamental rights and human rights.

⁹⁰ Leppänen (1996), p. 243; Ervo (2000), p. 1087; and Tuori (2000), p. 1058.

⁹¹ Article 6.1 runs as follows: In the determination of his civil rights and obligations or of any criminal charge against him, everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an independent and impartial tribunal established by law.

⁹² Ervo (2000), p. 1088.

⁹³ Application no. 4451/70, the date of judgment 21 February 1975.

⁹⁴ Application no. 28249/95, the date of judgment 19 June 2001.

interest of the applicant in bringing his claim to the courts, as there was no evidence of the applicant's ability to pay.

Although the right to access to court is not an absolute right, the right is however practical and effective, not theoretical and illusory.⁹⁵ In some cases, states' obligations under Article 6 may require the state to even take some positive steps in order to secure an effective right to access to court to everyone.⁹⁶ In those circumstances, the state may not remain passive. That has been expressed in the European Court of Human Right's judgment in *Airey v. Ireland*,⁹⁷ where the court held that the state had to provide free legal assistance if legal representation was mandatory under the domestic law or because of the complexity of the procedure of the case.⁹⁸

12.4.2 The Relationship to the Problems Concerning Legal Costs

As presented before, there was in 1999 a reform the purpose of which was to keep the amount of costs at a bearable level. At the same time, there was among some other things a reform the purpose of which was to allow the court to make the compensation of legal costs equitable to enable the court to produce a just result. Due to that, a new chapter 21, section 8b of the Code of Judicial Procedure was enacted. It runs as follows: "If, in view of the circumstances giving rise to the proceedings, the situation of the parties of the significant of the issue, and taking all aspects of the case into account, it would be manifestly unreasonable to render one party liable for the legal costs of the other, the court may on its own motion reduce the payment liability of the party".

Despite the fact that the court, to some degree,⁹⁹ has discretion over the award of costs in cases where it is reasonable for the loser to defend a case and where the winning party has better economic resources, I personally doubt if the right to access the court is practical and effective. Chapter 21, section 8b of the Code of Judicial Procedure is far too open for different kinds of interpretations. It is almost impossible for private people to predict whether the court applies the rule in their case.¹⁰⁰ Furthermore, the Supreme Court praxis concerning chapter 21, section 8b

⁹⁵ Lindblom (2002), p. 629. It is not enough that "Justice is open to all, like the Ritz Hotel", like people used to think in 1800s England. The door must be open for all people. See also Ervo (2005), p. 119.

⁹⁶ This was emphasised when fundamental rights were reformed in Finland.

⁹⁷ Application no. 6289/73, the date of judgment 9 October 1979.

⁹⁸ Cappelletti and Garth (1981), p. 15. Ireland could have satisfied the right of access either by the extension of legal aid or by simplification of the procedures required for a matrimonial separation.

⁹⁹ Pursuant to the legislative preparatory works, it is possible to reduce the costs to zero. See also Haapaniemi (2009), p. 47.

¹⁰⁰ Viitanen (2006), p. 622.

of the Code of Judicial Procedure is very scarce, which makes it even more difficult for private people to know if the legal costs of the opposing party can be made equitable in case the private people loses the case. On the other hand, chapter 21, section 8b of the Code of Judicial Procedure can be applied only if all conditions required by the rule are at hand simultaneously.¹⁰¹ The incapability of bearing costs does not necessarily mean that the loser is automatically deprived of costs even if the costs are huge compared to his or her economic resources.¹⁰²

As described before, it seems that chapter 21, section 8b of the Code of Judicial Procedure has not radically improved private peoples' access to court. Private people, as presented earlier, fear negative consequences, such as unproportionate costs that are often unpredictable to them. That prevents them from letting their disputes be resolved by a legally competent court of law.

12.4.3 Conclusions

The courts and the judges have traditionally had an essential role in the judicial system of Finland.¹⁰³ The core task of the courts and the judges has been to provide private people legal protection by resolving individual disputes about private rights according to formal rules. The long-lasting development of excessive legal costs has occasionally forced not only supporters of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) but also supporters of the traditional court system to ask if the reformed civil proceedings with rules concerning legal costs is satisfying and if it can respond to the expectations of private people.

So far, it seems that academics have not been able to prove that alternative dispute resolution is absolutely superior to the traditional court system. There are no national studies about better access to justice concerning alternative dispute resolution. Neither are there national studies about more satisfying decisions made in alternative dispute resolution process or deeper commitment of private people to the decisions made in alternative dispute resolution process.¹⁰⁴ It is therefore inevitable that alternative dispute resolution can replace the traditional court system in Finland. To some extent, it may supplement it.¹⁰⁵ Therefore, it is extremely important, not only from the individual point of view but also from the point of the judicial system, that access to court is guaranteed even in the future.¹⁰⁶

¹⁰¹ See also Haapaniemi (2009), p. 47. The wording of the provision denotes clearly that it is meant to be applied only very exceptionally.

¹⁰² Halijoki (2000), p. 226.

¹⁰³ See Lindblom (2004) more about the theme from the Swedish point of view.

¹⁰⁴ Koulu (2005), p. 31.

¹⁰⁵ See Mnookin and Kornhauser (1979), where Mnookin and Kornhauser refer to the bargaining between the parties as occurring "in the shadow of the law". If there are no means of resolving the conflict in an unofficial way, the court proceedings is the only possible option.

¹⁰⁶ Tuori (2000), p. 1059.

It is obvious that the contemporary system does not encourage private people whose financial resources are too limited to take the risk of bringing a suit to a court. Legal protection can thus be guaranteed to only those people financially able to bear not only their own costs but also the costs of the opposing party. The others have to accept a decision not always satisfactory to them. This is an obstacle to fair trial. Due to this obstacle, access to court in Finland is in danger.

Justice is considered by many people as a principal virtue. To everyone, the idea of justice inevitably suggests the notion of a certain equality.¹⁰⁷ Unfortunately, difficulties and controversies arise as soon as precision is called for.¹⁰⁸ At general level, we have to consider if all the people taken into account must be treated in the same way without regard to any of their distinguishing particularities¹⁰⁹ or if the sufferings resulting from the impossibility in which people find themselves must be lessened in order to satisfy their essential needs.¹¹⁰ However, our consideration can constitute only an ideal towards which we may strive.¹¹¹ The concrete formula of justice is definitely bound to the different values and can seldom be achieved in practice.¹¹² This all makes cost shifting very challenging, not only for the legislator but also for the judge resolving civil cases with huge legal expenses' claims.

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¹⁰⁷ Perelman (1963), p. 12.

¹⁰⁸ Perelman (1963), p. 15.

¹⁰⁹ Perelman (1963), p. 7 and pp. 17–18. This conception is called to each the same thing. According to the conception, it is just that all should be treated in the same way without any discrimination or differentiation.

¹¹⁰ Perelman (1963), p. 8 and pp. 22–23. This conception is called to each according to his needs. According to the conception, those who form part of the same essential category are treated from the point of view of their needs.

¹¹¹ Perelman (1963), p. 12.

¹¹² Perelman (1963), p. 12 and 15.

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Chapter 13

Delays in Civil Proceedings: Comparative Studies Between Finland and Sweden

Laura Ervo and Amie Dahlqvist

Abstract In this chapter, we will compare the length of proceedings in Finland and Sweden. In contrast to Sweden, one of the big problems in Finland is delays in court procedures. In fact, Finland has received many violations alleging the country has violated Article 6 of the European Convention for Human Rights because of the delays, while in Sweden the same violations are far less. Interestingly, the procedural systems and main principles are almost identical in Sweden and Finland, which is grounded in a common history during an important period in the development of the Finnish legal judiciary. Therefore, it is poignant to ponder a reason for this factual difference—especially given that there does not seem to be any significant differences in resources. Our hypothesis on the main explanatory factors is that the reason might be, on one hand, in the different court culture and, on the other hand, in the recent developments in the Swedish civil litigation, the so-called more modern proceedings reform (EMR). In Finland, the recent solutions have been the new possibility to pay compensation for delays in the judicial proceedings and the possibility to request for urgent consideration of the matter. The tools used in Finland differ, therefore, from the Swedish ones. The named reasons and differences are discussed in this article.

13.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will compare the length of proceedings in two Nordic countries, namely Finland and Sweden. The comparison is extremely interesting and fruitful due to the common history and similar societal conditions of the named countries.

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We will start with a short presentation of the common history, mainly in respect of the judicial system. Thereafter, a review of present situation will follow, starting with the Swedish conditions. The specific topics examined in the paper are the judicial system; current legislation; current problems, according to statistics and cases; and, at last, their remedies.

13.2 The Common Judicial History in Finland and Sweden

Finland was a part of the Kingdom of Sweden from the thirteenth century to 1809, when the vast majority of the Finnish-speaking areas of Sweden were ceded to the Russian Empire (excluding the Finnish-speaking areas of the modern-day Northern Sweden), making this area the autonomous Grand Duchy of Finland. Despite of the fact that Finland was from 1809 on the autonomous part of Russia, Swedish laws were still valid in Finland and they were valid through the whole Russian period.¹ In 1917, Finland became an independent country and still those originally Swedish laws were in force also in the independent Finland. Today, for instance, the Finnish Code for Judicial Procedure is originated from the year 1734, when the Swedish empire got the new, important and still today famous codification called year 1734's law. This code is and has been valid in Finland continuously despite of the historical facts clarified above. However, there are only very few sections that still were valid in their original form, but the code has been reformed very many times, of course. Still, the reforms have always been partial, and the code itself has never been abolished as such, but it is still today called the Code of Juridical Procedure 1.1.1734/4. Despite of the partial reforms, the juridical proceedings are still based on the same background and main principles.

Finnish legislation is, in many ways, similar even with modern Swedish laws due to the fact that legislative cooperation was very active among the Nordic countries, especially before the EU era, and Finland has adopted many reforms that have been realised first in Sweden, especially if the Swedish experiences have been positive. That happened especially in the field of procedural law in the beginning of 1990s, when the proceedings at district courts were deeply reformed in Finland. Finland followed the Swedish example in many ways. However, just recently, the development has no longer been that identical and the latest Swedish procedural reform

¹ From 1890 on, the Russification was the prevailing policy and that era is therefore called period of oppression. The aim was to make Finland more Russian style and some exceptions were made even in the field of legislation with the result that the Finnish service protested widely and new system were not fully followed. However, these exceptions made in the field of legislation covered only some parts in legal order and the other part was still, even officially and formally, legislated by the Finnish laws only. For instance, the Code for Juridical Procedure has been valid without any breaks from 1734 on until today and still, despite of the different historical eras as a part of Sweden, autonomous part of Russia or an independent state. More information on the historical background of the Finnish civil justice in English is available for instance in Kekkonen (2009).

called the “more modern procedure” (EMR) has not been adopted in Finland yet despite of some discussion in the field. However, even the discussion and planning have no longer been that rapid and deep as earlier, and it seems to be very unsure if this latest Swedish reform will be copied into Finland at all or, if yes, when.

Nowadays, both Finland and Sweden are Nordic countries, as well as EU members, having also similar geographical location and conditions. Their society and culture are more or less the same due to their common history and geographical location. In addition, both are welfare countries with a strong economy.² Even these facts lead to the same result: the comparisons are easier and more fruitful to be done, as in many other cases. In addition, comparative studies are quite secure to do without big risks to compare not equivalent objects. The comparative studies in the field of delays in proceedings are extremely interesting because the length of proceedings has been a serious problem in Finland during the latest decades but, at the same time, the court procedures seem to work quite nicely in Sweden. Our purposes are to compare these situations and to find out some reasons to these differences. One of our hypotheses is if the EMR has had some effects in this sense or if the reason is just in resources, in different ways to work or in procedural system where in Sweden, for instance, some cases belong to the executive authorities, whereas in Finland they are solved by district courts.

The European Court of Human Rights has found dozens of violations in Finnish cases, whereas Swedish cases hardly exist. The reason for this difference can also be in different standards of applications—maybe Finns apply easily to the ECtHR, whereas Swedes are happier with their national decisions.³ At least the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) is widely known, especially among the legal experts and even the general audience, for instance, thanks to an active media,

² However, the recent economic crisis in Europe has different effects in Sweden and in Finland due to the fact that in Finland the currency is euro, whereas in Sweden the national currency still exists.

³ The search at HUDOC database (visited 2013-10-10) gives the following results: Judgments: 293 Sweden and 398 Finland. Violations of Article 6: 90 Sweden and 190 Finland. Total pending cases: 244 Finland and 194 Sweden. Applications decided: Finland in 2011 492 and in 2012 620; Sweden in 2011 2590 and in 2012 909. Applications allocated to a judicial formation: Finland, in 2011, 432 and, in 2012, 317; Sweden, in 2011, 1942 and, in 2012, 546. Based on these statistics, it is difficult to say if there are more problems in Finland or if Swedes just do not file a complaint. At least, there seems to be a huge amount of Swedish applications at least in some years even if compared with the amount of inhabitants. In addition, the Swedish applications have been decided quite rapidly, which can indicate that the cases have been rather clear and without real problems. In addition, there are double as many judgments covering Finland compared with Sweden even if the population of Finland is just 50 % of the population of Sweden. The same relation covers also violations of Article 6. The difference is almost 100 % and related to the amount of population, the difference is almost 200 %. All of that refers to the result that there is no lack of Swedish applications either but they seem to be inadmissible or otherwise clear and to be solved rapidly and they do not lead to judgments and violations that easily compared with the Finnish ones. Therefore, one possible conclusion is that the individuals from the both named countries do complain to the ECtHR but the Finnish applications are more successful, which means that there have been more problems in Finland covering fair trial and Article 6 of ECHR.

whereas ECHR and the decisions of ECtHR are usually not that hot topics in Sweden. Nonetheless, the Finnish situation has been so serious that the legislator has reacted by an act according to which a party has a right to get compensation in cases of delay and according to which some type of cases can be declared urgent matters.⁴

13.3 The Swedish Civil Justice System

The Swedish courts are mainly divided into administrative courts (*förvaltningsdomstolar*) and general courts (*allmänna domstolar*). The administrative courts deal with cases related to public administration. The general courts deal with civil and criminal cases and also various court matters. On top of that, there are several courts that are specialised, for example, on environmental or arbitrational disputes.⁵ The general courts consists of 48 district courts with about 2,650 employees, six courts of appeal with about 600 employees and the Supreme Court with about 90 employees.⁶ These courts serve about 9.5 million Swedish inhabitants.⁷

In the last 10 years, the number of district courts has decreased from 72 to 48 courts. One of the reasons is that a smaller court is not efficient enough and that it is too costly since it needs more resources compared with a larger court—it is simply more vulnerable because of fewer employees, and therefore it must be oversized. The district courts have 10–300 employees, which implies that there are still some quiet small district courts left. Interesting enough, statistics show that it is often the smaller courts that have the best results, both regarding the length of proceedings and the amount of pending cases.⁸

The civil justice system does not only consist of the general courts. Instead of taking the civil dispute to a general court, the parties can also choose to solve the dispute in a “private” arbitrational institute.⁹ This solution is common among large companies that want a fast process and a non-official judgment (and can afford to pay the more expensive proceedings).

Another possibility would be to use the so-called *summary process* and turn to the Swedish Enforcement Agency (*Kronofogden*), which handles cases of economic claims. The authority not only handles the recovery of claims but also

⁴ See Sects. 13.5 and 13.14.

⁵ For a review in English, see Ministry of Justice (2012), the Swedish Judicial System, available as PDF document on www.government.se.

⁶ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 26–35.

⁷ Statistics from the end of 2012, Statistics Sweden, <http://www.scb.se/>.

⁸ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 24–25.

⁹ See, for example, the Arbitration Institute of the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce (SCC), <http://www.sccinstitute.com/>.

takes decisions on applications for injunctions to pay. If the claim is non-contentious, the Enforcement Agency has the right to make an enforceable decision. If the claim during the procedure turns out to be contentious and the defendant has legal cause for the dispute (and the creditor so demands), the Enforcement Agency will submit the case to a district court. The creditor can choose between starting a process in the district court or in the Enforcement Agency, but the proceedings in the latter are faster and cheaper. That is, of course, only the case if the claim is non-contentious.¹⁰ The system of a special authority taking decisions on applications for injunctions to pay keeps the number of filed cases in the district courts down. This is important to have in mind when comparing the Swedish and Finnish civil justice systems. In Finland, the general courts also handle applications for injunctions to pay. Thus, it is complicated to compare the numbers of filed civil cases in the two countries.

13.4 Current Swedish Legislation

Sweden ratified the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) in 1952.¹¹ One cannot claim that the convention had any particular status in Swedish legislation until the early 1980s. What happened then was that Sweden was convicted in the European Court¹² and that the conviction led to a large increase of Swedish complaints to the European Court. Before this judgment, the general view in Sweden was that there was no need to assimilate the convention since there were not any cases of violation of human rights in Sweden. This was, of course, a simplification of reality.¹³ The conviction led eventually to the incorporation of the convention through an act¹⁴ that entered into force on 1 January 1995. It can also be argued that the number of following convictions against Sweden had a crucial role in the prelude of the incorporation of the convention.¹⁵ In 2010, the convention was also given a higher status through a new rule in the Swedish Constitution. The rule stipulates that no Swedish legislation can be issued contrary to the European Convention.¹⁶ Interesting enough, the Swedish courts have had a tendency to give the convention a somewhat higher status than the legislator

¹⁰The summary proceedings is regulated in the Act *Lag (1990:746) om betalningsföreläggande och handräckning*. See also *inter alia* Lindell (2012), pp. 135–138.

¹¹Prop. 1951:165.

¹²*Sporrang & Lönnroth v. Sweden*, 23 September 1982, Series No. 52, p. 190 et seq., 206.

¹³Nergelius (2010), p. 177.

¹⁴Act (1994:1219) on the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms.

¹⁵Bull and Sterzel (2010), pp. 94–95.

¹⁶See section 2:19 in the constitutional act Instrument of Government [*Regeringsformen* (1974:152)].

intended. Especially, the highest instances have been reluctant to interpret national legislation in a way that would risk a conviction in the European Court. To avoid future convictions, the highest instances have, in several cases, expressly stated that the convention has a specific judiciary status in the Swedish legal system.¹⁷

The Swedish civil justice system is based on a Code of Judicial Procedure¹⁸ (*Rättegångsbalken*), which was enacted in 1942 and entered into force in 1948.¹⁹ The old procedural code was mainly based on a written procedure, whereas the current code is based on *the principle of oral proceedings*, according to which the parties have the right to argue their case orally, all evidence (also written) must be presented orally to the court in a main hearing (trial) and written testimonies are not allowed. When giving their testimonies, the parties and witnesses must speak freely and can only as an exception read from a text. The principle is connected to the other two basic principles upon which the procedure is built: *the principle of immediateness* and *the concentration principle*. The first principle implies that only the claims, legal circumstances and evidence presented by the parties at the main hearing can be taken into consideration in the judgment. Only a judge who has participated during the whole main hearing can rule in the case. To uphold the principles of oral proceedings and immediateness, it is necessary to have a concentrated process in time. Thus, the latter principle implies that the main hearing must be concentrated to one day, or days as close to each other as possible. Otherwise, the participating judges (and parties) risk to forget what has been presented to the court. The aims of the three principles are therefore to ensure that the court has the best possible prerequisites to remember the material presented by the parties and to evaluate the evidence laid down before the court.²⁰

The Code of Judicial Procedure has since 1948 been subject to several supplements.²¹ Due to the development in society of new communication technology, among other things, some of the rules in the code that was based on the principle of oral proceedings and immediateness have become inefficient and out of date. Thus, the principles have somewhat been softened by new legislation (see Sect. 13.7).

Article 6 ECHR (right to a fair trial) stipulates, *inter alia*, that everyone is entitled to a fair trial within a reasonable time. In the Swedish Constitution, there has been, since 2010, a rule that stipulates that a trial shall be fair and held within reasonable time—i.e., a mere copy of the rule in Article 6. Although the rule was not expressly stated in the Constitution before 2010, it was effective through the

¹⁷ Danelius (2012), p. 39, see also NJA 2005 p. 462 and NJA 2005 p. 726, where the Supreme Court found that damages should be grounded directly on article 13 in the convention, in a case where national legislation on tort not gave the right to damages. See also RÅ 1997 ref. 65 and RÅ 2001 ref. 56 where the Supreme Administrative Court found that an authority's decision was applicable according to article 6:1 in the convention, despite the fact that national legislation expressly stipulated that these kind of decisions were non-applicable.

¹⁸ Act (1942:740).

¹⁹ Prop. 1942:5, see also the Act *Om införandet av nya rättegångsbalken* (1946:804).

²⁰ See *inter alia* Ekelöf et al. (2011), p. 11 et seq., Lindell (2012), pp. 118–120.

²¹ For a review, see Petersen, Chap. 2.

European Convention and other Swedish legislation such as the Code of Judicial Procedure. As an example, section 42:6 of the code is noteworthy to mention. The rule stipulates, *inter alia*, that a district court shall prepare cases with a view to their speedy adjudication. This rule entered into force in 1987 but was an unspoken principle also before it was expressly stipulated in the code. By the new legislation, the legislator wanted to emphasise the courts' responsibility of handling of the case and that a judge under no circumstances was allowed to let the case (unofficially) be held in abeyance in the hope that the parties, in an unknown future, would conciliate.²²

13.5 Swedish Cases in the European Court of Human Rights

During the last 10 years, Sweden has been convicted of violating Article 6 § 1 of the ECHR, which deals with the length of proceedings, in eight cases. Three of the cases were handled by the administrative courts,²³ one was a criminal case²⁴ and the others were civil cases handled in the general courts.²⁵ According to the judgments, the European Court assesses the reasonableness of the length of proceedings in the light of the circumstances. It also considers the following criteria: the complexity of the case, the conduct of the applicants and the relevant authorities and what was at stake for the applicants in the dispute. In the following, we will refer to three of the civil cases.²⁶

In the case of *Handölsdalen Sami Village and Others v. Sweden*,²⁷ the applicants were four Swedish Sami villages. In 1990, a large number of landowners in Härjedalen brought proceedings against the applicants. The landowners sought to obtain a judgment forbidding the Sami villages from using private land in Härjedalen for winter grazing of their reindeer without concluding a contract with the respective landowner. Not until April 2004, the proceedings ended when the Supreme Court refused the applicants leave to appeal. Both the district court and the court of appeal found against the applicants and ordered them to pay the legal cost of the landowners, approximately EUR 690,000. The European Court was

²² Prop.1986/87:89 *Om ett reformerat tingsrättsförfarande*, p. 192. The judge can take a formal decision to adjourn the case on special grounds, see *inter alia* sections 49:4 and 49:11 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

²³ See *Hellborg v. Sweden*, 28 May 2006, and *The Estate of Nitschke v. Sweden*, 27 December 2007, and *Wassdahl v. Sweden*, 6 February 2007.

²⁴ See *Lilja v. Sweden*, 23 January 2007.

²⁵ Webpage of the European Court of Human Rights, <http://www.echr.coe.int/Pages/home.aspx?p=contact&c=>.

²⁶ The fourth case is *Rey and others v. Sweden*, 20 December 2007.

²⁷ Judgment of 30 March 2010, no. 39013/0.

concerned that the case had come before three levels of jurisdiction and that it had comprised the examination of extensive evidence on the topic during several centuries on a large area of land. It had more than 500 parties. It was thus clear that it was a very complicated case. Moreover, the parties themselves had caused some of the delays, as they had made extensive submissions and procedural motions. Nevertheless, the European Court found, especially in view of the fact that the matter was of great importance to the applicants, that it was the responsibility of the courts to see to it that the proceedings were conducted expeditiously. There had, on the contrary, been unnecessary delays both in the court of appeal and in the Supreme Court. During 2000, there did not seem to be much activity in the appellate court. The Supreme Court took more than a year to decide a procedural question. During this time, the proceedings in the court of appeal was adjourned. The Supreme Court also spent 2 years before deciding to refuse leave to appeal. The court therefore unanimously declared that there had been a violation of Article 6 § 1 with regard to the length of the proceedings. The court awarded the applicants EUR 14,000 in respect of non-pecuniary damage.

In the case of *Klemeco Nord AB v. Sweden*,²⁸ the applicant was a limited company registered in Sweden. In June 1993, the applicant company sued a lawyer who had represented the applicant company in a lawsuit against another company. The applicant company claimed that the lawyer had been negligent while representing the company before the district court and the court of appeal. The proceedings ended in October 2000, when the Supreme Court refused leave to appeal.

The European Court considered that the process had lasted over 7 years for three levels of jurisdiction; that the case did not concern a complicated matter, but the case file was voluminous and therefore difficult to grasp, and that the applicant company was responsible for some of the delays when requesting several extensions of time limits. However, the court did not find that the applicant company's conduct alone contributed to the prolonged length of the proceedings. On the contrary, the court was of the opinion that there were periods of inactivity, in particular before the court of appeal, which were attributable to the national courts, and that their handling of the case did not promote its timely completion. The court therefore unanimously declared that there had been a violation of Article 6 § 1 with regard to the length of the proceedings. The court awarded the applicants EUR 2,000 for non-pecuniary damage.

In the case of *Tibbling v. Sweden*,²⁹ the applicant was a chairman of the board of directors of two private limited companies. In 1994 and 1995, a former business partner instituted civil proceedings before the district court against the companies claiming compensation for, *inter alia*, breach of contract. In December 1995, the former business partner also instituted civil proceedings before the district court against the applicant claiming economic compensation, alleging that the applicant

²⁸ Judgment of 19 December 2006, no. 73841/01.

²⁹ Judgment of 11 October 2005, no. 59129/00.

had incurred liability in his role as chairman of the board of directors for having taken various questionable measures in order to intentionally reduce the companies' net capital. In January 1997, the district court decided to adjourn the proceedings in this case pending the outcome of the case against the companies. In February 1998, the district court took an interim decision to sequester some of the applicant's property. The applicant requested in vain on several occasions that the sequestration order would be evoked. Eventually, by decision in March 2001, the district court lifted the sequestration order. The European Court found that the period to be taken into consideration had lasted at least 6 years and three months before one level of jurisdiction. It found that the main reason for the protraction of the proceedings could be attributed to the decisions to adjourn them pending the outcome of the case against the companies. In the view of the European Court

...when assessing the relevance and reasonableness of an adjournment of a case pending the outcome of another case, it must be taken into account what is at stake for the persons involved. Notably, if the adjournment of the proceedings has a serious impact to the detriment of the person in question, the progress of the case of which the outcome is awaited, should be monitored thoroughly by the court which decides to adjourn the proceedings...³⁰

Since both cases in question were assigned to the same division of the district court, the progress of the case of which the outcome was awaited could very easily and thoroughly be monitored by the court that decided to adjourn the proceedings in the case against the applicant. The European Court also considered that the proceedings in that case before the appellate court were still pending. In the court's view, the measure of a period of more than 3 years sequester property of the applicant, together with the adjournment of the proceedings, unavoidably had a serious impact to the detriment of the applicant. In these circumstances, the court considered that the length of the proceedings was excessive and failed to meet the "reasonable time" requirement. The court awarded the applicant EUR 6,000 for non-pecuniary damage.

13.6 Parliamentary Ombudsmen in Sweden

The office of the Parliamentary Ombudsmen (JO) was established in 1809.³¹ The main task of JO is to ensure that public authorities and courts comply with the laws and other statutes governing their actions. Traditionally, the JO is regarded as the people's protection against the powers of authorities rather than a part of

³⁰ Section 32 in the referred case, see also *mutatis mutandis Boddaert v. Belgium*, judgment of 12 October 1992, Series A no. 235-D, § 38, and *Pedersen and Pedersen v. Denmark*, no. 68693/01, § 46, 14 October 2004.

³¹ For a general and historic exposition of JO, see Ekroth (2001) and in English see JO's webpage www.jo.se.

parliamentary control.³² The public can prompt a complaint to start an enquiry within JO, or JO can initiate the enquiry themselves. JO goes on regular inspections to public authorities and courts around the country. JO has certain powers but can never change a criticised judgment or decision.³³ JO can issue statements or advisory opinions and also have the role of extraordinary prosecutor. Within this role, JO can initiate legal proceedings against an official who has committed a criminal offence.

In recent years, there have been quite a few complaints to the JO on the length of proceedings. In the following, we will give a review of the most recent complaints where the JO has criticised the handling of a civil case in this respect.

In a decision from June 2013, the JO criticised two judgments in a district court for having delivered a judgment more than 3 months after the date where the main hearing in a civil case had ended.³⁴ In the decision, the JO considered that section 17:9 in the Code of Judicial Procedure stipulates that a judgment must be delivered within a time limit of two weeks after the day of the main hearing's ending. Additional respite can be permitted if there is an extraordinary hindrance for the delivery. The rule is closely connected to the principle of immediacy: if the period between the main hearing and the writing of the judgment is too long, there is a great risk that something essentially will be disregarded, forgotten or inadequately evaluated. Since the main hearing lasts seven days and the judgment comprised 78 pages, it was, according to the JO, clear that there was an extraordinary hindrance for deliverance within the time limit of two weeks. Instead, the core issue was the time limit that would have been reasonable under these circumstances. In the present case, the district court stated that the case was not legally complicated but that the reason for the delay was that the workload in the court was very strained at the time. Against this statement, the JO argued that due to the fact that the main hearing was not continued the whole days during the period of seven days it was held, the writing of some parts of the judgment could have been prepared already during this period. The JO found therefore that the district court in this case would have been able to deliver the judgment within six weeks. The JO took no further actions in the case.

In another decision from 2007, JO criticised a judge in a district court for a delayed procedure.³⁵ A civil case was filed in September 2004, but the first preparatory meeting with the parties was not held until October 2005. According to the district court, the delay was due to the fusion between two district courts and the consequential problems in the organisation that had led to the fact that the administration had not booked the preparatory meeting in time. In the decision, the JO referred to section 42:9 of the Code of Judicial Procedure, according to which a district court shall prepare cases with a view to their speedy adjudication.

³² Nergelius (2010), p. 315.

³³ Nergelius (2010), pp. 313–316.

³⁴ Decision 11 June 2013, Dnr 5465-2012.

³⁵ Decision 2 February 2007, Dnr 3626-2005.

The responsible judge must therefore be active during the preparation. According to the same rule, a preparatory meeting shall be held as soon as possible after the defendant has submitted a written response to the summons. Moreover, according to the instruction for the district courts,³⁶ there must always be a responsible judge appointed in every ongoing case in the court. The JO stated that within this responsibility, it must lay that the judge takes appropriate actions in the handling of the case, as well as sees to it that these actions are taken within reasonable time. Regardless of the deficits in the organisation or in the court routines, a judge is therefore always responsible of upholding the rules set by the legislator. The JO took no further actions in the case.

In a statement from 2008, the JO declared the view about the responsibility of the chief judge of a district court regarding the courts' judicial tasks. On an inspection at a district court in February 2006, JO found severe deficits regarding several civil and criminal cases and errands. In 13 civil cases, the length of proceedings was between 3.5 and 6.5 years. The JO pressed charges against one of the judges for omission in several cases. The omission consisted of not having taken any actions towards a determination of the cases. The Svea Court of Appeal convicted the judge for breach of duty. The result of the inspection also led to the fact that JO decided to investigate what responsibility the chief judge of a district court have. The JO states that the chief judge is obliged to keep himself or herself informed about the situation in the court and to take necessary actions. But due to the principle of the judge's independence, there is a limit for what actions the chief judge can take against a judge. The cases filed are distributed between the judges through a random toss, and this system will secure that the court is regarded as impartial and objective.³⁷ Thus, if it would be necessary to redistribute a case, for example when the workload is too heavy, can the chief judge take such decision? JO answered the question affirmatively; even against the judge's will, the chief judge can redistribute a case. The reasons for the JO's conclusion is that this sort of intervention, if made on objective grounds, cannot be regarded as a violation of the principle of a judge's independence or the need to secure the court's impartiality. Moreover, the rule of independent and impartial courts is meant to serve the individual whose case shall be tried in a court. Thus, the JO stated, this decision can be necessary for upholding the individual's rights.³⁸

The last statement from the JO is an example of how a conflict between different rights according to Article 6 in the European Convention is solved. Our conclusion

³⁶ See §15 in the Swedish Regulation, Terms of Reference for the District Courts (*Förordning med tingsrättsinstruktion* (1996:381).

³⁷ According to section 11:2 of the Constitutional Act *Regeringsformen* (1974:152), the Swedish courts have an absolute independency. In article 6 ECHR it is emphasised that everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an *independent* and impartial tribunal established by law.

³⁸ JO refers to the Council of Europe Committee of Ministers. Recommendation No. R (94) 12 and to the Swedish Report *Kommittén om domstolschefens roll och utnämningen av högre domare* (SOU 2000:99).

is that the JO, when choosing between the rights, find that the risk of having a partial judge (at least if the decision of redistributing the case is based on objective grounds) is less than the risk of having a judicial loss by a delayed proceeding.

13.7 EMR: A Procedural Reform

On 1 November 2008, a rather substantial reform, called EMR, on the procedure in civil and criminal cases entered into force. The main aim of the reform was to create a more modern proceeding in the general courts that fulfils the demand of an efficient and purposive procedure and also is in compliance with the rule of law.³⁹ Through new rules in the Code of Judicial Procedure, it is now possible to let everyone in a trial participate through videoconference.⁴⁰ At the main hearing, the parties can also present legal material by referring to documents in the case and have wider possibilities to evoke written testimonies.⁴¹ These rules are a softening of the principles of immediateness and oral proceedings. As a main rule, the district courts must issue time tables and summarise the parties' positions in the case. The parties are, to a great extent, responsible to help the court in these respects.⁴² Another important change is that the system of leave for appeal in the court of appeal now comprises all civil cases and court matters.⁴³ The questionings during the main hearing in the district court are also recorded by video.⁴⁴ By the new legislation, the legislator wanted to clarify that the point of weight in the judiciary should be in the district courts. As a result, the audiovisual records from the district court are replayed at the main hearing in the court of appeal. The persons questioned are, as a main rule, not questioned again in the court of appeal. This implies that the court of appeal, to a greater extent than before the reform, will try the case on the same material as was tried by the district court. The role of the court of appeal has thus been somewhat changed towards a controlling function of the district courts' judgments.⁴⁵

There have also been other legislative changes in recent years, which have had an impact on the workload of the district courts. On 1 October 2011, the handling of certain court matters was transferred from the district courts to various administrative authorities. The reform was a step in the direction of refining the tasks of the

³⁹ Prop. 2004/05:131, En modernare rättegång—reformer av processen i allmän domstol.

⁴⁰ See Chapter 5 § 10 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁴¹ See Chapter 43 § 7 and Chapter 46 § 6 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁴² See Chapter 42 § 6 and § 16 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁴³ See Chapter 49 § 12 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁴⁴ See Chapter 6 § 6 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁴⁵ Government Bill Prop. 2004/05:131, En modernare rättegång—reformer av processen i allmän domstol, p. 1.

courts to judicial matters. The amount of filed court matters has, as a consequence, decreased during the years of 2011 and 2012.⁴⁶

In the following, we will give a review of the most important rules in the EMR reform and try to answer the question whether the rules have had the intended effects or not.

As mentioned above, all examinations and questionings during the main hearing must be audiovisually recorded. To protect the integrity of the individual, the record is classified, but it is only the picture, not the sound, that is classified, and the audiovisual record can be given out to the public if it is clear that the questioned person will not suffer any damages.⁴⁷ The courts have had fewer inquiries than expected to give out the records, thus had the workload in this respect not been more demanding.⁴⁸

When deciding the question whether a person shall participate through *video-conference* or not, the court must especially consider the cost and other inconveniences that would occur if the person must attend the main hearing in person. The court must also consider if the person has a substantial fear to participate in person.⁴⁹ Participation through videoconference is not possible if, for example, the main hearing regards a serious crime or if the testimony is the crucial or only evidence.⁵⁰ The possibility to have videoconference has facilitated the booking of hearings and has led to fewer cancelled hearings (in criminal cases, not in civil cases) and thus led to less work for the administration (since rebook of main hearings takes much time). On the other hand, the reform in this respect also implies more administrative work, for example to book a conference room and arrange the recording devices.⁵¹ According to the European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (CEPEJ), the use of videoconferencing is increasing in European judicial systems and that it is a foreseeable tendency that ICT⁵² will continue to be used in the judicial systems to increase effectiveness and quality. It is also foreseeable that new interesting solutions will be implemented since there is a trend towards rationalisation and an increasing use of performance and quality indicators in order to make justice more efficient. CPEJ states however that there is a need to develop norms in order to define the range of application of the new tools and govern their use since there are no European standards at this stage.⁵³

According to the district courts, it is quite common that the parties *refer to written material* during the main hearing. In civil cases, the referred material is summaries of the case (made during the preparation) and written evidence, among

⁴⁶ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), p. 23.

⁴⁷ See Chapter 43 § 4 in the Public Access to Information and Secrecy Act, 2009:400 (offentlighets- och sekretesslagen).

⁴⁸ SOU 2012:93, p. 94.

⁴⁹ See Chapter 5 § 10 in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁵⁰ Prop. 2004/05:131, En modernare rättegång—reformer av processen i allmän domstol, p. 95.

⁵¹ See The Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), p. 17 and SOU 2012:93, p. 263.

⁵² Meaning Informations and Communications Technology.

⁵³ See European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (2010), p. 128.

other things. According to 50 % of the district courts, the possibility has led to shorter hearings, but the other 50 % states that the time saved is marginal. It is also a fact that the time saved in the oral hearing must be compared to the time it takes for the court to go through the written material after the hearing instead of during the hearing.⁵⁴

Most of the district courts make a *summary of the case* in connection with the preparatory hearing. Several of the judges have stated that the work with the summaries is an extra burden for the law clerks and the judges. At the same time, several judges have stated that the summaries have had a positive effect on the procedure since they clarify the positions of the parties and thus have had a positive impact of the chances of conciliation. The summary can also be referred to in the main hearing and thus lead to a shorter hearing. Another advantage is that it can be a useful document for the judge who writes the judgment.⁵⁵

Regarding *time tables*, the general view among the district courts is that this system has led to more efficient procedures, *inter alia*, since the parties have been more active in the process.⁵⁶ Some courts have also stated that the parties have better possibilities to follow the court's summons within the time limit since they can plan their own schedules according to the time table of the case.⁵⁷

Through the reform, there is now an extended possibility to determine some of the criminal cases without a main hearing.⁵⁸ Most of the district courts have stated that the changed legislation has led to a substantial increased efficiency since the courts do not have to summon people to the court and thus can determine the cases more rapidly. More time can instead be spent to work with other (civil and criminal) cases. Another advantage is that there are also more rooms free in the courts for the booking of main hearings.⁵⁹ It may seem like a minor detail, but many courts struggle with the lack of space in the court buildings because of the increase of filed cases in later years—a crowded courthouse can also lead to longer proceedings.

The new rule of *leave to appeal in all civil cases* in the appellate court has had several impacts on the proceedings in the district courts. According to several district courts, it seems as though the request from the parties of having three judges at the main hearings has increased (a civil case can also be determined by a single judge). This change takes much resources, and it is more difficult to plan the proceedings since three judges must be booked. However, this fact has not been confirmed in the statistics.⁶⁰ According to several district courts, the parties also refer to more evidence and their written pleas are more extensive than before the

⁵⁴ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), p. 18.

⁵⁵ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), p. 19.

⁵⁶ SOU 2012:93, p. 100.

⁵⁷ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), p. 20.

⁵⁸ See Chapter 45 § 10a in the Code of Judicial Procedure.

⁵⁹ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), pp. 20–21.

⁶⁰ SOU 2012:93, p. 19.

reform. More questions are given to the parties and witnesses at the main hearing. Thus, the hearings have become longer.⁶¹

One of the aims of the reform was to clarify the roles of the different levels of judiciary. The judiciary point of weight should be in the district court. The main role of the court of appeal should be to review the appealed judgments and, if necessary, rectify them. The examination should be restricted to what is motivated in regard to the role of the court of appeal. The reform should also prevent that the majority of the appealed cases are once again exhaustively examined. By these procedural changes, the length of proceedings would be shorter, the cost would be reduced and the citizens' rights of a fast and efficient procedure would be upheld.⁶²

Directly after the enforcement of the reform, the court of appeals applied the rules of leave for appeal quite strictly, and according to a Government inquiry in 2012, leave to appeal was initially too seldom granted. In 2012, the application of the new rules had become more generous, but it still varied between individual courts of appeal, and it was not yet considered to correspond to the level envisaged by the reform. During the period January 2009–June 2012, the Supreme Court granted leave for appeal in the appellate courts in 60 cases, a fact that shows that the Supreme Court has a less strict view in the matter.⁶³ The Supreme Court has also expressed its concern that the appellate courts do not take their responsibility regarding precedent cases.⁶⁴ The Government inquiry seconds this view and emphasises the responsibility of the courts of appeal to ensure that cases involving precedent-setting issues will be examined in detail.⁶⁵

The new procedure for presenting evidence by playing back audiovisual recordings and holding additional examinations has proven to be successful.⁶⁶ The new technique has over all been satisfactory, and the new procedure has led to a substantial decrease of cancelled hearings. Between 2008 and 2012, the decrease in this respect was 77%.⁶⁷ During the same period, the length of proceedings in the civil cases has also decreased from 7.6 to 3.8 months, i.e. 3.8 months shorter.⁶⁸ The administrative work of summoning parties and witnesses has also decreased.⁶⁹

⁶¹ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2010), p. 21.

⁶² Prop 2004/05:131 p. 171 et seq.

⁶³ SOU 2012:93, p. 226. Regarding the criticism against the courts of appeal, see also Levén and Wersäll (2011) p. 27.

⁶⁴ NJA (2011), p. 843.

⁶⁵ SOU 2012:93, p. 13. The inquiry suggests that “*the court of appeal should be able to refer a precedent case to the Supreme Court within the framework of exemption review. The Supreme Court will be able to directly examine a precedent case when the court of appeal has refused leave to appeal, in other words without the Supreme Court first granting leave to appeal in the court of appeal.*” Citation on p. 21.

⁶⁶ SOU 2012:93, p. 19.

⁶⁷ SOU 2012:93, p. 241.

⁶⁸ SOU 2012:93, pp. 240–241.

⁶⁹ SOU 2012:93, p. 262.

13.8 Swedish Court Statistics

The goal set by the Swedish Government for 2012 was that the length of the proceedings in the main part of the civil cases (joint petitions for divorce excluded) should not be longer than *seven months* in the district courts and *five months* in the courts of appeal. In 2012, the average length of proceedings in the district courts was 7.3 months and in the courts of appeal, 5 months. The conclusion is that the district courts, in general, in 2012 were close to fulfilling the goals and that the courts of appeal in general fulfilled the goals.⁷⁰

The Supreme Court sets its own goals and did not reach the goal of duration in 2012. In the Supreme Court, the average length of proceedings in civil cases in 2012 was 9.3 months. The EMR reform has not affected the Supreme Court, and therefore the figures in this court are of less interest when examining the results of the reform. The figures in the Supreme Court can though be of interest when comparing the Swedish and Finnish lengths of proceedings. All in all, the average length of proceedings in Sweden in an average civil case in 2012 was 21.3 months.

Compared to 2008 (the last year before the eventual impact of the EMR reform), the length of proceedings has gone down. In 2008, the Government's goal was seven months in both instances. The actual length was 8.6 months in the district courts and 9.7 months in the courts of appeal.⁷¹

Although the district courts as a whole during 2012 fulfilled the goals, there are still district courts where the average length of proceedings is too long. The variation in 2012 between the district courts was regarding civil cases 2.0–9.1 months. The courts strive to decrease the variation between them; in a constitutional state, it should not matter in which part of the state a legal dispute is solved. One explanation to the large variation between the district courts is that many of the courts that have the shortest lead times also have more resources in relation to the amount of cases compared with the other courts. That is because they are small courts that need a certain lowest level of personnel to maintain judiciary.⁷²

There are also several other explanations to the variation between the district courts; the employee turnover has been oppressive in many courts (change of generation). Difficulty to recruit new personnel, especially judges, with sufficient competence has led to some courts having long-term vacancies in judge positions. Some courts have had unusual large and complex cases, which have taken many resources. They have also prioritised old cases before new cases. The courts themselves emphasise that large criminal cases, where two judges must judge,

⁷⁰ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 12–14. An important factor when estimating the length of proceedings in the courts is that the Government's goal is defined from without the 75th per centile. This implies that 75 % of the determined cases have a shorter length of proceeding than the length reported in the statistics.

⁷¹ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2008), p. 14.

⁷² See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 24–25.

take significant time from other cases and thus have a negative effect on the statistics of cases determined.⁷³

Regarding positive factors for reaching the goals, the district courts point out one factor as essential: the development of the inner organisation and the forms of how the work is performed. Another important factor to increase the efficiency is the special consultations that the courts have had with other authorities. The consultations have led to better external cooperation. To develop the forms of a more efficient way of working, there is an ongoing project (the *Erfa* project) that is focused on exchanging experiences between the courts. Depending on the nature of the problems in the specific court, there are also special actions taken towards these courts. In general, these actions involve reviewing the routines and forms of working and also reinforcement of personnel who focus on working with old cases to lower the amount of pending cases. There have also been resources put in the construction of a stronger and more stable organisation regarding the preparation of the cases.⁷⁴ *Inter alia*, reporting clerks have been hired to assist in legal research, to brief the cases and to propose judgments to the judges.⁷⁵

Between 2008 and 2012, the amount of filed cases in the appellate courts has increased by 8 %. During the same period, the number of determined cases has increased by 4 %. The number of pending cases has also increased during the last years but is on a lower level than in 2008. In 2012 leave for appeal has been granted in 42 % of the civil cases. In 2010, all courts of appeal stated that the legislative changes had improved the possibilities to reach the goals (leave for appeal in all civil cases), while in 2011 three courts stated that the legislative changes had impoverished the possibilities to reach the goals (audiovisual examinations in criminal cases), and in 2012 all courts stated that the legislative changes had either improved or impoverished the possibilities to reach the goals.⁷⁶

13.9 Conclusions on the Effects of the EMR Reform

According to the Government inquiry of 2012, the EMR reform has led to a higher quality in the handling of the cases in the district courts, especially regarding the preparation in civil cases. The overall impression is that the district courts clearly have been given better possibilities to an efficient and flexible handling that enhances fast and legally secure determinations. The new rules have thus implied a better adjustment to the demands and possibilities of today, which has led to a modernisation of the judicial procedure.⁷⁷ However, no certain conclusion can be

⁷³ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), p. 25.

⁷⁴ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 25–26.

⁷⁵ See the webpage of the Courts of Sweden <http://www.domstol.se/>.

⁷⁶ See the Swedish National Courts Administration (2012), pp. 28–30.

⁷⁷ SOU 2012:93, p. 260.

drawn regarding the positive trend on the length of proceedings. It is plausible that the EMR reform has had an impact in respect of duration, but there has also been other measures taken to make the proceedings more effective, and other reforms have decreased the workload of the courts.

Regarding the appellate procedure, the changed rules regarding leave for appeal, as well as the new way of presenting oral evidence, have implied that the parties have got a faster determination.⁷⁸ Another advantage is that parties and witnesses can be spared the inconvenience of being summoned to the court more than once—which is positive from the citizen's point of view. Although the reform has clarified the role of the court of appeal, the situation is still not satisfying. When deciding on the question of leave for appeal, the courts of appeal must take their responsibility to examine the cases thoroughly regarding precedent-setting issues. Otherwise, the Supreme Court will have difficulties to satisfactorily carry out its function, namely to give precedents.

13.10 The Finnish Civil Justice System and the Courts

The Finnish civil justice system⁷⁹ is very similar to the Swedish one. Earlier, there were 51 district courts in Finland, but since 1 January 2010, only 27 are left.⁸⁰ The trend has been towards bigger units to cut the costs and to intensify the work. There are still plans to reduce the amount of district courts in Finland.⁸¹ According to the Code of Judicial Procedure, the district of a district court is constituted by one or several municipalities.⁸² However, these units are nowadays geographically rather huge ones, and the same trend to intensify by bigger units seems to be continuing. Soon, we can even ask if the first instance court, which is traditionally called “district” court, really is a district court anymore.

A district court is headed by the chief judge, and other judges are the district judges. In civil cases, there are no longer lay judges.⁸³ In ordinary civil cases, the court consists of three professional judges. One single judge, however, has quite wide competence to make decisions even alone. Therefore, the most common composition in civil cases is just one legally trained judge, but the more complicated civil cases are decided by three professional judges. The cases are decided either in a session where the parties are summoned to or in chambers where decision

⁷⁸ SOU 2012:93, p. 262, see also Levén and Wersäll (2011), p. 27.

⁷⁹ More information on the topic in English, for instance, in Hämäläinen (2009) and <http://oikeus.fi/8108.htm>, visited 10.09.2013.

⁸⁰ www.oikeus.fi/15954.htm, visited 8.10.2013

⁸¹ OMML 16/2013, pp. 24–25.

⁸² Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 3, Section 1.

⁸³ Before 1 January 2009, it was possible to have lay judges in some types of civil cases like in some family law matters even if in practice that composition was hardly used.

is based on documents. In simple cases, decisions can be made by notaries who are trained at the court and by trained office staff.⁸⁴ As we can see, the trend has been towards bigger units and lighter compositions of court, as well as towards lighter procedures in chamber to make the system cheaper and more flexible.

The general second instance is the court of appeal. There are still six courts of appeal in Finland, but one of them will be abolished in 2014.⁸⁵ The same trend to reduce the amount of the appeal courts will continue, and the aim is to have only four courts for appeal in the future.⁸⁶ All decisions by the district courts may be appealed to the court of appeal, but the court of appeal decides if the matter is to be taken up for further consideration. In civil cases, the leave for continued consideration is needed if the district court is against the party only in respect of a debt and the difference between the claim presented in the appeal document and the final result of the decision of the district court (value of the loss) is not more than EUR 10,000. Legal costs and interest calculated on the claim shall not be taken into consideration in calculating the value of the loss.⁸⁷ Leave for continued consideration shall be granted if

1. there is cause to doubt the correctness of the conclusion of the district court,
2. it is not possible to assess the correctness of the conclusion of the district court without granting leave for continued consideration,
3. in view of the application of the law in other similar cases it is important to grant leave for continued consideration in the matter, or
4. there is another important reason for granting leave.

However, leave for continued consideration need not be granted on the basis of subsection 1(1) solely in order to reassess the evidence, unless on the basis of the grounds presented in the appeal there is justified reason to doubt the correctness of the conclusion of the district court.⁸⁸

After preliminary preparation, the case can be resolved either after hearing or in written procedure. The courts of appeal have to organise an oral hearing if the oral evidence of the case has to be evaluated again or when a party so requests, unless the oral hearing is not necessary to decide the case and the case does not cover the credibility of oral testimony.⁸⁹

⁸⁴ Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 1, Section 2, Chapter 2, Sections 3 and 5, Chapter 3, Section 2, Paragraph 1 and Act of district court, Sections 4, 16 and 19 as well as Hämäläinen 2009, pp. 17–19.

⁸⁵ Section 1 in the Act of courts of appeal 281/2013, which will enter into the force on the 1 April 2014.

⁸⁶ OMML 16/2013, p. 25.

⁸⁷ Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 25a, Section 5.

⁸⁸ Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 25a, Section 11.

⁸⁹ Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 1, Section 3, Chapter 2, Section 8, Paragraphs 1, 2 and 3, Chapter 26, Sections 13–16, Act of court of appeal, Sections 3, 6 and 8 as well as Degree of Act of court of appeal, Section 13, Hämäläinen (2009), pp. 17–19.

The recent trend concerning the appellate courts in Finland has been to restrict the possibilities to apply. The reasons for these recent restrictions are to cut the costs and to make the court more effective. The appellate system has been under construction since the late 1990s. First, there were a wide discussion and proposals to adopt the leave for appeal, but it was not accepted by the Parliament that time, and the Ministry of Justice started to prepare the screening system that came into force in 2003. Due to several problems, the system was changed to the leave for continued consideration in 2010. In all these reforms and plans, the aims have been to restrict the amount of cases at the courts of appeal and to make the adjunction generally more rapid and effective by those means.

Finnish civil justice and court system have undergone major changes⁹⁰ since 1990s. In 1993, legislation entered into force to harmonise the system of general lower courts and to reform the civil procedure. The reforms of 1993 have divided the hearing of civil cases into a preliminary stage and a main hearing. Prior to these reforms, the main problem was the lack of preparation litigants and lawyers presented in the courts. Very frequently neither the facts at issue nor the disputed points of law were known to anyone before the first court hearing. This, of course, was the cause of many adjournments. There tended to be many sessions before the court could render its judgment, and it was also possible that the membership of the court might change in the meantime. Clearly, this was neither very rational nor any sort of guarantee of a fair judicial hearing. The reform of 1993 was intended to increase the chances of litigants obtaining a correct, well-founded, judicial decision while simultaneously streamlining the procedures involved. The lower courts were being equipped to deal with intricate cases more thoroughly than before and with straightforward cases more quickly than earlier. The underlying values were due process of law, on one hand, and the rational disbursement of resources, on the other. The reformed procedural system can be described as a “filter” system. The principal aim is to make it possible to decide the cases immediately when they are clear and ready for deciding. Only complex or unclear cases will have to go through the whole procedure. This is how the judicial power of the state hopes to dispense its resources in a rational way.⁹¹

However, the reformed civil procedure did not resolve all procedural problems in Finland. Even some new problems arose. Empirical studies reveal that legal expenses had increased and that civil procedure took somewhat longer than was the case earlier. This was due to a number of reasons, and the new procedure is not the only reason,⁹² but it was and is responsible for this kind of development as a one “player” on the field of jurisdiction. The re-reform in 2003 tried to solve the problems mentioned above. However, even after the re-reform the delays in proceedings have been a problem in Finland. The other big problem is still the costs.⁹³

⁹⁰ More information on procedural reforms in English for instance in Ervo (1995, 2007, 2009).

⁹¹ Ervo (1995), pp. 56, 58 and 60.

⁹² Leppänen (1998), p. 437.

⁹³ For a review, see Saarensola, Chap. 12.

13.11 Finnish Court Statistics

The amount of inhabitants in Finland is about 5.43 millions,⁹⁴ while in Sweden,⁹⁵ the population count is 9.56 million. In 2012, there were roughly 502 judges in Finnish district courts, nine assistant judges, 129 notaries and 1,000 office staff and 264 bailiffs—or, all together, 1,904 employees in the Finnish district courts. In all general courts in Finland, the statistics for 2012 are as follows: 706 judges, 177 referendaries, nine assistant judges, 129 notaries, 2,641 bailiffs and 1,203 other employees—or, all together, 2,488 employees. Compared with Sweden,⁹⁶ Finland seems to have invested much more resources in general courts related to the amount of inhabitants.⁹⁷ However, due to the differences in the amount of pending cases and especially due to the differences in jurisdiction,⁹⁸ it is very difficult to compare the real resources only with the help of the amounts of employees.

On the contrary, as to the spent amounts of money Finland seems to produce court services with minor monetary resources compared to Sweden. In Finland, the amount of budgeted public expenditure for the courts, the prosecution and legal aid was EUR 344,103,350 in 2010. Finland's population at the time was 5,375,276 people, which means EUR 64 per person per year. In Sweden, the budgeted amount was EUR 880,260,565, and the population of Sweden at the time was 9,415,570 people, which means that Sweden spent EUR 93 per person. In Finland, this expenditure for legal services meant, that time, 1.5 % of public expenditure, and in Sweden, 2.1 %. When this is related to gross national product (GNP), the level in Finland was 0.13 % of the GNP and 0.15 % in Sweden. Only for the courts, in Finland was budgeted EUR 45.20 per person in 2010, while in Sweden the equivalent amount was of EUR 59.20.⁹⁹

⁹⁴ <http://vrk.fi/default.aspx?docid=6890&site=3&id=0>, visited 2013-03-18.

⁹⁵ http://www.scb.se/Pages/Product___25785.aspx, visited 2013-03-18.

⁹⁶ See Sect. 13.8.

⁹⁷ Professor Jyrki Virolainen has got similar results when he compared the effectivity of the courts of appeal in Finland and in Sweden. See <http://jyrkivirolainen.blogspot.fi/2009/11/189-hovioikeusprosessin-uudistaminen.html>, visited 2013-10-09.

⁹⁸ For instance, the undisputed debt cases belong into the general courts jurisdiction in Finland whereas in Sweden they are decided by executive authorities. There are also differences in petitionary matters and civil cases. For instance, in Finland many family law issues are petitionary matters whereas in Sweden they are normal civil cases. The Swedish statistics do not cover even bankruptcy cases, which are included in the Finnish statistics. Therefore, the statistics are not comparable as such. Due to the economic crisis the amount of debt cases has become much higher and therefore the total amount of civil cases is higher than before. In Finland those debt cases belong into the jurisdiction of general courts, whereas in Sweden the executive authorities take care of them. This is the main reason which makes comparisons between statistics difficult. Sixty-four per cent of Finnish civil cases were namely debt cases even if not all of them undisputed ones. Therefore, most of the Finnish civil cases belong to the executive authorities in Sweden. About statistics see http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

⁹⁹ Autio (2014), pp. 269–290 and European judicial systems CEPEJ (2012), pp. 13, 20, 26–28.

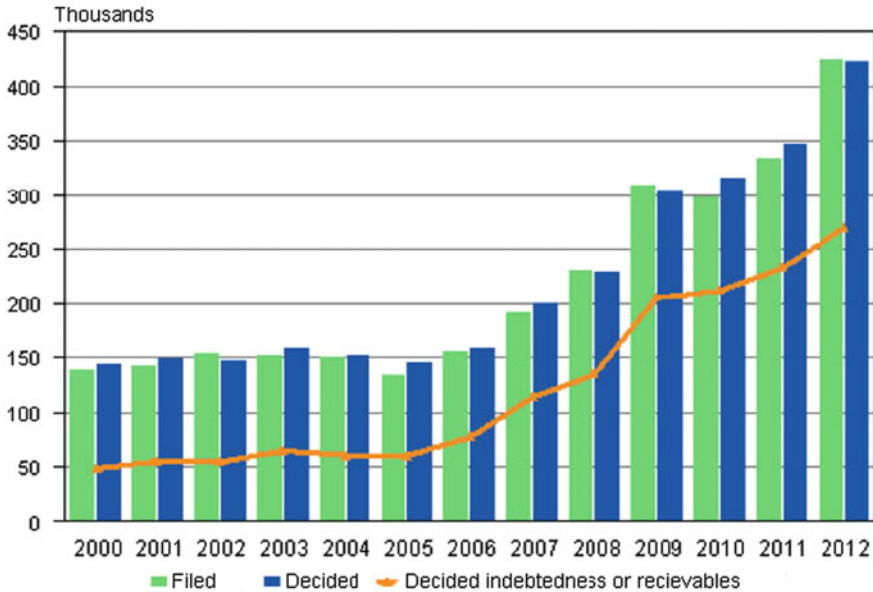


Fig. 13.1 Civil law cases in the district courts 2000–2012 (https://www.tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-10)

In 2012, there were about 425,000 filed civil cases at the Finnish district courts, and 469,000 cases were decided by a final decision. The latter amount had increased about 23 %, compared with the year 2011 (see Fig. 13.1, Tables 13.1 and 13.2).¹⁰⁰

In 2012 the average length of proceedings in all civil cases at all Finnish district courts was 2.3 months, whereas in 2011 it had been 2.5 months.¹⁰¹

In 84 % of all civil cases that the district courts decided according to lawsuit, 98 % of them were judgments by default. All of that defers to the fact that the undisputed civil cases are the most loading group at district courts. However, most of them are decided in written preparation, which means they do not take exceptional amounts of resources. The average of the length of the proceedings in all civil cases that were decided in written preparation was 2.2 months, whereas in all civil cases that needed the main hearing the average was 11.4 months.¹⁰²

In petitionary cases, the average time of hearing in 2012 was 5.2 months, whereas in 2011 it had been 5.3 months. In this group, the length of proceedings was the longest in family law cases like in divorce and custody cases. If the main hearing was necessary, the average length was 8.2 months.¹⁰³

¹⁰⁰ http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰¹ tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰² tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰³ tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

Table 13.1 Number of civil cases and petitionary matters, plus average processing times after stage of decision 2011 and 2012^a

Matters/decisions		2012		2011	
		Matters determined, total	Average processing times, months	Matters determined, total	Average processing times, months
Civil cases	Decisions, total	422,727	2.3	347,997	2.5
	Written proceedings	417,256	2.2	342,131	2.4
	Oral proceedings	2,386	9.1	2,469	9.4
	Main hearing	3,085	11.4	3,397	10.8
Petitionary matters	Decisions, total	46,249	5.2	45,514	5.3
	Written proceedings	43,632	5.1	42,910	5.2
	Oral proceedings	1,245	7.2	1,226	6.9
	Main hearing	1,372	8.2	1,378	8.0

^ahttps://www.tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-10

The courts of appeal resolved 10,200 cases in 2012, which is 7 % less in 2011. There were 2,000 civil cases and 1,700 petitionary cases at the courts of appeal, and a total of 9,800 cases were filed with the courts of appeal in 2012, which is about 5 % less than the previous year.¹⁰⁴

In 28 % of cases, the courts of appeal changed the district court's decision. In 30 % of cases, the courts of appeal did not alter the decision of the court of first instance, and in 13 % of cases only the grounds were changed. The grounds and the end result were altered in 23 % of civil cases.¹⁰⁵

At the beginning of 2011, the screening system was replaced by the leave for continuous consideration. In 2012, the courts of appeal did not grant permission for further processing in 1,570 cases, of which more than 86 % were criminal cases.¹⁰⁶

Thirty per cent of all cases were decided after the oral main hearing, which means 3,078 cases. This was 3 % less than in 2011. In 2012, two-thirds of cases that were decided in the main hearing were criminal cases.¹⁰⁷

Processing time of cases in courts of appeal has been reduced in the 2000s. The average processing time was 10 years ago, in 2003, nearly three months longer than the 2012 average processing time, 5.9 months. Especially, the cases that take more than 1 year at the court of appeal have been decreasing. In 2003, one-fourth of all cases took at least a year, but in 2012 only every ninth.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁴ http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰⁵ tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰⁶ tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰⁷ tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹⁰⁸ tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

Table 13.2 Decided claims and petitionary matters at the district courts sorted by matter 2007–2012^a

	2012	2011	2010	2009	2008	2007
Civil cases	468,976	393,511	360,658	350,541	273,748	242,756
<i>Claims</i>	422,727	347,997	316,126	304,928	230,148	199,876
Family law	1,592	1,477	1,396	1,400	1,361	1,232
Guardianship	1	5	6	1	–	2
Inheritance and succession law	199	179	211	179	190	180
Real property	1,173	1,173	1,280	1,210	1,111	1,047
Tenancy matters	24,475	24,363	24,811	25,918	24,916	25,734
Personal property	46,390	33,625	27,717	31,632	27,286	25,666
Intellectual property	166	186	168	127	98	83
Indebtedness or receivables	269,618	232,783	211,983	205,202	134,502	113,822
Service agreements, commitments, agreements on work results	72,671	47,579	42,453	33,316	35,025	26,144
Maritime law	25	23	23	29	30	28
Insurance contracts	135	125	137	110	120	126
Insurer's right of recourse	424	561	372	362	316	379
Indemnity liability	1,325	1,248	1,061	1,124	1,114	1,182
Associations and foundations	1,612	1,437	1,304	1,086	886	722
Title to attached personal property	1	2	4	–	–	1
Bankruptcy	286	349	337	197	204	263
Debt clearance or clearance proceedings	11	10	18	17	26	11
Security measure, eviction, judicial assistance	1,350	1,391	1,422	1,665	1,536	1,848
Other disputes	718	804	744	738	788	816
Land rights	555	677	679	615	639	590
<i>Petitionary matters</i>	46,249	45,514	44,532	45,613	43,600	42,880
Legislation regarding children	2,837	2,748	2,695	2,617	2,480	2,407
Matrimonial and cohabitee law	18,311	18,795	19,114	19,061	18,937	18,767
Guardian matters	8,567	8,129	7,504	7,516	7,426	7,442
Inheritance and succession law	1,623	1,545	1,517	1,455	1,524	1,546
Debt clearances	4,555	4,311	3,704	3,644	3,723	4,195
Company revitalisings	601	611	647	468	352	421
Other petitionary matters	4,734	4,417	4,504	5,955	4,871	4,104
Bankruptcy	3,267	3,285	3,260	3,314	2,747	2,492
Executorial matters	486	482	446	449	458	442
Enforcement matters	1,143	1,089	1,051	1,061	1,016	993
Matters of registered partnership	125	102	90	73	66	71

^ahttps://www.tilastokeskus.fi/til/koikrs/2012/koikrs_2012_2013-04-02_tau_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-10

The average processing time in civil cases was 6.4 months in 2012. In civil cases the average length was 8.5 months, and in petitionary matters the average was 4.2 months.¹⁰⁹

13.12 Reasonable Time as Constitutional and Human Rights

According to the Article 6 of the ECHR, everyone is entitled to a fair trial within a reasonable time. Finland ratified the Convention in 1990. In addition, the same right is included in the Finnish Constitution, section 21, from 1995 on.¹¹⁰

Despite of these statutes of high hierarchy, the delays have been a problem in Finland,¹¹¹ and Finland has violated Article 6 due to this fact many times during recent decades. With the key word “reasonable time”, the search in HUDOC database, which includes the case law of European Court for Human Rights, gives 24 violations against Finland when searched among English judgments given by the Grand Chamber (1) or Chamber (23). In this amount, there are all types of procedures presented, and the length has been a problem in the both criminal¹¹² and civil cases, as well as in administrative¹¹³ cases.¹¹⁴ In seven cases, the violation concerns civil cases. Sometimes the case has been delayed already at the district court or concerning the criminal matters in the police investigation. In some situations, the appellate procedure has been too long. Still, it has to be kept in mind that the total length of proceedings is always the dominating element when the reasonable time is estimated.

However, during the last 5 years, there are only three violations.¹¹⁵ The latter fact does not automatically mean that the length of procedure would no longer be a problem but that very many settlements have been made and the government has voluntarily paid the damages in the cases where the delay has been obvious.¹¹⁶ The other reason is that nowadays there is a national system to get damages¹¹⁷ and

¹⁰⁹ tilastokeskus.fi/til/hovoikr/2012/hovoikr_2012_2013-06-28_tie_001_fi.html, visited 2013-10-09.

¹¹⁰ For instance, Spolander has written on the reasonable time as part of the development on procedural human rights as such. See Spolander (2007), pp. 21–88.

¹¹¹ For instance, there have been written already three doctoral thesis on the topic during recent years—namely Spolander (2007), Vääänen (2011) and Määttä (2013)—even if dissertations in procedural law are otherwise not that common in Finland.

¹¹² This case-law in criminal cases has been analysed in Spolander (2007), pp. 253–322 and in Kastula (2009), pp. 66–82.

¹¹³ See Vääänen (2011).

¹¹⁴ See Ervo (2004), pp. 22–28.

¹¹⁵ [http://hudoc.echr.coe.int/sites/eng/Pages/search.aspx#{%22documentcollectionid2%22:\[%22GRANDCHAMBER%22,%22CHAMBER%22\]}](http://hudoc.echr.coe.int/sites/eng/Pages/search.aspx#{%22documentcollectionid2%22:[%22GRANDCHAMBER%22,%22CHAMBER%22]}), visited 2013-10-09.

¹¹⁶ See Määttä (2013), p. 61.

¹¹⁷ See the Sect. 13.14.

therefore there is no longer a reason or the possibility to complain to the European court in case compensation has been already paid at the national level.

13.13 Parliamentary Ombudsmen in Finland

Also, Finland has two independent supreme guardians of law: the Chancellor of Justice of the Government, appointed by the President of the Republic, and the Parliamentary Ombudsman elected by the Parliament.¹¹⁸ As explained in 13.6, the institution of the ombudsman originated in Sweden. Following the Swedish model, Finland created the post of Parliamentary Ombudsman in 1920.¹¹⁹ The tasks and tools of the Parliamentary Ombudsman and the Chancellor of Justice, as well as their powers, are largely the same. Both oversee the legality of the actions of authorities and officials.¹²⁰

The length of proceedings has been rather often on the table of ombudsmen.¹²¹ The Parliamentary Ombudsman and the Chancellor of Justice have for years been drawing attention to named problem in their rulings and reports. In addition, individual complaints exist. There were 45 hits found by the search with the key word *joutuisuus* (speed) among the decisions made by the Parliamentary Ombudsman. All of those hits do not cover decisions, but there are also reports and others. However, some important decisions can be found concerning the length in civil proceedings. For instance, in the case Dnro 343/4/09, handed down on 5 May 2009, the Parliamentary Ombudsman expressed his opinion on rapid and concentrated proceedings to the district court judge. The complaint covered two civil cases, which had taken over 3 years and the other 2.5 years at the district court only. In addition, the time between the preparatory sessions had been too long, taken the concentration principle and the need for rapid proceedings into consideration.

In the case Dnro 2882/2/05, handed down on 29 August 2006, the Parliamentary Ombudsman expressed her opinion in the case that had been delayed at the court of appeal. The case was connected with children's human and governmental rights. The Parliamentary Ombudsman investigated the case by her own initiative without any individual complaint.

The same search among the decisions of the Chancellor of Justice gave five hits, and all of them covered the police investigations and therefore criminal cases.¹²² In

¹¹⁸ The system is very similar to Sweden. See Sect. 13.6.

¹¹⁹ Parliamentary Ombudsman of Finland, The Summary of Annual Report 2011, p. 23. Available on the web: <http://www.oikeusiamies.fi/dman/Document.phx?documentId=in29012125858656&cmd=download>, visited 23.01.2013.

¹²⁰ <http://www.oikeusiamies.fi/Resource.phx/ea/kantelu/kenesta.htx>, visited 2013-10-09.

¹²¹ More information in Husa (2002).

¹²² <http://www.okv.fi/fi/ratkaisut/>, visited 2013-10-09.

addition, with the key word *viivästys* (delay), one more interesting decision is found. In the decision OKV/824/1/2007, handed down on 11 December 2008, the Chancellor of Justice reprimanded one district court judge due to the fact that he had not given summons on time and the prescription times were therefore exceeded even if there were no valid reasons not to do it on time and more rapidly.

In addition, ombudsmen have called the Parliament's attention to the delay problem and the Constitutional Affairs Committee has discussed the problem, together with experts in the Parliament, already in 2006 based on the annual reports of the year 2004 given by the Parliamentary Ombudsman and the Chancellor of Justice.¹²³

Again in 2009, the Committee for Constitutional Affairs at the Parliament paid attention to the same problem and asked the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to give a statement on the current situation, especially covering the Finnish cases at the European Court for Human Rights.¹²⁴

13.14 The Legislator's Improvements to Make the Situation Better

As explained above, the Finnish legislator has reacted by intensifying the proceedings both at the district courts and at the courts of appeal by different procedural means. In addition, court-connected mediation has been strongly stressed in the Finnish legislation and doctrine.¹²⁵

However, the legislator has taken two very practical and direct steps to solve the problem rapidly, that is, the compensations for delays in the juridical proceedings and the request for urgent consideration.¹²⁶ Still, the first of mentioned tools is mostly retrospective—despite of the fact that it may have some preventive effects as well, especially from the psychological and sociological point of view—and the aim with this tool is just to compensate at the national level and therefore avoid further violations of the ECtHR. The request for urgent consideration is, on the contrary, to prevent delays a priori.

What the compensation is concerned about is that a party may be entitled to a monetary compensation out of State funds for undue delays in the judicial proceedings. The objective is to compensate a party for the concern and uncertainty caused by the delay. Compensation may be paid in civil, petitionary, and criminal

¹²³ PeVM 14/2006 vp. and PeVM 16/2006 vp. The Committee discussed already that time the problem deeply and heard experts—among the others the author of this article—widely in four sessions.

¹²⁴ Määttä (2013), pp. 60–61 and the Statement of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs 21.10.2009.

¹²⁵ See Sippel, Chap. 10.

¹²⁶ The English information can be found of the web: <http://oikeus.fi/54440.htm>, visited 2013-10-10.

matters pending in a general court of law. The Act on Compensation for the Excessive Length of Judicial Proceedings entered into force in January 2010, and from June 2013 on, it covers even administrative courts.¹²⁷

The claim for compensation must be filed with the court, considering the main issue before the consideration of the matter has ended. The assessment of whether the judicial proceedings have been delayed is made with regard to the length of the judicial proceedings, as well as the nature and extent of the matter, the actions of the authorities and courts during the proceedings and the significance of the matter to the party. Also, the legal praxis of the European Court of Human Rights is taken into account.¹²⁸

The amount of the compensation is EUR 1,500 for each year during which the judicial proceedings have been delayed for a reason that the State is liable for. Under certain conditions, the amount of the compensation may be raised or reduced. The maximum amount of the compensation is EUR 10,000.¹²⁹

The other tool to avoid delays is the request for urgent consideration, which means that a party may request the district court to order urgent consideration of the matter. In the written request, the party must present the circumstances on which the request for urgent consideration is based. A matter may be ordered to be considered urgently in exceptional cases, when there are very important reasons to do so. The decision to order urgent consideration is made with regard to, among other circumstances, the duration of the judicial proceedings so far, the nature of the matter and its significance to the party. In general, the decision is made by the chief judge of the district court. If a request for urgent consideration is accepted, the district court must decide the matter without undue delay before other matters.¹³⁰

These means have not solved the problem, and especially the compensation means only that the State buys extra time from the parties, which cannot be an acceptable solution, and it will not solve the real problem either. It is just a tool to correct the situation at the national level to avoid the problems at the European Court of Human Rights.

¹²⁷ <http://oikeus.fi/54440.htm> and <http://www.oikeusministerio.fi/fi/index/ajankohtaista/tiedotteet/2013/05/oikeudenkaynninviivastyminenvoidaankesakuunalustalahtienhyvittaamyoshallintotuomioistuimissa.html>, visited 2013-10-10.

¹²⁸ The Act on Compensation for the Excessive Length of Judicial Proceedings, Sections 4 and 7 as well as <http://oikeus.fi/54440.htm>, visited 2013-10-10.

¹²⁹ The Act on Compensation for the Excessive Length of Judicial Proceedings, Section 6 as well as <http://oikeus.fi/54440.htm>, visited 2013-10-10.

¹³⁰ The Code for Judicial Procedure, Chapter 19 and <http://oikeus.fi/54440.htm>, visited 2013-10-10.

13.15 Conclusions

There are many violations of the European Court of Human Rights concerning Finland. Also, the ombudsmen, as well as the Parliament, have paid attention to the problem in single cases and in more general discussions. In addition, the Finnish legislator has reacted in many ways, especially by urgency provisions and the national compensation system in the delay situations. Additionally, empirical studies show that people appreciate the promptness on high but doubt the most from its implementation in practice.¹³¹ Therefore, it can be said that the problem of delays is an obvious one in Finland, and it has also been taken seriously by the Parliament, the Ministry of Justice and the other actors in the field as well, including the general audience. However, the problem still exists, and despite of many reforms it has not been solved yet.

The length of proceedings seems to be more a comprehensive problem in Finland compared with Sweden. However, even Sweden has not totally escaped the problems either.

The reasons for this difference are difficult to be found out unambiguously. The statistics are difficult to be compared due to the differences in the jurisdiction of general courts and in the classifications of cases. In addition, there can even be sociological differences, such as differences in mentalities and attitudes. Maybe, Swedes have more patience, appreciate their national system and are not that sensitive to appeal and complaints, whereas Finns have taken almost all cases to ECtHR. These are only speculations, and in footnote 3 we picked up some statistics that do not refer to this solution either. The other thing that is impossible to measure here is human effectiveness and these kinds of attitudes and mentalities among the court personnel and how this type of sociological issues cause delays and affect efficiency. Nonetheless, the real situation seems to be that delays are the Finnish problem not only due to the statistics or violations but already due to the fact that this topic has caused so much discussion and reforms in Finland. If people and professionals are not satisfied, it is a real problem.

The differences in resources can be, of course, one reason. At least, court services cost more for the state in Sweden compared with Finland. At the same time, it can be shown that in Finland there are more employees in courts compared with Sweden, if related to the amount of population. Therefore, it is very difficult to say if the reason could be in recourses or not. In addition, we have to keep in mind that the variation in jurisdictions between Finland and Sweden makes the pure comparisons impossible. For instance, the main group of civil cases in Finland that is undisputed debt cases belongs to the competence of the executive authorities in Sweden.

Even if the main basis of the civil proceedings is the same in the both countries, there are some differences especially covering the recent Swedish novelties, called a more modern trial. Finland has not followed that Swedish model in its reforms

¹³¹ Niskanen–Ahonen–Laitinen (2000), pp. 103–108.

until now, but the Finnish legislator has decided to wait for more experiences from the neighbouring country first.¹³² It is difficult to say if the more modern trial is the solution or reason for a better situation in Sweden, but this is the main difference between the Finnish and Swedish procedures just now.

Otherwise, the trend seems to be in both countries that the legislator tries to restrict the right to appeal to the second instance in all cases. In addition, in both countries, the trend is towards bigger and bigger units even when the district courts are concerned. The aim is to save the state expenses and to reach the maximum efficiency by these means.

Our result is that despite of the similar background and more or less identical legislation and court system, the delays seem to be a bigger problem in Finland compared with Sweden. The reasons can only be guessed. One of them can be in resources, the other in attitudes and mentalities and the last one in more effective court system and procedural rules. In this connection, the Swedish reform called the “more modern trial” can be one of the key responses to our research problem. However, a totally different question is if the more modern trial and this type of solutions are fair and acceptable in the context of due process or if the legislator just stresses the rapid procedure and the efficiency by knocking down the legal safeguards and otherwise more human procedure. It has to be kept in mind that the Swedish more modern trial has caused also a lot of critical discussions in the legal doctrine, and many doubts have arisen if the court of appeal only watches movies instead of investigating the cases and as to what kind of problems this type of too technical work can cause in the sense of juridical relief.

For these doubts, we cannot recommend the Swedish model to be followed in the other countries as such but several questions should be replied first like could the solution and the reason for the differences be in the more modern trial then based on the Swedish model? Is the Swedish legal order and court system just working better organisationally and procedurally? Or is the Swedish system more rapid but maybe not that secure or pleasant? How to balance these different aims and needs of clients in a fair way?

The other solution is of course more resources. However, it would be too optimistic to wish extra resources for Finnish courts to solve the problem of delays especially because the budgeted expenditure for the judiciary should be 25 million less until 2015.¹³³

Therefore, the only thing we can wish in the end is to use the filter system wisely by a legislator and a single actor in the field of adjudication.¹³⁴ To have wisdom to

¹³² OMML 69/2012, p. 9.

¹³³ OMML 16/2013, p. 12.

¹³⁴ In 2006, it has been suggested to intensify the Finnish civil proceedings by adopting a discovery system and by intensifying the pre-trial level even by other means. The third proposal made by prof. Virolainen that time was not to accept the time-based invoices by attorneys any longer but to legislate a limit for their fees by maximum rates for different legal actions. Virolainen (2006), pp. 581–583. However, these proposals did not cause further discussion among Finnish legislator or legal literature.

see which cases are simple and clear and which do not need to go through the whole proceedings. There are no hindrances to make this type of summary proceedings more rapid and effective and to get more resources for complicated and hard cases by this mean. The other solution is to take undisputed cases out of courts and to add them into the executive authorities' competence also in Finland. This shift can make the court statistics more beautiful but at the same time it should be kept in minds that the executive authorities are not free of charge either and that even the expenses of this action belongs to the state. In addition, this solution is not without of legal problems either. In Sweden, there exist some problems and discussion covering the legal safeguards especially in the situations where the dishonest creditors just send misleading or wrong invoices for instance to elder people who are not aware of their rights and the bailiff confirms the debts based on these false documents.

The more structural solutions could be the aim to develop the mediation and the other forms of the alternative dispute resolution in the future as well as class action to solve the access to court problems and maybe even the problem of delays.

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Chapter 14

Access to the Danish Civil Justice System: Recent Reforms and Current Challenges

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Abstract This paper explores the efforts made to provide better access to the Danish civil justice system, including schemes for legal aid and advice, representation of “diffuse interests”, changes in forms of procedure and the structure of courts and ADR. After providing an overview of the most significant of these efforts and recent Danish reforms, the paper identifies and discusses some of the significant current challenges related to providing access to the Danish civil justice system. The analyses suggest, *inter alia*, that there is a need for a comprehensive general review of the Danish schemes for legal aid and advice.

14.1 Introduction

Access to the civil justice system is an essential requirement for any legal system that purports to protect and guarantee legal rights. As the modern welfare state has created an unprecedented web of legal rights, including economic, social and cultural rights, the provision of access to the civil justice system has become an ongoing challenge. In the 1970s, a comprehensive international research project on access to justice identified three stages or “waves” of what was called access to justice movement:¹ In the first stage of this movement, focus was on making the legal system more accessible to the poor through new systems of legal aid and advice. Legal aid became a legal right offered by the welfare state. The second stage

¹ This research project (the Florence access-to-justice project) was led by Italian professor Mauro Cappelletti, and the overall results from this research project were published in four volumes (six books) in 1978–1979; see Cappelletti (1978–1979). See also Cappelletti (1981). Many countries have subsequently seen a decline in publicly funded legal aid schemes; see *inter alia* Regan et al. (1999).

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focused on providing legal representation for unrepresented or underrepresented “diffuse interests”, which included the (collective) interests of consumers and certain minority groups, as well as environmental interests. This could include the introduction of public interest litigation through class actions or group actions, which was fundamentally different from the traditional two-party litigation. The third stage was concerned with the legal system as a whole: attempts were made to simplify substantive law and to make dispute resolution procedures more accessible, as well as to create new and less costly alternatives to traditional civil litigation.

This paper will use these “waves” as a prism to explore the efforts made to provide access to the Danish civil justice system. The paper intends to give an overview of the most significant of these efforts as they currently stand after implementation of significant reforms enacted within the past 10 years and to identify and discuss some of the significant current challenges related to providing access to the Danish civil justice system.

Section 14.2 will focus on the topics of the first “wave”, i.e. the current Danish schemes for legal aid and advice, including the current interplay between public legal aid and private legal expense insurance schemes, which now play a significant role in Denmark. Section 14.3 will focus on the topics of the second “wave”, i.e., the efforts made to provide better legal representation for the above-mentioned “diffuse, fragmented or collective interests” in the Danish civil justice system. This includes, in particular, the recently enacted Danish rules on group actions, which supplement the traditional representation of such interests through labor unions and organizations of consumers, tenants, etc. Section 14.4 will focus on a number of broader topics covered by the third “wave”, namely the new simplified procedures for small claims and undisputed claims and the new rules on court-connected mediation. On the basis of this overview, the paper will identify and discuss some of the significant current challenges related to providing access to the Danish civil justice system (in Sect. 14.5).

14.2 Legal Aid and Advice

There is a long-standing tradition in Denmark for schemes to support the offering of legal advice through private legal aid institutions and through lawyers (often referred to as a *judicare system*).² These schemes are supplemented by a general obligation of administrative authorities to guide and assist individuals with their inquiries.³ As regards civil proceedings, a free legal aid scheme exists and, to a

²For an overview of the different Danish schemes, see law committee report no. 404/1966 (Betænkning om ændring af reglerne om fri proces og organisationen af den vederlagsfri retshjælp), law committee report no. 1113/1987 (Betænkning om advokatretshjælp, fri proces og retshjælpsforsikring m.v.) and Retsplejerådet (2004). A comparative (and historical) overview is provided by Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 22–35.

³This obligation follows from Section 7 of the Danish Public Administration Act.

certain extent, courts have an obligation to guide and assist parties not represented by an attorney.⁴ These publicly funded schemes for legal aid and advice are supplemented by private legal expense insurances.

The Danish schemes for legal aid and advice were subject to a comprehensive reform in 2007.⁵ Below follows an account of key features of these schemes after the reform. The aim is not to give a detailed account of the schemes but to highlight features that are essential to understand the current challenges discussed in Sect. 14.5, *infra*.

14.2.1 Legal Aid and Advice Offered by Lawyers

The Danish Minister of Justice provides financial support to law centers run by lawyers (*advokatvægter*), where anyone can get free basic legal verbal advice concerning any legal matter on an anonymous basis.⁶ There are currently more than 80 such law centers in Denmark and each law center is run by lawyers from the local community.⁷ The aim is that anyone can get this kind of basic legal advice for free from lawyers in their local community (which is referred to as “stage 1” legal aid).

The Minister of Justice also gives financial support to lawyers who, in their private practice and on an individual basis, provide legal advice beyond the basic advice offered at stage 1 (this is referred to as “stage 2” legal aid) and in connection with settlement negotiations (this is referred to as “stage 3” legal aid). “Stage 2” legal aid may comprise legal advice, participation in meetings and preparation of simple letters and application forms, including applications for free legal aid and pleadings in civil proceedings.⁸

The Danish district courts keep an updated list of those lawyers offering “stage 2” and “stage 3” legal aid, and this list is available from several institutions, including the district courts, public libraries and legal aid institutions run by lawyers (*advokatvægter*).

A person is eligible to “stage 2” and “stage 3” legal aid only if a number of requirements are met. First of all, only individuals with a low income and no insurance coverage are eligible for “stage 2” and “stage 3” legal aid.⁹ The low-income

⁴ See, in particular, Sections 339 and 406 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁵ The reform was based on a law committee report; see Retsplejerådet (2004).

⁶ See Section 323 of the Danish Administration Justice Act and Statutory Order no. 1085 of 22 November 2012 on public legal aid and advice offered by lawyers. For a recent analysis of how to better support these law centers, see *Advokatsamfundet* (2011).

⁷ See www.advokatvaegterne.dk.

⁸ See Section 5(3) of Statutory Order No. 1085 of 22 November 2012.

⁹ This “low income” eligibility criterion is defined in Section 2 of Statutory Order No. 1085 of 22 November 2012, cf. Section 325 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

threshold varies depending on the marital status of the individual and the number of children below the age of 18 living with the individual.¹⁰ In 2009, approx. 47.7 % of the Danish population had a low income, as defined in these rules.¹¹ As regards insurance coverage, see Sect. 14.2.5, *infra*. Second, a lawyer cannot provide “stage 2” or “stage 3” legal aid if it is clear that this form of legal aid is unlikely to solve the specific case.¹² Furthermore, it is a requirement for providing “stage 3” legal aid if the lawyer has reason to believe that this is likely to help the client reach a settlement of the specific dispute.¹³

In addition to these requirements, certain types of cases do not qualify for “stage 2” or “stage 3” legal aid. Firstly, lawyers cannot provide such legal aid to a suspect or an accused in a publicly prosecuted criminal case or to a business owner in cases related to such business. Secondly, lawyers cannot offer legal advice under “stage 2” and “stage 3” in cases regarding rescheduling of debts and in cases before administrative authorities, boards, etc.¹⁴ In the latter type of cases, the administrative authority is under a general obligation to guide and assist individuals with their inquiries.¹⁵ However, this guidance and assistance may be insufficient to satisfy the need for legal aid and assistance in such case; see *infra* Sect. 14.5.2.1.

The lawyers’ fee for offering “stage 2” advice is currently fixed at DKK 1,000 (including 25 % VAT), of which 75 % is paid out of public funds. The lawyer’s net fee is thus DKK 800, of which the client must pay DKK 200. The lawyers’ fee for offering “stage 3” advice is currently (2013) fixed at DKK 2,280 (including 25 % VAT), of which 50 % is paid out of public funds.¹⁶ The law commission behind the 2007 reforms had proposed to increase the amounts of these fees significantly, but this was not included in the reform.¹⁷

14.2.2 *Legal Aid and Advice Offered by Legal Aid Institutions*

The Danish Minister of Justice can also provide financial support to institutions offering legal aid and advice (retshjælpskontorer) provided that they fulfill certain

¹⁰ The thresholds are currently (2013) regulated by Statutory Order No. 1084 of 22 November 2012.

¹¹ Copenhagen Economics (2012).

¹² See Section 5(8) of Statutory Order No. 1085 of 22 November 2012. On this requirement, see, *inter alia*, Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 14.

¹³ See Section 5(4) of Statutory Order No. 1085 of 22 November 2012.

¹⁴ See Section 323(4) and 323(5) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

¹⁵ This obligation follows from Section 7 of the Danish Public Administration Act. More specific obligations exist in other legislation, including within the area of social law.

¹⁶ See Section 6 in Statutory Order No. 1085 of 22 November 2012.

¹⁷ See Retsplejerådet (2004), pp. 347–348, and Bill No. 132 of 30 March 2005.

requirements.¹⁸ The Danish Department of Civil Affairs has currently approved approximately 40 such institutions.¹⁹ Many of these institutions have existed for a long time and are often guided by idealism and based on pro bono work.

To obtain public funding, these legal aid institutions must meet certain requirements.²⁰ Thus, the institution must offer “stage 1” legal advice (as described *supra* in Sect. 14.2.) for free. The institution may choose to also offer “stage 2” and “stage 3” legal advice and may charge a fee for such advice, which must not exceed DKK 160. Most institutions do not charge such a fee. The institution must ensure that the legal advice is offered by persons who are sufficiently qualified to give such advice, and the institution must normally have office hours at least once a week.²¹

14.2.3 Costs in Civil Proceedings

14.2.3.1 Court Fees

The claimant must pay a *court fee* to institute legal proceedings unless the claimant is entitled to free legal aid (see Sect. 14.2.4 *infra*). This court fee consists of a basic amount of DKK 500. If the claim concerns money or its equivalent and the value of the claim (excluding interest and collection costs) exceeds DKK 50,000, the claimant must pay an additional DKK 250 + 1.2 % of the exceeding amount. Thus, if the amount of the claim is DKK 100,000, the claimant must pay a court fee of [500 + 250 + (1.2 % of (100,000 – 50,000))] DKK 1,350. The total court fee to institute legal proceedings cannot exceed DKK 75,000 (absolute cap). In certain cases, including cases for judicial review, this court fee cannot exceed DKK 2,000.²²

If the claimant has paid an additional fee as described above, the claimant must also pay a *listing fee* when the court fixes a date for the trial of the case, however no sooner than 3 months before the trial. This listing fee corresponds to the court fee paid to institute legal proceedings. In a case where the amount of the claim is DKK 100,000, the claimant must thus first pay a court fee of DKK 1,350 to institute legal proceedings and subsequently pay a listing fee of the same amount, i.e., a total of DKK 2,700. The listing fee may in itself encourage settlements; see *infra* Sect. 14.4.4.

¹⁸ See Section 324 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and Statutory Order No. 100 of 30 January 2012. In this paper, the term “legal aid institutions” covers only the *retshjælpskontorer*. It is noted that the Danish term *retshjælpsinstitutioner*, which may be translated as “legal aid institutions”, is often used to describe both *advokatvægter* and *retshjælpskontorer*.

¹⁹ A list of these institutions is available from www.civilstyrelsen.dk.

²⁰ For details, see Statutory Order No. 100 of 30 January 2012.

²¹ For further details on these requirements, see Section 1 of the Statutory Order No. 100 of 30 January 2012.

²² See Section 1 of Act No. 936 of 8 September 2006 on court fees (*retsafgiftsloven*).

14.2.3.2 Legal Representation

There is no duty to be legally represented in Danish civil proceedings, and the district courts have an obligation to guide individuals who are not legally represented by a lawyer.²³ However, the court may order a party to be legally represented by a lawyer if this is deemed necessary to properly deal with the case.²⁴

A lawyer's fee is not fixed by law, but the total fee must be *reasonable*.²⁵ Danish lawyers often bill by the hour, with typical hourly rates ranging from DKK 1,500 to DKK 3,500 (excluding VAT). A lawyer may also accept an agreed sum. If a client finds that the total fee is unreasonable, the client may file a complaint to the Disciplinary Board of the Danish Bar and Law Society. The question can also be tried in civil proceedings.²⁶

14.2.3.3 Other Costs

Other costs related to civil litigation comprise, in particular, fees paid to experts (for expert reports and expert witness statements) and compensation to witnesses. Expert fees are not fixed by law and can be significant. The amount of witness compensation is fixed by law and is often insignificant compared to the other costs of the case.

14.2.3.4 Distribution of Costs

Each party must, as a point of departure, make a provisional payment of the costs incidental to the procedural steps taken or requested by that party.²⁷ The claimant must thus make a provisional payment of court fees, his lawyer's fee and fees payable to experts engaged upon his request. These provisional payments can constitute a significant amount. It is common to use court-appointed experts in Danish civil litigation, and if the opposing party contributes significantly to increasing the costs for obtaining such expert evidence, *e.g.* by requesting the expert to conduct (comprehensive) additional investigations etc., the court may order such opposing party to make a provisional payment of part of the costs related to such expert evidence.²⁸

When *deciding* the case, the court will issue an order regarding the distribution of costs *ex officio*. If a party succeeds with his primary claim, the court will

²³ See Sections 259 and 339(4) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

²⁴ Section 259(2) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

²⁵ Section 126(2) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

²⁶ See *infra* para. 11.

²⁷ Section 311(1) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

²⁸ Section 311(2) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

normally order the losing party to pay the costs of that winning party, but the court may also, in special cases, order the opposing party to pay only a part of these costs or decide that the opposing party shall not pay any costs to the winning party.²⁹ If no party succeeds with his primary claim, the court may order one party to pay (part of) the costs of the other party or decide that neither party is to pay any costs to the other party.³⁰ When applying these rules, Danish courts must take into consideration any special requirements following from EU law, such as the rules of the Aarhus Convention in environmental cases.³¹

Except for lawyer's fees, the court will make this distribution of costs based on the *actual costs* incurred by the (substantially) winning party. This includes, in particular, court fees, fees paid to expert witnesses and witness compensation.³² Such costs are recoverable in full in so far as they have been necessary for the adequate conduct of the case.³³ Lawyer's fees of the winning party are, on the other hand, recoverable *only* by a *reasonable amount*. The presidents of the Danish High Courts have prepared guidelines for fixing this reasonable amount. Under the guidelines for ordinary civil litigation, the reasonable amount is normally fixed within the range of DKK 11,000–37,500 (excluding VAT) if the value of the winning party's claim is within the range of DKK 50,001–200,000. Special rules and guidelines apply in small claim proceedings and debt collection proceedings.

It should be emphasized that the notion of *reasonableness* in this connection (reasonable amount) differs significantly from the general requirement that lawyer's fees must always be reasonable (see *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.2). Whereas the reasonable amount in the above-mentioned example will usually be fixed within the range of DKK 11,000–37,500 (excluding VAT), it may be reasonable (in the *inter partes* relationship between the lawyer and the client) for the lawyer to bill his/her client a higher amount. As such, even a winning party may lose money when taking the case to court. This challenge is discussed *infra* in Sect. 14.5.1.

14.2.4 Free Legal Aid in Civil Proceedings

A party can get free legal aid in civil proceedings if certain requirements are satisfied. First, an individual with a low income and no insurance coverage can get free legal aid if there is a reasonable cause to litigate.³⁴ Second, any individual

²⁹ For details, see Section 312(1) and (2) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁰ See Section 313 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³¹ The Convention on Access to Information, public participation in decision-making and access to justice in environmental matters (1998). The interplay between this convention and the Danish rules on distribution of costs is analyzed by Pagh (2011).

³² See also Sections 318 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³³ See Section 316 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁴ See more specifically Sections 325, 327 and 328 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

can get free legal aid in certain special cases, including in cases of general public importance and in cases that are important to the individual's social or commercial situation.³⁵

A party who is granted free legal aid is exempted from the obligation to pay court fees, and all reasonable costs related to the case will be paid by the government. If the party who is granted free legal aid loses the case and is ordered to pay costs to the opposing party, the government will also pay such costs.³⁶

The court will assign a lawyer to the party who is granted free legal aid (court-assigned counsel), and the party can request that a specific lawyer is assigned.³⁷ Court-assigned counsel has a right to a *reasonable* fee and reimbursement of out of pocket expenses, including travel costs. This reasonable fee is calculated on the basis of the guidelines mentioned *supra* Sect. 14.2.3, but the court will also take into consideration the merits and outcome of the case, as well as the work involved. The fees are usually significantly lower than a lawyer would claim if the client had not been granted free legal aid. However, the court-assigned counsel is not allowed to receive payment of other fees and costs than those granted by the court.³⁸ For this reason, lawyers argue that civil cases with free legal aid are financially unattractive—and many lawyers never accept such cases; see *infra* Sect. 14.5.2.3.

A particular legal aid scheme exists for consumers if a complaints board has decided a case in favour of the consumer and the opposing party subsequently brings the case before the courts; see *infra* Sect. 14.4.1. Another particular scheme applies in certain cases about taxes and duties, including cases about judicial review of administrative tax decisions.³⁹

14.2.5 *Legal Expense Insurances*

Legal expense insurances were introduced in Denmark in 1970.⁴⁰ Today, approximately 90 % of all Danish citizens have some kind of legal expense insurance coverage as part of their general insurances, *e.g.*, as part of a home and personal protection insurance, a houseowner's insurance or an insurance against loss of or material damage to motor vehicle and boat.⁴¹ The Danish Insurance Association (*Forsikring & Pension*), a Danish trade organization for the insurance and pension

³⁵ See Section 329 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁶ See Section 331 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁷ See Section 334 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁸ See Section 334(5) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

³⁹ For details, see the rules in Chapter 19 of the Danish Act on Tax Administration (*Skatteforvaltningsloven*). See Consolidated Act No. 175 of 23 February 2011.

⁴⁰ See Gomard (1970).

⁴¹ See the information available on the webpage of the Danish Bar and Law Society here: <http://www.advokatsamfundet.dk/BrugForAdvokat/Priser/Raetshjaelfsforsikring.aspx>.

industry that represents a majority of companies, pension funds and general agencies providing such services in Denmark, has adopted a set of general insurance conditions for legal expense insurance coverage, which is followed by all its members.⁴²

The guidelines set out, *inter alia*, which disputes and what costs are covered. It follows from these guidelines that the insurance covers only disputes of a private nature, *i.e.* not disputes regarding business activities of the insured and not disputes about the insured's employment. Many Danish employees, and also many owners of small businesses, are members of a trade union or business owner union that usually offers legal aid and advice in such disputes; see Sect. 14.2.6, *infra*. Most disputes about taxes, domestic relations (family law), joint ownership and succession, as well as criminal cases, are exempted from insurance coverage.⁴³

Denmark has a comprehensive number of administrative boards and tribunals that may try many different kinds of disputes, including disputes between a private party and a public administrative authority, as well as several disputes between private parties; see *infra* Sect. 14.4. If the dispute can be tried by such a board or tribunal, the insured is under an obligation to first bring the dispute before such board or tribunal—and costs incurred in this regard are not covered by the insurance.⁴⁴

When an individual has insurance coverage, the insurance will cover costs related to taking the dispute to court or arbitration, with some important exceptions and restrictions.⁴⁵ One important restriction is that the insurance company will usually set an excess, as well as a maximum coverage. The excess is often 10 % (and a minimum of DKK 2,500), and the maximum coverage is usually set in the range from DKK 75,000 to DKK 125,000. Another significant requirement is that the insured person's lawyer must generally waive any claim against the insured person (except the value of the excess and costs exceeding the maximum coverage of the insurance) and accept that the lawyer's fee payable by the insurance company is based on the guidelines prepared by the Danish High Courts for calculating reasonable costs in civil disputes and small claim disputes, respectively.⁴⁶

⁴² See Forsikring and Pension (2007).

⁴³ For further details, see Sections 2 and 3 of the general insurance conditions for legal expense insurance (Forsikring and Pension 2007).

⁴⁴ Section 7 of the general insurance conditions for legal expense insurance (Forsikring and Pension 2007).

⁴⁵ For further details, see Sections 5 and 6 of the general insurance conditions for legal expense insurance (Forsikring and Pension 2007).

⁴⁶ For further details, see Sections 11 and 11A of the general insurance conditions for legal expense insurance (Forsikring and Pension 2007). The guidelines prepared by the Danish High Courts are mentioned in para. 14.2.3.4, *supra*, and will be discussed further in para. 14.5, *infra*.

14.2.6 *Other Forms of Legal Aid and Advice*

Many Danish trade unions and union insurance systems offer legal aid and advice to employees and self-employed persons. For the people covered, this is an important supplement to the schemes mentioned above. It should be noted that the trade union density in Denmark is relatively high (approx. 80 %).⁴⁷ Another important supplement is legal aid and advice by newspapers, magazines, internet portals, etc.⁴⁸

14.3 Protecting “Diffuse Interests”

The second “wave” identified by *Cappelletti* and *Garth* addressed the problem of representing group and collective—diffuse—interests other than those of the poor.⁴⁹ In Denmark, there are different ways to ensure representation of such diffuse interests. Within several legal areas, the legislator has authorized public administrative authorities or agencies to represent such interests. Examples include the establishment of a Competition Authority in 1955, an Environmental Protection Agency in 1972 and a Consumer Ombudsman in 1974. Since 1994, the Danish Consumer Ombudsman has been authorized to act on behalf of individual consumers in civil litigation, but so far this has not been a success in practice.⁵⁰

The Danish legislator has also set up several special boards and tribunals to deal with claims that may represent such diffuse interests. Examples include different types of complaints boards to deal with claims from consumers, patients and individuals who have suffered industrial injuries; see Sect. 14.4, *infra*.

Denmark has a long-standing tradition for establishing and supporting private associations, unions, organizations and societies, including (but not limited to) trade unions, environmental organizations and consumer organizations. Many of these associations and others have traditionally played an important role in ensuring legal representation for many types of *diffuse interests*, both in relation to legislation and civil litigation. Such associations and others often act as agent or a nonparty intervener (*amicus curiae*) for their members, and in some case specific associations and organizations have statutory legal standing to initiate civil proceedings in order to enforce certain public rules.

Whereas joinder of parties with similar claims may be possible, Danish law has traditionally not accepted group actions or class actions, where an individual litigant is authorized to represent an entire group or a specific class of persons in a particular lawsuit.⁵¹ Taking into consideration recent developments in an civil

⁴⁷ See Danish Ministry of Employment, www.bm.dk, and Statistics Denmark, www.dst.dk.

⁴⁸ Retsplejerådet (2012) includes an overview of some of these private schemes in Appendix 17.

⁴⁹ See *in particular* Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 35–48.

⁵⁰ This now follows from Section 28(1) of the Danish Marketing Practices Act.

⁵¹ For joinder of parties in civil litigation, see Section 250 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

justice in other countries, in particular Norway and Sweden, the Administration of Justice Committee (*Retsplejerådet*), a standing law committee under the Ministry of Justice, recommended the introduction of group actions (*gruppesøgsmål*) in the Danish civil justice system in a report from 2005.⁵² Based on this report, group actions were introduced in Danish civil justice as of 1 January 2008.⁵³

The rules on group actions can be used to pursue uniform claims on behalf of several persons.⁵⁴ The required uniformity pertains to the factual and legal basis of the claims, but the claims do not have to be identical. To initiate a group action, several requirements must be fulfilled.⁵⁵ The court must find that a group action is the best way to deal with the uniform claims in question and that the members of the group can be properly identified and informed about the case. A group action requires the appointment of a representative for the group (group representative).

A group action can be based on an *opt-in* or an *opt-out* model. Under the *opt-in* model, each member of the group must positively request to participate in the group action. The court may require each person requesting to join the group to post a security for costs. If such a group action is lost, each group member cannot be required to pay any amount beyond this security to the other party or to the group representative. This import feature thus limits (and clearly defines) the financial risk for group members of losing the case.⁵⁶

A group action under the *opt-out model* will comprise a group of people, as defined by the court, with an option of each member of such group to opt out of the group action. The opt-out model is available only if the court finds that the claim of each potential group member is so small that it is unlikely to be pursued individually and a group action based on the opt-in model is not a suitable way to pursue the claims.⁵⁷

In group actions under the opt-in model, the group representative can be a member of the group, an association or private institution (provided the group action falls within the scope of activities of the association or institution) or a public agency duly authorized to act as a group representative by law. Under the opt-out model, the group representative can only be a public agency duly authorized to act as a group representative by law. The Danish Consumer Ombudsman is currently the only public agency duly authorized to act as a group representative.⁵⁸

⁵² See Retsplejerådet (2005).

⁵³ These rules were introduced in Chapter 23 a of the Danish Administration Act by Act No. 181 of 28 February 2007.

⁵⁴ Section 254 a of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁵⁵ For details, see Section 254 b(1) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁵⁶ See Section 254 e(7) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁵⁷ See Section 254 e(8) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁵⁸ For details, see Sections 254 c, 254 d and 254 e of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and Section 28(2) of the Danish Marketing Practices Act.

In the Act, from 2007, which introduced group actions in Danish civil justice, it is set forth that the Danish Minister of Justice presents a proposal for revision of the rules in the parliamentary year 2010–2011.⁵⁹ Since the practical experiences with group actions were still limited, the Danish parliament in April 2011 adopted a proposal from the Minister of Justice to postpone this revision until the parliamentary year 2013–2014.⁶⁰ As of September 2013, only a small number of group action cases are closed, while some significant group action cases are pending.

14.4 Providing Easier Access to Justice

As the “third wave” of the access to justice movement, *Cappelletti* and *Garth* identified a more general and broad *access to justice approach*, which encouraged a wide variety of reforms aimed at providing easier access to justice, including reforms of substantive law (*e.g.*, designed to avoid disputes) and changes in forms of procedure and the structure of courts.⁶¹ Many of the developments identified by *Cappelletti* and *Garth* have Danish counterparts, but the development in Denmark has its own characteristics.⁶² The purpose here is not to give a historical account of this development but to highlight some important features of the current Danish civil justice system as it stands after significant recent reforms. This will form an important background for the challenges discussed *infra* Sect. 14.5.

14.4.1 Complaints Boards and Tribunals

Denmark has a long-standing tradition for providing easy access to justice through a large number of complaints boards and tribunals. These boards and tribunals play a vital role in providing easier access to justice.

One significant group of such complaints boards consists of the Danish Consumer Complaints Board (*Forbrugerklagenævnet*) and the—currently 19—other specific complaints boards that are approved under the Act on Consumer Complaints (*forbrugerklageloven*).⁶³ If one of these complaints boards has jurisdiction to decide a dispute, the consumer can file a complaint at low costs and, when a complaint is pending, the opposing party cannot bring the case before the courts.⁶⁴

⁵⁹ See Section 8(3) of Act No. 181 of 28 February 2007.

⁶⁰ See Act No. 272 of 4 April 2011.

⁶¹ For details, see Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 49–124.

⁶² For an overview of Danish law, see *in particular* Retsplejerådet (2001) and Retsplejerådet (2004).

⁶³ See Act No. 1095 of 8 September 2010.

⁶⁴ Section 3 of Act No. 1095 of 8 September 2010.

If the consumer is sued by the opposing party before filing a complaint to an approved complaints board, the consumer can request that the court refers the case to that board.⁶⁵ This system thus encourages using these complaints boards instead of the courts to handle most consumer law disputes. If the consumer wins the case before the complaints board and the opposing party does not object to the decision in writing within 30 days, the consumer can ask the enforcement court to execute the decision directly. However, any of the parties can also choose to bring the decision from a complaints board before the ordinary courts. There is a specific free legal aid scheme for consumers in such cases, which, *inter alia*, entails that a consumer can request free legal aid if a complaints board has decided a case in favor of the consumer and the opposing party subsequently brings the case before the courts.⁶⁶

Many other complaints boards and tribunals exist in Denmark. For some of these boards and tribunals, rules similar to those in the Act on Consumer Complaints may follow from other legislation. As an example, all Danish municipalities have set up special tribunals for disputes regarding privately rented housing and, unless agreed by both parties (the tenant and the landlord), any dispute must be brought before the thus competent tribunal before taking it to court.⁶⁷ As another example, a client must bring a complaint about a lawyer's fee before the Disciplinary Board (*Advokatnævnet*), which may approve the amount of the fee or decide that the fee be reduced or waived.⁶⁸ As long as this Disciplinary Board considers a case, the parties to the complaint case may not bring an action in the courts about any matter covered by the complaint, but when the Disciplinary Board has made its decision, either party may bring the case before the courts.⁶⁹

The complaints boards and tribunals usually decide cases on the basis of written statements and documentation from the parties. Many complaints boards and tribunals have a judge as chairman. The other members may include experts within the field and/or representatives of interests involved in such disputes. As an example, the Danish Consumer Complaints Board consists of a judge as chairman and representatives of commercial interests and consumer interests, respectively.

The Danish complaints boards and tribunals generally provide easy access to justice in a more simple, cheap and efficient way than litigation before the courts. According to the users of these boards and tribunals, the quality of decisions is generally high and, as a consequence, the parties often accept a decision from such boards and tribunals.⁷⁰ However, the written procedure used before (most of) these boards and tribunals has its limits, and some cases can only be properly dealt with in

⁶⁵ Section 361 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁶⁶ See Sections 4 e, 4 f, 4 g and 4 h of Act No. 1095 of 8 September 2010.

⁶⁷ See Section 107 of the Danish Rent Act.

⁶⁸ See Sections 146 and 361(5) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁶⁹ See Section 147 a of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁷⁰ See Retsplejerådet (2001), p. 118.

court (based on an oral hearing with cross examination of witnesses and others). Here, the new small claim procedure plays an important role; see *infra* Sect. 14.4.3.

14.4.2 Administrative Boards of Appeal and the Parliamentary Ombudsman

A party can normally bring any administrative decision against him or her directly before a Danish court of law, but in many areas the party has the option of first bringing the case before an administrative board of appeal, and, within some areas, the party *must* bring the case before an administrative board of appeal before it can be brought before a court. In practice, these administrative boards of appeal constitute a significant supplement to the Danish civil justice system. Examples include local tax appeal tribunals and the National Tax Tribunal (*Landsskatteretten*), the Social Appeals Board (*Den Sociale Ankestyrelse*), the National Agency for Patients' Rights and Complaints (*Patientombuddet*), the Environmental Board of Appeal (*Natur- og Miljøklagenævnet*), the Danish Complaints Board for Public Procurement (Klagenævnet for Udbud) and the Board of Appeal for Patents and Trademarks (*Ankenævnet for Patenter og Varemærker*), just to mention a few.

The Parliamentary Ombudsman (*Folketingets Ombudsmand*) is an important supplement to the administrative boards of appeal. The Ombudsman is elected by the Danish parliament (*Folketinget*) to investigate complaints about the public administration.⁷¹ The Ombudsman may also take up cases on his own initiative. The Parliamentary Ombudsman receives approx. 4,000–5,000 complaints annually.

It is a prevailing view in Denmark today that this system with a large number of administrative boards of appeal and a general court system is generally well functioning and should be maintained and that a separate court system to handle administrative appeals (as known, *inter alia*, in Germany and Sweden) should thus not be established.⁷² The relationship between administrative boards of appeal and the courts raises a number of important legal questions, but these questions are not regarded as particularly controversial in Denmark. They will therefore not be considered here.⁷³

⁷¹ See Section 55 of the Danish Constitution and the Danish Ombudsman Act (Act No. 473 of 12 June 1996 as subsequently amended).

⁷² This question was most recently addressed by the Standing Committee on Administration of Justice; see Retsplejerådet (2001), in particular Chapter 4.

⁷³ For an overview, see Retsplejerådet (2001), Chapter 4.

14.4.3 *Simplified Procedures for Small Claims and Debt Collection*

The Danish legislator has recently introduced new specific procedures for small claim disputes and debt collection. This follows a general development identified as part of the *third wave* in the access to justice approach and recently supported also by legislative initiatives in the EU, namely the European small claim procedure and the European Order for Payment Procedure.⁷⁴

The Danish *small claim procedure* applies to claims that do not exceed DKK 50,000 (excluding interests) or if agreed by the parties.⁷⁵ If the dispute raises particularly complicated issues or has a general importance for one of the parties, the court may decide that the small claim procedure shall not apply.⁷⁶ The parties can also agree that the procedure shall not apply.⁷⁷

The small claim procedure is a simplified procedure where the court is in charge of preparing the case for trial.⁷⁸ It requires permission from the court to present evidence, and a need for expert evidence is normally fulfilled in a more simplified way.⁷⁹

If a party is represented by a lawyer and (substantially) wins the case, the court may order the (substantially) losing party to pay costs to the (substantially) winning party, as described *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.4. However, since the small claim procedure presupposes that legal representation is normally unnecessary *before* the trial, the (substantially) winning party can recover a part of his/her lawyer's fee (if any) only in so far as it relates to representation during the trial—and the fee is recoverable only by a *reasonable amount* fixed in accordance with specific guidelines for small claim cases.⁸⁰

The Danish *debt collection procedure* can be used to collect undisputed claims that do not exceed DKK 100,000. The procedure has made debt collection in Denmark more efficient by providing a unified procedure for making a substantive decision regarding a monetary claim (comparable to a judgment) *and* enforcing such a decision by taking legal control of and selling goods (execution).

These new Danish procedures for small claims and debt collection generally appear to be well functioning.

⁷⁴ On special procedures for small claims as part of the third wave, see Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 66–99. For an overview of the recent developments of EU law, see European Commission (2013).

⁷⁵ For details, see Sections 400 and 401 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁷⁶ Section 402(1) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁷⁷ See Section 402(2) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁷⁸ For details, see Sections 406 and 407 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁷⁹ For details, see Sections 403 and 404 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁸⁰ See Section 408 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and *supra* 14.

14.4.4 Encouraging Settlements

Another important part of the *third wave* identified by Cappelletti and Garth is the encouraging of settlements.⁸¹ There is a long-standing tradition for this in Danish civil litigation, and recent reforms have emphasized this as an important policy goal.

Danish courts have an explicit statutory obligation to attempt to encourage settlement in civil litigation in the first instance (*forligsmægling*), unless it is a foregone conclusion that such attempts will be futile, and courts may also attempt to do this in appeal cases.⁸² Even though this obligation has existed for many years, little is known about how the courts—in particular the district courts—handle this obligation in practice.

Recent reforms have introduced a new supplement to this traditional obligation of Danish courts to attempt to encourage settlement in civil litigation, namely new rules on court-annexed mediation. These rules are analyzed in detail elsewhere in this book and will therefore not be discussed in this paper.⁸³

The Danish system of costs also encourages settlements by manipulating the economic incentives of the parties in civil litigation.⁸⁴ The Danish system of *court fees* does this by sorting out the listing fee from the initial court fee (as described *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.1): only half of the total court fees are thus due when instigating civil proceedings, whereas the other half (the listing fee) is due only if the case proceeds to trial. When this listing fee is due, *i.e.* at the end of the pretrial stage of the proceedings, the parties will generally have a much more solid impression of how the case will stand at trial, including its strengths and weaknesses, and thus a relatively better basis for predicting their chances of winning the case. The requirement to pay a separate *listing fee* to go to trial can here create an economic incentive to settle the case.⁸⁵

When issuing an order regarding *distribution of costs* (as described *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.4), a Danish court may also take into consideration whether one of the parties has offered a fair settlement.⁸⁶

14.4.5 Time

Time is a factor of essential importance in ensuring access to civil justice—often described by adages such as “justice delayed is justice denied” and “late justice may

⁸¹ See Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 61–66.

⁸² For details, see Chapter 26 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁸³ See the contribution by my colleague Lin Adrian.

⁸⁴ Compare Cappelletti and Garth (1978), pp. 64–66.

⁸⁵ See Retsplejerådet (2004), pp. 106–107 and pp. 244–247.

⁸⁶ For further details, see in particular Retsplejerådet (2004), pp. 262–265, and Section 312(3) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

be injustice". Under the ECHR, everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing *within a reasonable time*.⁸⁷ Recent Danish reforms of civil justice have emphasized that the courts play an important role in this regard.⁸⁸ Danish civil justice is thus based on active case management and use of time schedules.⁸⁹ If a party fails to comply with instructions and deadlines given by the court, the court may prevent that party from including new claims, allegations or evidence in the case (preclusion) and, in some cases, the court may dismiss the case or deliver judgment by default.⁹⁰

The time it takes to obtain an enforceable judicial decision in civil litigation differs significantly depending on the type of case. Thus, the average case processing time in the district courts (first instance) in 2012 was 11.6 months in ordinary civil cases, 10.9 months in private and commercial lease cases and 3.9 months in small claim cases.⁹¹ For those (few) civil cases that begin in the high courts in the first instance, the average case processing time in the High Courts of Eastern and Western Denmark, respectively, was 18 and 19.5 months in 2012. In the Maritime and Commercial Court, the average case processing time was 21.3 months in 2012.⁹²

Appeals of civil cases from a district court to a high court had an average case processing time in 2012 of 12.4 months (High Court of Eastern Denmark) and 11.1 months (High Court of Western Denmark). However, this includes small claim cases. Civil appeal cases from a high court or the Maritime and Commercial Court to the Supreme Court had an average case processing time in 2012 of 21.3 months: more specifically, it was 23.2 months in cases decided on the basis of an oral hearing and 15.9 months in cases decided on a written basis.⁹³

It follows from these statistics that the average case processing time is currently expected to be approx. 2 years if a civil case begins in a district court and is appealed to a high court, whereas it is expected to be closer to 4 years if a civil case begins in a high court or the Maritime and Commercial Court with appeal to the Supreme Court. It is noted that the district courts hear all cases in the first instance unless otherwise provided in the Danish Administration of Justice Act.⁹⁴ The Danish Ministry of Justice has recently made a public consultation about adjusting the rules on appeal to limit the caseload before the Danish Supreme Court.⁹⁵

⁸⁷ Article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights.

⁸⁸ See, in particular, Act No. 414 of 10 June 1997 (based on Bill No. 178 of 27 February 1997) and Act No. 538 of 8 June 2006 (based on Retsplejerådet (2001) and Bill No. 168 of 1 March 2006).

⁸⁹ See, in particular, Sections 353–356 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁹⁰ See Sections 358, 360, 362 and 363 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁹¹ Statistics from the Courts of Denmark, available at www.domstol.dk.

⁹² See "Embedsregnskab 2012" from the Maritime and Commercial Court, available at www.shret.dk.

⁹³ See statistics available at www.domstol.dk.

⁹⁴ For details, see Sections 224, 225, 226 and 227 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act.

⁹⁵ See Ministry of Justice (2013).

14.5 Current Challenges

The purpose of this part of the paper is to identify and discuss some of the significant current challenges related to providing access to the Danish civil justice system.

14.5.1 *Recovering of Costs in Civil Proceedings*

If a client, who is represented by a lawyer in civil proceedings, (substantially) wins the case, the court will normally order the opposing party to pay a *reasonable amount* to that client to cover the costs for legal representation.⁹⁶ The courts have specific guidelines for fixing this reasonable amount.⁹⁷ In practice, this amount is often significantly lower than the winning party has actually paid for legal representation in the case.⁹⁸ As a consequence, a litigating party who is represented by a lawyer may—and will often—end up losing money, even though the party wins the case, because only a part of his costs for legal representation will be paid by the opposing party.

This discrepancy between the actual costs for legal representation and the (usually smaller) amount recoverable if the party succeeds at trial can be significant, in particular, in complicated cases where a party may prefer highly specialized advice from expert lawyers within that specific field of law. A recent debate in the Danish media provides an illustrative example of this: a patient won a case against the Danish National Agency for Patients' Rights and Complaints and the court ordered this agency to pay DKK 180,000 to cover the patient's lawyer's fee. The law firm that represented the Danish government in the same case (*Kammeradvokaten*) required a fee of DKK 510,000 and explained that when fixing this fee, a 33 % discount had been provided—the government's law firm thus indirectly claimed to be entitled to a lawyer's fee of DKK 765,000.⁹⁹

This discrepancy has particular implications for parties with free legal aid or coverage under a legal expense insurance; see *infra* Sect. 14.5.2.3.

⁹⁶ See, in particular, Section 316 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act and *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.4.

⁹⁷ See *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.4.

⁹⁸ A lawyer's fee must be *reasonable*; see Section 126 of the Danish Administration of Justice Act, but this notion of *reasonableness* differs (significantly) from the *reasonable amount* fixed by the courts; see also *supra* Sect. 14.2.3.2.

⁹⁹ See, *inter alia*, the Danish newspaper *Politiken* on 27 August 2013.

14.5.2 *Legal Aid and Advice*

The Danish schemes for legal aid and advice (presented *supra* Sect. 14.2) intend to satisfy the needs for countrywide, well-qualified and accessible legal aid and advice.¹⁰⁰ A recent survey shows that the Danish dual system for offering legal advice (through lawyers and through legal aid institutions; see *supra* Sects. 14.2.1 and 14.2.2) has changed significantly since the recent reforms entered into force on 1 January 2007:¹⁰¹ first, the total public funding of legal aid and advice has decreased with 41 % from 2006 (where it constituted approx. 30 MDKK) to 2011 (where it constituted approx. 18 MDKK). Second, whereas the public funding of legal aid through *lawyers* has decreased dramatically (legal aid and advice offered by lawyers on an individual basis have decreased by 76 %), legal aid and advice offered by *legal aid institutions* have increased by 58 %.¹⁰²

This development has raised a concern that the recent reforms—which aimed to modernize and simplify the schemes for publicly funded legal aid and advice—have significantly harmed access to the Danish civil justice system.¹⁰³ Some significant aspects of this concern will be discussed below.¹⁰⁴

14.5.2.1 **Substantive Limitations to Publicly Funded Legal Aid and Advice**

Publicly funded legal aid and advice beyond the basic legal verbal advice (“level 1” advice) is unavailable for certain types of cases (as mentioned *supra* Sect. 14.2.1). This includes cases before one of the approved complaints boards (see *supra* Sect. 14.4.1), cases before an administrative authority except administrative appeal cases (see *supra* Sect. 14.4.2) and court cases regarding small claims and debt collection (see *supra* Sect. 14.4.3). It seems that, in particular, the introduction of the small claim procedure has significantly affected the use of the legal aid scheme through lawyers.¹⁰⁵

In these types of cases, a party is left with a general right to get guidance and assistance from the relevant complaints board, administrative authority or court.¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁰ See, *inter alia*, Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 4.

¹⁰¹ See *supra* Sects. 14.2.1 and 14.2.2.

¹⁰² See Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 26, and Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 23.

¹⁰³ For input to the recent discussions about this in Denmark, see in particular *Danske Advokater and Advokatsamfundet* (2011), Copenhagen Economics (2012) and Retsplejerådet (2012).

¹⁰⁴ Another current debate relates to some adjustments made in 2009 to the specific scheme (briefly mentioned *supra* para. 2.4) for legal aid in certain cases about taxes and duties, including cases about judicial review of administrative tax decisions. This debate will not be discussed here.

¹⁰⁵ See Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 43–45.

¹⁰⁶ See, in particular, Section 7 of the Danish Public Administration Act and Section 339(4) of the Danish Administration of Justice Act. See also Retsplejerådet (2004), p. 344, and Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 15.

The question is whether this is adequate to satisfy the needs for legal aid and advice. In this connection, some observers argue that these limitations seriously harm access to the Danish civil justice system for the disadvantaged,¹⁰⁷ first, because the disadvantaged often require independent legal advice to properly assess their legal rights. Second, the disadvantaged are often unable to take the necessary legal steps to properly protect their rights despite the general guidance and assistance offered by boards, tribunals and courts. A disadvantaged person may thus not be able to properly initiate a small claim procedure or a debt collection procedure.¹⁰⁸

“Level 1” legal advice is still available in these cases. However, it may require, at least, “level 2” advice (as described *supra* Sect. 14.2.1) to satisfy the needs of the disadvantaged for legal aid and advice. “Level 2” advice is today almost only provided by the legal aid institutions (see *supra* Sect. 14.2.2). This may explain (part of) the significant increase of the funding of legal aid institutions mentioned above.

14.5.2.2 Role of Lawyers in the Dual System of Legal Aid and Advice

The development since the recent reforms also have given rise to fundamental considerations about the relationship between the legal aid institutions and legal aid provided by lawyers. As mentioned, the role of lawyers in the dual system for providing legal aid and advice has diminished significantly since the reforms in 2007: public funding of legal aid and advice through law centers run by lawyers has decreased by 27 % from 2006 to 2011, while public funding of legal aid and advice through lawyers on an individual basis has decreased by 76 % from 2006 to 2011.¹⁰⁹ In 2011, only 18 % of Danish lawyers provided legal aid and advice under the general legal aid scheme described *supra* Sect. 14.2.1, and apparently half of these lawyers provided this legal aid and advice for free, *i.e.*, without actually using the publicly funded scheme.¹¹⁰

Lawyers argue that the legal aid scheme is financially unattractive mainly because the fixed fees are too low and the scheme requires too much administration.¹¹¹ In a report from 2012, the Standing Committee on Administration of Justice under the Danish Ministry of Justice found that it is likely that many lawyers will not offer legal aid and advice under the public scheme (described *supra* Sect. 14.2.1) because it is financially unattractive and requires too much

¹⁰⁷ For details, see Copenhagen Economics (2012), pp. 30–41.

¹⁰⁸ Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 6.

¹⁰⁹ Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 26.

¹¹⁰ Danske Advokater and Advokatsamfundet (2011), p. 5, and Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 42.

¹¹¹ Advokatrådet (2009), pp. 33–36, Danske Advokater and Advokatsamfundet (2011), p. 5, Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 42.

administration, but the committee concluded that it is, nevertheless, still possible to find lawyers who provide legal aid and advice through this scheme.¹¹²

This development has raised a concern about the *quality* of legal aid and advice offered by lawyers. Only a few lawyers are well qualified in the fields of law often sought after, such as public administrative law, consumer law and family law.¹¹³ Instead, Danish lawyers are today often specialized in other areas of law, which may make it difficult for them to provide (general) legal aid and advice within these areas.¹¹⁴ Since the publicly funded scheme is generally regarded as financially unattractive, legal aid and advice through the publicly funded scheme are in practice, often provided by assistant attorneys who may have little experience in the relevant topic.¹¹⁵

This concern about quality of publicly funded legal aid and advice is not new.¹¹⁶ However, the concern gets a new dimension when it is only a minority of the Danish lawyers—typically lawyers from small law firms who are not highly specialized in the relevant field of law—who are willing to provide such legal aid and advice. Given the fact that the Danish legal system—including, to some extent, the court system—has become increasingly specialized, it may be argued that “any lawyer” may not be sufficient to satisfy the needs for legal aid and advice, at least in some cases. This issue is particularly relevant as regards the free legal aid scheme and the legal expense insurance; see *infra* Sect. 14.5.2.3.

While the role of lawyers in the dual system of legal aid and advice has dramatically diminished, the role of legal aid institutions has *increased* significantly (as mentioned *supra*). It is likely that the legal aid and advice previously offered by lawyers on an *individual basis* are today offered by legal aid institutions and law centers.¹¹⁷ The Danish parliament has supported this development by increasing the funding of these legal aid institutions and changing the requirements for obtaining such funding.¹¹⁸

Most of these legal aid institutions are situated in the larger Danish cities. Therefore, it is a consequence of the changes in the dual system that the publicly funded legal aid and advice scheme is no longer available locally in some areas of Denmark. This means that *access* to the Danish civil justice system may depend on where the party lives.¹¹⁹ However, the Standing Committee on Administration of Justice under the Danish Ministry of Justice has recently concluded (in the report

¹¹² See Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 41.

¹¹³ Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 43.

¹¹⁴ Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 41.

¹¹⁵ Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 43.

¹¹⁶ See *e.g.* Cappelletti and Garth (1978), p. 34.

¹¹⁷ Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 34.

¹¹⁸ See Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 45–46.

¹¹⁹ For further details, see Copenhagen Economics (2012), p. 13.

from 2012 mentioned *supra*) that it is still possible to find lawyers who provide legal aid and advice on an individual basis.¹²⁰

14.5.2.3 Quality of Legal Representation

The mismatch described *supra* in Sect. 14.5.1 plays a special role in cases where a party is granted free legal aid or has insurance coverage: the lawyer representing such party must thus normally accept a fee that is comparable to the *reasonable amount* fixed by the court if the client wins the case—which, as just mentioned, is usually significantly lower than the fee that the lawyer could otherwise demand (which, as mentioned *supra*, needs to just be reasonable vis-à-vis the client). A lawyer who represents a client under the free legal aid scheme or under a legal expense insurance must normally waive his right to claim a separate (further) salary from the client (see *supra* Sect. 14.2.5).

As a consequence, many lawyers—in particular, highly specialized lawyers and lawyers working in larger law firms—will often reject to represent clients who have free legal aid or legal expense insurance because it is financially unattractive compared to working for clients without free legal aid and legal expense insurance. This has raised an interesting debate about whether a client should be able to choose any lawyer—including a lawyer with a special expertise within the specific areas or a lawyer from a large law firm—to represent him/her in a case covered by free legal aid or legal expense insurance or whether it is sufficient that a client can get a lawyer to represent him/her. This debate is fueled by the increasing complexity and specialization of our legal system.

This discussion raises questions about both a right to *free choice* of lawyer and a right to a certain *quality* of legal representation.¹²¹ It seems that this debate is only at the beginning. It is likely to add to this debate if the number of lawyers rejecting to represent clients with free legal aid or a legal expense insurance increases.¹²²

14.5.2.4 Free Legal Aid and Legal Expense Insurance

The recent Danish reforms have made the Danish schemes for publicly funded legal aid and advice *secondary* to private insurance coverage. Since many Danes have a private legal expense insurance coverage (see *supra* Sect. 14.2.5), this change had the potential to affect the schemes in different ways.¹²³

¹²⁰ See Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 41.

¹²¹ The right to free choice of lawyer is set forth in Section 201 of Directive 2009/138/EC (which has replaced Directive 1987/344/EEC). As regards the quality of legal advice, see *inter alia* the statement in Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 61.

¹²² See also Copenhagen Economics (2012), pp. 42–43, and Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 41–42 and 54.

¹²³ For details, see *inter alia* Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 14, 34–35, 47–49 and 53–58.

It seems that the change has not significantly affected the general legal aid and advice schemes (described *supra* Sects. 14.2.1 and 14.2.2).¹²⁴ Instead, it has created some challenges related to the interplay with the free legal aid scheme (described *supra* Sect. 14.2.4). One challenge is that the legal expense insurances are usually limited to a relatively low maximum amount (often within the range of DKK 110,000–130,000) and that it may be difficult to get publicly funded free legal aid to cover costs exceeding this amount.¹²⁵ Following a public debate about this, the Danish Insurance Association (*Forsikring & Pension*) recently recommended that its members as a minimum should increase the maximum insurance coverage to at least DKK 175,000 and that its members also consider introducing an additional coverage if an insured person wins a case in the first instance and the opposing party appeals the case.¹²⁶

14.5.3 Proposal for Adjustments

On 27 June 2012, the standing committee on administration of justice (*Retsplejerådet*) submitted its report about the Danish schemes for publicly funded legal aid and advice.¹²⁷ In this report, a majority of the committee concluded that there are no clear indications that the intentions behind the recent reforms are not fulfilled but, nevertheless, recommended a number of adjustments of the Danish schemes. The report also included a separate statement from a minority of the committee (three out of 12 committee members).¹²⁸ These committee members noted that the mandate of the committee was limited to focus on how resources *within the existing financial framework* could be used more efficiently. They emphasized that, because of this mandate, the committee had not made a more thorough analysis of the Danish schemes for legal aid and advice and that there was a need for a comprehensive analysis of the entire area of legal aid and advice to develop more modern and simple schemes of sufficient quality. They also emphasized the need to scrutinize the role of private insurance, including whether current legal expense insurances effectively support the publicly funded schemes for legal aid and advice.

On 29 June 2012, the Danish Minister of Justice announced that he was happy with the overall conclusion of this report, *i.e.* that there are no clear indications that

¹²⁴ It is currently subject to debate whether the legal expense insurances cover “stage 2” and “stage 3” legal aid; see Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 47–49.

¹²⁵ See Section 336 of the Administration of Justice Act, Sandager (2011) and Retsplejerådet (2012), p. 18 and 21–22. The standing committee on administration of justice has recently recommended some adjustments; see Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 55–57.

¹²⁶ See the website of *Forsikring & Pension*, www.forsikringogpension.dk.

¹²⁷ See Retsplejerådet (2012).

¹²⁸ See Retsplejerådet (2012), pp. 59–62.

the intentions behind the recent reforms are not fulfilled, and that he would consider the adjustments recommended by the committee.¹²⁹ The minister did not address the minority statement.

The Danish Bar and Law Society maintains that there is a need for a comprehensive review of the publicly funded schemes for legal aid and advice and the role of private legal expense insurances.¹³⁰ As of August 2013, the Danish Minister of Justice has not taken any legislative initiatives to address the needs for adjustments identified by the committee.

14.6 Concluding Remarks

Obstacles of a legal, economic, social and psychological nature can make it difficult or impossible to use the legal system.¹³¹ This paper has used the three “waves” of efforts to overcome these obstacles, which were identified 35 years ago in the Florence Access-to-justice Project, to explore access to the current Danish civil justice system as it stands today after a number of significant reforms.

Schemes for legal aid and advice (the first “wave”) remain one important way of providing access to the civil justice system. In Denmark, there are several such schemes that aim to satisfy the needs for countrywide, well-qualified and accessible legal aid and advice. However, these schemes face a number of challenges discussed in Sect. 14.5, *supra*. Some of these challenges are related to the fact that many (and probably most) potential users of the legal system do not recognize their needs for legal aid and advice before it is “too late”. Furthermore, some of the challenges—related to the quality and coverage of the dual system of legal aid and advice and the interplay with private legal expense insurances—are difficult to recognize for people without any insights in the legal system. Efforts within this area are thus generally not user driven and may be difficult to put on the political agenda. It should therefore not be ignored that lawyers and some experts call for a general review of the Danish schemes for legal aid and advice.¹³²

In the perspective of the second “wave”, the Danish legal system has a rather strong tradition for ensuring representation of the so-called diffuse (collective) interests, mainly through public administrative authorities or agencies, through special boards and tribunals and through associations, unions, organizations and societies, including trade unions, environmental organizations and consumer organizations. In addition, new rules on group actions were introduced recently. The “diffuse, fragmented and collective” interests thus generally seem to be well represented in the Danish legal system.¹³³

¹²⁹ See press release of 29 June 2012 from the Ministry of Justice.

¹³⁰ See Advokatrådet (2012).

¹³¹ Compare the foreword to Cappelletti (1978–1979), Vol. 1, Book 1.

¹³² See Sects. 14.2 and 14.5, *supra*.

¹³³ See Sect. 14.3, *supra*.

The Danish legal system has also implemented many of the efforts identified as the third “wave”. This includes complaints boards and tribunals, administrative boards of appeal, a parliamentary ombudsman, simplified procedures for small claims and debt collection, the encouragement of settlements and the devising of alternative methods to decide legal claims such as court-annexed mediation.¹³⁴ Another part of the third “wave”, namely “simplifying the substantive law”, has proven to be more difficult to implement. On the contrary, the complexity and specialization of our legal system seem to have increased significantly in recent decades, which, *inter alia*, adds to the need for higher quality legal aid and advice discussed *supra* Sect. 14.5.2.3.

The analyses suggest that the most significant current challenges related to providing access to the Danish civil justice system are found within the perspective of the first “wave”, where there is a need for a comprehensive general review of the Danish schemes for legal aid and advice.

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Chapter 15

Is There a Snake in an Icelandic Paradise? The Abuse of the “Ideal” System

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Abstract Human rights provisions of the Icelandic Constitution and the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms are intended to ensure minimum human rights. Among those human rights is the right to access to courts. This article deals with several factors related to cost in the court system in Iceland in connection with access to courts. A few amendments will be discussed that were made to legislation and court orders in Iceland after the collapse of the banks in 2008, which directly were meant to reduce the cost of the judicial system in Iceland by decreasing the number of simple legal proceedings and reduce the cost of civil cases. These measures were successful in decreasing the number of simple cases in District Courts, and expenses have been cut in some areas. The measures have directly impacted advocates in civil cases, in addition to having various direct and indirect effects on citizens’ access to courts. It can be concluded that relatively simple measures can greatly impact the number of cases and the composition of cases in courts in addition to decrease the cost of legal aid.

15.1 Introduction

Human rights provisions of the Icelandic Constitution¹ and international conventions, such as the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (ECHR), are intended to ensure minimum human rights. Among those human rights is the right to access to courts.

¹No. 33/1944 on the Icelandic Parliament website <http://www.althingi.is/lagas/nuna/1944033.html>.

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It is debatable whether the Icelandic court system is ideal or not. On the other hand, it can be stated that it is simple and transparent and has, for some time, been very effective and quite fast.²

Although the Icelandic society has a small population, most of the same principles apply as in other Western democracies. Reform of the judiciary is easy to implement in a short time in Iceland, and the impact can be easy to measure. In this sense, one can look at the Icelandic legal system as a laboratory of ideas that larger countries can learn from.

This article deals with several factors connected to access to courts in Iceland. In discussing access to the courts, it must be kept in mind that in most instances resolution of a dispute is costly, whether courts or other ruling bodies are called upon to resolve it. Legal provisions regarding access to courts can affect the cost of court cases and where that cost lands. This paper will also attempt to answer the question whether the actions of the Icelandic government in the wake of the financial crisis in Iceland in 2008, which were intended to decrease the number of simple legal proceedings and reduce the cost of the courts, have changed this.

An attempt will be made to find out if the measures taken by the government have led to changes in access to courts. Furthermore, an attempt will be made to see whether universal conclusions can be drawn from the consequences of the amendments that other nations could possibly take into consideration.

15.2 International Attitudes Toward Access to Courts

In the European Union and Council of Europe, discussion of access to courts has had high priority in connection with the function of courts, efficiency of the legal system and just court procedure.

At a conference of European ministers of justice in London in 2000, the ministers agreed on the importance of bolstering the public's trust in the judicial system in each state. Subsequently, the Council of Ministers of the European Union passed a resolution on establishing a committee for the purpose of improving the efficiency and operation of the member states' legal systems for the sake of everyone being able to assert their legal rights effectively and thereby create increased confidence of the citizens in the legal system. The European Commission for the Efficiency of Justice (CEPEJ), among other things, has collected information on the judicial systems of the member states of the Council of Europe and compared the information. The outcome of this work is four reports on evaluation of European judicial systems.³ The Council of Europe has contributed to improved access to courts by issuing various instructions

²There is no example of the European Court of Human Rights receiving a case from Iceland regarding the right to a hearing within a reasonable time.

³The fifth edition of the report, based on figures from 2010 concerning 46 states. See the report in its entirety on http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/cooperation/cepej/evaluation/2012/Rapport_en.pdf.

on government legal assistance.⁴ On its homepage, the council has established a major information utility on indigent plaintiff status and other aspects related to access to courts in particular member states.⁵

In this forum, the [European Union](#) has made special efforts to provide all the union’s citizens with the same access to government legal assistance in another member state equal to that in their own states.⁶ At the end of 2002, the European Commission announced a proposal for joint rules on “payment order” and procedures to create rules on small claim procedure.⁷ The European Union has also put on the Internet a great deal of useful information on remedies for citizens in particular member states, and across borders, to procure indigent plaintiff status, resolve their cases before the courts and obtain satisfaction of their claims.

The Council on Legal Procedure in Denmark recently issued a report on amendments to the Act on Civil Procedure regarding access to courts. This report explains various points in detail, such as court fees, legal costs, and indigent status and other governmental and nongovernmental legal assistance, security for court costs as insurance and new procedural remedies, including small claim procedure. The report also discusses comparable points in the legislation of other states.⁸

A parliamentary bill for a new act on civil procedure introduced in Norway in the spring of 2005 contains various innovations aimed at promoting improved access to courts. For example, it includes provisions on small claim procedure and initiating class actions. The bill is based on a detailed report and draft bill from the Civil Procedure Committee (Tvistemålsutvalget).⁹

Comments on the current paragraph 1 of Article 70 of the Icelandic Constitution in an exposition on the parliamentary bill to amend the Constitutional Act mentioned numerous limitations on access to courts in the act then in effect and stated that it was not the intention to make changes to the current law with this provision. The same understanding emerges, for example, in paragraph 1 of Article 24 of the Civil Procedure Act, which states that courts have the power to render judgement on any complaint that is covered by a statute and domestic law unless it is excluded from their jurisdiction according to law, an agreement, custom or its nature. Such a limitation to the main rule is also reiterated in the Supreme Court’s judgement of 17 March 2005 in Case No. 349/2004, where it is stated that all limitations to people’s access must be stated clearly in the law.¹⁰

⁴ See European Agreement on the Transmission of Application for Legal Aid (ETC No. 92) and later instructions related to this agreement, Resolution Nos. (76) 5, (78) 8 and (93) 1 on the effective access to the law and justice for the very poor.

⁵ See the website of the [Council of Europe](#): www.coe.int.

⁶ See **Council Directive 2003/8/EC**, which can be found at www.europa.eu.

⁷ Proposal of the European Commission, “Green Paper on a European order for payment procedure and on measures to simplify and speed up small claims litigation” <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/>.

⁸ See Retsplejerådets betænkning nr. 1436/2004 at www.jm.dk.

⁹ See NOU 2001:32 Bind A. Ot.prp. nr. 51 (2004–2005). Om lov om mekling og rettergang i sivile tvister (tvisteloven). <http://www.regjeringen.no/>.

¹⁰ See a similar argument in Judgement of the Supreme Court of Iceland of 18 December 2000 in Case No. 419/2000.

It will be concluded from the judgements of the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) construing the subject matter of paragraph 1 of Article 6 of the ECHR that the member states of the ECHR have been afforded some leeway to limit access to courts. As it emerges in the ECtHR judgement in *Winterwerp vs. The Netherlands*, which revolved around the joinder of a mentally unwell person, such limitations may not diminish the core of a person's right to access to courts.¹¹ In *Ashingdane vs. The United Kingdom*, the ECtHR deemed that such limitations on access to courts might not so narrow the possibilities of individuals and other private parties to have their day in court that the core of this right would be reduced. These limitations, in addition, would have to aim at a lawful goal and might not go farther than normal, keeping in mind the interests at stake in achieving this goal.¹² In *Fayed vs. The United Kingdom*, there was deemed to be the following condition for access to courts: "A restriction must pursue a legitimate aim and there must be reasonable proportionality between the means employed and the aim sought to be achieved."¹³

Also, such limitations must be sufficiently clear, as emerges in the ECtHR's decision in the case of *Bellet vs. France*.¹⁴

15.3 Consequences of the Icelandic Economic Collapse in the Fall of 2008 on Courts and Legal Procedures

As is known, Icelanders have dealt with a serious economic crisis in the past few years, which had its roots in the collapse of the three largest Icelandic banks in October 2008 and other financial institutions in the aftermath. The revenue of the State Treasury has greatly diminished, which has led to extreme reductions in state funding.

At the same time, the legal system has had to deal with the consequences of the financial crisis. A great number of bankruptcy cases and other intricate and extensive legal proceedings, which are connected to liquidation of the banks and bankruptcy of many large companies, have flooded the courts. The numbers of bankruptcy disputes have increased 20-fold. The investigation of economic crimes has also increased greatly. In February 2009, the Office of the Special Prosecutor was established and was at first meant to investigate and prosecute in cases that were related to operations leading up to and following the collapse of the Icelandic banks. Since then, the Office has been expanded greatly to include investigation and prosecution in all economic offences. The economic collapse has thus led to the

¹¹ Judgement of the ECtHR in *Winterwerp vs. The Netherlands* of 24 October 1979, Article 61.

¹² Judgement of the ECtHR in *Ashingdane vs. The United Kingdom* of 28 May 1985, Article 57, and a detailed discussion of it in Rozakis (2004), p. 99.

¹³ Judgement of the ECtHR in *Fayed vs. The United Kingdom* of 21 September 1994, Article 65.

¹⁴ Judgement of the ECtHR in *Bellet vs. France* of 4 December 1995, Article 42.

courts receiving, and to continue receiving, many intricate and extensive cases, common civil actions, disputes concerning the liquidation of the banks and complex cases of economic crimes.

When the economic collapse occurred, it can be said that the operations of the courts were at equilibrium. The caseload had actually been on the rise in 2007–2008 and the length of case proceedings increasing, but the courts could manage.

The collapse of the banks produced not only almost a bankrupt State Treasury but also large debt problems for companies and individuals and, not least of all, a lot of anger in the society. It was clear to the Icelandic government that one of the prerequisites for the country to survive the economic collapse was that the legal system could uphold its role to resolve many disputes connected to the crisis.

A lot of complex measures had to be taken. On one hand, the increased workload caused by the increase in the number of intricate cases was met with changes in the legislature, which allowed increased number of judges, and that increase has partially taken effect. On the other hand, measures were taken to reduce the expenditures of the courts by hindering increased number of cases through an increase in first instance court fees and permitting settlement of minor criminal cases with police fines, reducing defender and legal representative fees in criminal cases and decreasing lawyer fees in legal aid cases. All of these actions raise the questions of the effect they have on access to courts.

15.4 Measures to Help Decrease the Number of Legal Proceedings

In this chapter, I will try to find out whether the Icelandic government measures, separately and combined, had a positive or negative impact on access to courts.

15.4.1 Measures to Decrease the Number of Smaller Civil Actions

With regulation no. 130/2009 regarding amendments of, among other things, regulation no. 88/1991 on additional revenues of the State Treasury, which took effect January 1st 2010, all court fees increased substantially and again with regulation no. 165/2010, which took effect on December 28th 2010. The purpose of the regulation amendments was, among other things, to decrease the number of smaller cases that are brought to the court system. The Icelandic citizens were not given the option of another cheaper solution to their disputes. The changes raise doubts considering the effects they have on access to courts and will be further

discussed later in the article where the effects of the cost of legal proceedings on access to courts will be studied.

15.4.2 Measures to Lower the Icelandic State's Cost of Legal Proceedings

The cost of legal proceedings is probably the factor that most limits people's and legal entities' access to courts. This is actually an international problem that has received reaction all over. The cost for those seeking justice in court can have four different aspects: court fees, lawyer fees, other expenses and loss of income.

Because of the close correlation between the cost of legal proceedings and access to courts, the government has to value closely measures that can affect the cost of those who need to turn to the courts so that the negative effects on access to courts are kept minimal.

After the economic collapse in Iceland, various regulation changes were made to reduce State cost of carrying out legal proceedings. These changes also affected the cost for those who have to turn to the courts. Some of the measures led to increased costs for individuals and legal entities using the courts, but others decreased the cost. Each regulation change will now be addressed.

15.4.3 Increase in Court Fees

Even though one of the State's primary obligations towards its citizens is to provide courts to settle disputes, decide legal rights and duties, determine guilt or innocence and decide punishments, it has long been practised to charge fees of those who take matters to the courts in civil actions. Generally, three ways have been used to decide fees or a combination of fees: firstly, equal fees for all cases; secondly, a fee that considers the interests in each case; and, thirdly, a fee that considers the court cost of settling a dispute, i.e., how extensive the case is.

The collection of court fees has in itself not been considered a violation of the right to have access to courts, but the amount, along with other factors, can lead to it being considered so. This can be interpreted from the ruling of the ECtHR in the case of *Kreuz vs. Poland*. Kreuz intended to sue a municipality for damages, but the court fees were 100 million zloty, which amounts to the average yearly salary in Poland. The fee amounted to 5 % of the court claims. The court considered the fees in civil actions not violating Article 6(1) of the ECHR. However, it was believed that the court fees had to be considered with regard to each issue, including the liquidity of the plaintiff and at which court level the fee should be paid. The court came to the conclusion that Polish courts had not found equilibrium between the interests of the State in collecting court fees and the interests of the plaintiff in

seeking justice in a court of law and that the respective claim regarding court fees incorporated improper impairment in the plaintiff’s access to courts.¹⁵ This ruling shows that excessively high court fees can be considered impairment of the right to have access to courts.

The Council of Legal Procedure in Denmark published a quality report in 2004 with an extensive study on Danish, Nordic and other European legal rights regarding court fees, legal costs, legal aid and various other factors that matter concerning access to courts.¹⁶ In the report, changes are suggested in order to improve access to courts, e.g., by reducing and changing court fees in civil actions. A bill that was based on the report was passed as law in Denmark on January 1st 2005¹⁷ and included considerable reduction of court fees.¹⁸ The amount of court fees at the first instance courts in Denmark is determined by the principal of the court claims and can be from DKK 500 in a case where the principal is lower than DKK 50,000, and it is resolved before a decision is made regarding main proceedings and up to DKK 150,000 if the case is settled in court. The court fees are thus divided into first instance court fees and proceedings fees. If there is a defence, an additional proceedings fee is to be paid. This fee is to be paid when the main proceedings are decided but not until there are 3 months to the main proceedings. If the case is settled 6 weeks prior to the main proceedings, this proceedings fee is withdrawn. A third of this fee is repaid if the case is settled in other ways than with a ruling. A few exceptions are to these rules. The same arrangement is held at the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court, but the amounts are higher.¹⁹

In the beginning of 2009, the first instance court fees for all civil cases at the District Courts in Iceland were only ISK 3,900 regardless of interests or how extensive the case was. This fee was very low, considering the cost for the State to handle civil actions. With law no. 130/2009 on additional revenues of the State Treasury and again with regulation no. 165/2010, all court fees increased substantially. After this increase, the first instance court fees in civil actions range from ISK 15,000 up to ISK 250,000, depending on the amount of the claim.

The reasons behind this increase were explained in common remarks in a report following the bill that became law no. 130/2009. There it stated: “It is, however, suggested that court fees increase proportionally more than other fees. This is done to meet the increasing cost of managing the court system and also to decrease the great number of smaller cases before the courts.”²⁰

The benefits of the Danish arrangement are first and foremost that it encourages the parties involved to settle without court procedures or to settle before the main

¹⁵ The judgement of the ECtHR in the case of *Kreuz vs. Poland* from June 19th 2001, Article 61–67.

¹⁶ See Retsplejerådets betænkning no. 1436/2004.

¹⁷ See Danish Law no. 1436/2004 which amended older law no. 806/2000 on court fees.

¹⁸ See Danish Law no. 1436/2004.

¹⁹ See Icelandic regulation no. 1436/2004, Lov om ændring af lov og retsafgifter og retsplejeloven, especially Articles 1, 2 and 7.

²⁰ See the Icelandic Parliament’s website <http://www.althingi.is/altext/138/s/0273.html>.

procedure begins and thus it lessens the burden on the courts and helps better utilise state funds. As the main cost of managing courts lies in main proceedings and the composing of rulings, and as there is a correlation between subpoena claims and the magnitude of cases, it can be said that the parties involved pay in correlation to the cost they produce in the court system.

After these increases in the court fees in Iceland, the lowest first instance court fee is considerably higher than in Denmark. It can be said that the main disadvantage of fees in civil actions in Iceland in comparison with Denmark is that the amount is in no relation to the state's cost of legal proceedings.

To increase the minimum court fees in civil 285 % raises questions whether the best way was chosen in order to decrease the number of smaller civil actions. As an example, the collection of relatively small claims, where it is unclear whether the debtor is able to pay his debt, will proportionally be so costly that it is hardly worth the risk to try to collect claims in court.

It is imperative to examine whether the aforementioned purpose of the bill, to meet the increased cost of managing the court system and to decrease the number of smaller cases before the courts, has been met (see Fig. 15.1).

Considering the number of new civil actions before the District Courts in the last decade, it can be seen that the number has fluctuated greatly. The yearly number had, though, never been below 12,000 cases until 2010. The development of the number of cases before and after the aforementioned changes came into effect on January 1st 2010 seems to show unmistakable influence on the change on the number of new civil actions before the Icelandic District Courts. The great increase in the number of civil actions in 2005–2009, or 81 %, is suddenly halted in 2010, and the number of civil actions decreases substantially. In 2011, the number of civil actions in first court session was just 7,931 and only 6,616 in 2012 or only 29 % of the number of cases in 2009 and only 50 % of the lowest yearly number before 2010. The goal of the laws to decrease the number of civil actions has thus unequivocally been reached.

Looking at the situation in Iceland, it could, on the contrary, have been assumed that the increase before 2009 would have continued. The number of individuals and companies in debt is greater than ever before, and disputes in various areas of the society never seem to have been greater. This situation has, however, not transferred to the courts by increasing the number of cases except in a few areas, such as bankruptcy cases and disputes concerning bankruptcy, since the number of such cases has increased from been around 30 on average each year in 2000–2008 to 620 in 2010.²¹

It is difficult to measure exactly other effects of the changes, but with regard to a great decrease in the number of new cases it can be assumed that the changes have only had little effects in increasing State revenue. It can be presumed that the decrease has mainly been regarding simple debt cases where the stakes are

²¹ See the Judicial Council's website: <http://domstolar.is/domstolarad/tofraedi/2011/throunmalafjolda/>.

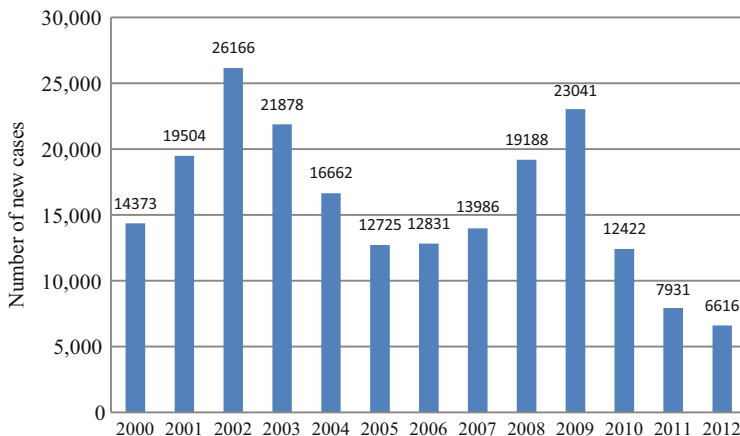


Fig. 15.1 Development of the number of civil actions in District Courts in Iceland from 2000 to 2012

relatively low. An indication whether this hypothesis is correct can be found by examining the development of the number of oral procedures in the District Courts (see Fig. 15.2).

The development shows that the number of new defence cases has decreased from 1,652 in 2009 to 980 in 2011 and 1,004 in 2012, or approximately 40 %, after a considerable increase up until 2009. Even though the number of defence cases has decreased much less than the number of civil actions, it seems that the increase in court fees has had considerable impact on both the number of simple debt cases and actual dispute cases.

Though there are strong indications that the decrease in the number of civil actions stems mostly from simple debt cases and relatively simple disputes, it cannot be overlooked that the decrease in the number of civil actions has given the courts increased leeway to deal with many complex and extensive cases related to the economic collapse, in addition to prevent lengthy procedures. Therefore, the increase in court fees has had some positive effects on the Icelandic court system as a whole.

According to the aforementioned, the increase in first instance court fees has had more impact on the number of new cases than could have been expected, and what is even more surprising is that the increase seems to have also impacted the number of dispute cases even though other factors could also have an effect.

This great decrease brings to light uncomfortable questions about what happened to those claims that were not accepted by the courts or not brought to the courts. Are the claims lost, or were they collected with other less desirable means? Are the disputes still unresolved, or have they been resolved in other ways than through the state? Whatever the answers may be, it seems to be clear that the increase in first instance court fees has had great negative impact on the Icelanders' access to courts in relation to resolving civil actions, especially minor debt cases.

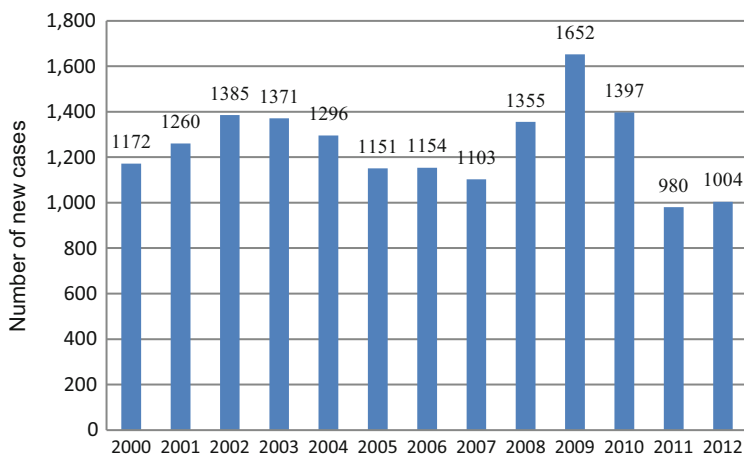


Fig. 15.2 Development of the number of civil cases with defence in first instance courts 2000–2012

15.4.4 Decrease in Advocate Fees

Lawyers serve an important and growing role in the Icelandic justice system, as in other areas, whether they are serving as advocates in civil actions or defenders in criminal cases. Though the Icelandic court system is probably among the simplest and most transparent, with two levels, one operating special court and without special administrative courts, the society has become so complex and the specialisation so great that most consider their interests best served by entrusting lawyers with them in legal proceedings. Below is a discussion of how lawyer fees can impact access to courts and, especially, how the changes that have been made in Iceland regarding the amount of allotted advocate fees in civil actions might affect access to courts.

Lawyer fee is probably the part of the cost of legal procedures that weighs the most for litigants. Litigants in civil actions are usually responsible for paying lawyers for their work, but the judge decides how the cost of the case is split between the parties involved, i.e., whether each party pays its own expenses or one party pays the cost of the other and then to what extent. Therefore, awarded expenses do not necessarily have to correlate to the fee that litigants have to pay their lawyers.

It can be assumed that most of those who file a case in court hope that the opposite party involved will be sentenced to pay the legal cost and the amount will suffice to pay lawyer fees so that they will not suffer from the case. For obvious reasons, the results vary. It is thus clear that the risk of having to pay lawyer fees in relation to legal proceedings, in addition to the legal fees of the opposite party, is one of the most important factors that have to be considered when deciding on going to court, whether in the form of prosecution or defence. The amount of lawyer

fees is very important in this risk assessment, and the higher the fees is, the less likely it is that people will seek justice in court. The courts’ decisions on legal cost can thus greatly impact citizens’ access to courts.

For a short period of time, judges used the amount of the claim as a reference when deciding on legal cost in cases without defence. The Judicial Council put forth for the first time on March 29th 2010 the so-called Guidelines on deciding legal cost in cases without defence cf. Article 113 of regulation no. 91/1991 on the handling of civil actions.²² In the guidelines, the connection to interests was abandoned and cases without defence categorised into (a) simple debt collection cases with legal cost ranging from ISK 50,000 to 58,000; (b) more extensive cases with legal cost ranging from ISK 90,000 to 106,000; and (c) cases with comprehensive gathering of evidence with legal cost ranging from ISK 155,000 to 180,000. A few amendments have been made to these guidelines, last on February 29th 2012 with announcement no. 3/2012. The minimum amount of the lowest legal cost in simple debt collection cases has been decreased to ISK 30,000, but now court fees to the State Treasury, cost of legal notice and demonstrable cost of intermediary collection are added to the legal cost.

The Chairman of the Icelandic Bar Association believes that with these guidelines the Judicial Council decided, due to the economic collapse, to greatly decrease lawyer fees in cases without defence. The fee is so low that it can benefit debtors to get a ruling of a case without defence rather than pay the claim before the subpoena is issued.²³ The Chairman of the Judicial Council has addressed this criticism and pointed out that these instructions for judges are not binding. On the other hand, he believes that the guidelines provide a consistency when deciding legal cost in cases without defence.²⁴

It is clear that the impact of the decrease in legal cost is positive for debtors but at the expense of the interests of claimants who can hardly expect to be compensated for the cost of getting an enforceable judgement regarding their claims. This change will especially affect claimants with relatively low claims. It is likely that the decision in question of the Judicial Council, along with the increase in first court session fees, will lead to claimants with low claims not seeking a judgement regarding those claims because the legal cost will not cover the lawyer fees.

As Fig. 15.1 shows, the number of civil actions in the Icelandic District Courts decreased dramatically from 2009 to 2011, and it can be expected that the guidelines on legal cost in cases without defence, which were established on March 2010, might be a factor in that development. It cannot be avoided to see that the guidelines in question have, when everything is taken into account, had negative effects on access to courts.

²² See the announcement of the Judicial Council no. 2/2010 on <http://www.domstolar.is>

²³ See *Nielsson (2012)*, p. 8.

²⁴ See *Sigvaldason (2012)*, p. 9.

15.5 Legal Aid

As is discussed above, court proceedings are usually very expensive. The possibility of legal aid for those who need to seek justice in a court of law but do not have the financial means to do so is therefore imperative in relation to access to courts. Public legal aid in one way or another is the aspect that has gotten the most coverage in the discussion on access to courts.

Public legal aid has long been discussed at the Council of Europe, and numerous treaties, resolutions and recommendations have been put forth on that subject. The ECtHR has, in many rulings, dealt with whether states have violated Article 6(1) of the ECHR with unsatisfactory legislative provisions or judicial functions regarding legal aid in legal proceedings. The ECtHR has emphasised that it is not enough to omit in legislative recommendations concerning limitations of cases being brought to court but that this right must be active. In the case of *Airey vs. Ireland*,²⁵ it was believed that as the claims that Airey wanted to bring to court were so complex that she could not have represented herself, she did not have means to get legal counsel and she did not have the option of legal aid, her right to present her case in court was not active and thus it violated Article 6(1) of the ECHR. In the case of *Aerts vs. Belgium*,²⁶ the ECtHR came to the same conclusion due to a refusal of legal aid in an appeal case. Aerts did not have the means to seek legal counsel in an appeal case, and a legal aid committee refused him legal aid, among other things, on the ground that it was unlikely that he would win the case. The ECtHR did not consider it to be in the power of the legal aid committee to take a substantive stance on the matter, but it should be up to the appeal court to resolve the issue.²⁷

After the aforementioned ruling in *Aerts*' case, it seems that the ECtHR has taken another direction in cases concerning the refusal of legal aid. In the case of *Gnahoré vs. France*,²⁸ the court maintained that what had carried the most weight in *Aerts*' case is that he was obligated to seek legal counsel in order to appeal the case. In the rulings in the cases *Del Sol vs. France* and *Essaadi vs. France*, which were both given on February 26th 2002, another direction was also taken than in the *Aerts*' case. The rulings referred to standpoints in the European Human Rights Committee's decision from July 10th 1980 in the case of *X vs. Great Britain* that a legal aid system could not operate unless a mechanism was in place to choose cases where legal aid would apply.²⁹ In these two cases, the ECtHR did not consider it a

²⁵ The ruling of the ECtHR in the case of *Airey vs. Ireland* from October 9th 1979.

²⁶ The ruling of the ECtHR in the case of *Aerts vs. Belgium* from July 30th 1998.

²⁷ See discussion on the rulings Tómasson (1999), pp. 51–52, and Van Dijk and Van Hoof (1998), pp. 420–421.

²⁸ The ruling of the ECtHR in the case of *Gnahoré vs. France* from September 19th 2000, Article 41.

²⁹ Furthermore, the decision maintains: "In the Commission's view, Article 6(1) does not require that legal aid be provided in every case, irrespective of the nature of the claim and supporting evidence. Where an individual is refused legal aid in a particular case because his proposed civil claim is either not sufficiently well grounded or is regarded as frivolous or vexatious the burden

violation of Article 6(1) that a request for legal aid in an appeal case was rejected and argued that no justifications had been made for an appeal. The ECtHR asserted that the purpose of such limitations to legal aid was a valid claim for only spending government legal aid funds on applicants where there was a reason to believe that an appeal would give positive results, but the French government had maintained that the purpose of the rule was to prevent appeals that obviously had no merit. In addition, it was claimed that the quality of the respective state’s legal aid system had to be evaluated especially.

In the decision of the European Court of Human Rights on the procedural appropriateness of the charges in the case of *Nicholas vs. Cyprus*, it was maintained that a refusal of legal aid did not violate Article 6(1) of the ECHR if the chances of a successful court action were none and the cost of the legal aid was in no correlation to possible damages that could be awarded to the applicant.

The rulings mentioned above, along with the decisions of the ECtHR, have diminished the judicial impact of the Aerts ruling, and thus it is less likely than before that the condition in Article 126(1) in the civil law, *that adequate reasons for a court action or defence*, will be thought to violate Article 6(1) of the ECHR or Article 70(1) of the Icelandic Constitution.

The Icelandic government’s cost of public legal aid is substantial and grew considerably in the last decade. According to a report from a committee on legal cost in criminal cases and public legal aid from 2006, the number of cases where legal aid was provided rose to 61 % from 2000 to 2005, and the expenses of the State Treasury grew by 106 %. The State has long tried to contain this increase in expenditure and after the economic collapse; further measures have been taken in order to reduce State expenses on legal aid.

In Iceland, there is a provision on legal aid in section XX of the civil procedural law,³⁰ but the provisions on legal aid were amended with Act no. 7/2005. The new Article 126 (1) of the civil law, as it was amended with Article 2 of law Act 7/2005, deals with the conditions for providing legal aid and states that “An individual can be provided with legal aid if his financial circumstances imply that the cost of protecting his interests is imminently beyond his power since there are adequate reasons for a court action or defence and that it is otherwise customary that legal aid is paid with public funds. The Minister of Justice can stipulate further the conditions of legal aid with a regulation, including when there are enough reasons to provide legal aid, factors taken into account in evaluating applicant’s financial situation and permission to limit legal aid, cf. Article 127(1)”.

Two main amendments were made concerning conditions for providing legal aid. On one hand, legal aid is no longer permitted on grounds that were previously laid out in section b of Article 126(1), i.e., resolving a case has a significant general meaning or is imperative for the applicant’s employment, social situation or other

would then fall on him to secure his “access to court” in some other way such as, for example, bring the action himself or seeking assistance from some other source.”

³⁰ See law no. 91/1991 on Icelandic Parliament (i. Alþingi) website <http://www.althingi.is/lagas/nuna/1991091.html>.

private circumstances. On the other hand, the condition was added that it is considered customary that legal aid is paid with public funds.

Notes accompanying a review of the bill that became the amendments in question show clearly that authorisations to provide legal aid are being constricted to decrease the cost of legal aid. With the regulation, various authorisations to provide legal aid for other reasons than a difficult financial situation of the applicant were dropped.

This part of article 126, however, was changed to its former state by Act no. 72/2012.

After the economic collapse, a provision was added to Article no. 70/2009 with Article 19, permitting ministers to determine the maximum amount of legal aid in individual categories, as well as the maximum income the applicant can have in order to receive legal aid on the basis of finances. In notes accompanying the provision in a review of the bill, it was stated that due to the current situation of State finances, it was necessary to be able to limit legal aid in individual categories. Thus, no attempt was made to hide the fact that the purpose of the regulation was to decrease the State's cost of legal aid.

In the Judicial Council's guidelines for the District Courts on fees that were put forth in December 2004,³¹ it was stated that lawyer fees in legal aid cases should be ISK 10,000 for every hour. This means that instead of using the respective lawyer's rate, judges set this hourly rate as the basis for determining fees of an attorney of victims. It must be kept in mind that according to information from the Icelandic Bar Association, common hourly rates at legal firms in Iceland range from ISK 18,000 to 22,000,³² and therefore the fee in legal aid cases is only half of the common rate. The value of these guidelines has been tested in the Supreme Court's case no. 470/2011, where the Supreme Court verified the District Court's ruling on the amount of legal aid, which was based on the Judicial Council's guidelines. In the case, the legal aid recipient's lawyer stated that the recipient would suffer damages by the proceedings since she had to pay her lawyer the difference between his hourly rate and the rate set out in the Judicial Council's guidelines. The Supreme Court referred to a previous case when ruling in case no. 470/2011 and said that a lawyer cannot demand a fee from his client beyond the determined amount of legal aid.

Even though the purpose of these guidelines was to regularise legal aid, it is clear that the guidelines also decrease expenses for the State Treasury. In terms of the Supreme Court's ruling in case no. 470/2011, it initially seems that this decrease in lawyer fees in legal aid cases will first and foremost negatively affect lawyers and not legal aid recipients. However, taking a broader perspective, it can be argued that decreasing State expenses for legal aid will, in the end, negatively affect those who

³¹ See the Judicial Council's announcement no. 5/2009 from December 21st 2009. <http://www.domstolar.is/>.

³² See information in Icelandic Attorneys' Journal (i. Lögmannablaðið) 2012(1), p. 7.

need legal aid as it can be expected that desirable lawyers would rather choose more lucrative cases than legal aid cases or spend less time on such cases than before.

15.6 Length of Proceedings

The length of proceedings in courts is one of the factors that greatly impact the true access to them. In Article 70(1) of the Constitution and Article 6(1) of the ECHR, a right to fair legal proceedings of a reasonable length is presented. In the rulings of the ECtHR, the member states of the ECHR have repeatedly been criticised for lengthy proceedings, and the Court is simply overflowing with cases due to slow court proceedings in the member states, which in turn leads to lengthy proceedings in the Court itself. In determining whether a violation of Article 6(1) has occurred in a particular case, other factors also matter besides the length of proceedings. It is believed to matter what meaning it has for the parties to get a quick resolution, whether the claim is simple or complex and, finally, whether the slow process is due to the parties themselves rather than the courts or the government.³³ It also matters whether the proceedings have been interrupted or continuous. No such case has been brought to the European Court of Human Rights from Iceland.

CEPEJ submitted a framework programme in 2004 titled “A new objective for judicial systems: the processing of each case within an optimum and foreseeable timeframe”.³⁴ It explains methods to measure the length of proceedings, reasons for delays in proceedings and methods to better handle the length of proceedings by improving legislature, increasing funding, better utilising funds, better organising and goal setting. It is emphasised that each state finds equilibrium between funding for the court system and, on one hand, utilising said funds and, on the other, goals for fair proceedings. It is also stressed that each case is processed at the appropriate speed and that the length of proceedings is predictable.

In light of the measures that have been taken in Iceland to decrease State expenditure regarding the court system and, at the same time, lessen the strain on the courts by decreasing the number of simpler cases, it is worth examining what effects these measures might have on the length of proceedings in Icelandic courts.

The length of proceedings in civil cases in District Courts has long been positive in comparison with other European countries.

It can be mentioned that the Judicial Council put forth in September 2009 guidelines regarding the length of proceedings in District Courts.³⁵ The aim was that the average length of proceedings was less than 6 months (183 days) from the first court session to the ruling.

³³ See Tómasson (1999), p. 120 and onwards.

³⁴ CEPEJ (2004) 19 REV 1.

³⁵ See Judicial Council’s announcement no. 4/2009 from September 10th 2009. <http://www.domstolar.is/>.

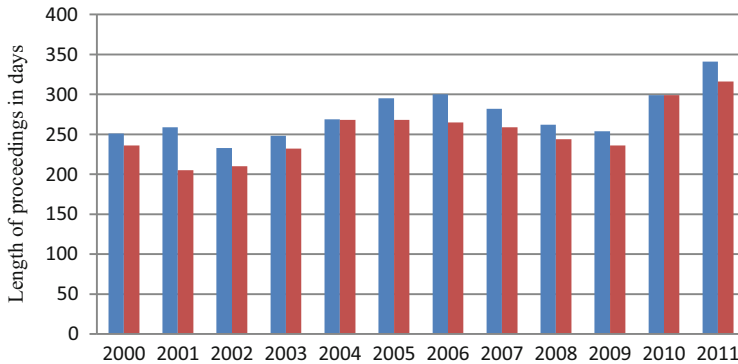


Fig. 15.3 Changes in the length of the processings in civil cases with defence in first instance courts in Iceland (the period from the first court session)

The average length of proceedings each year from the first court session to completion of the case was examined, as well as the average age of every uncompleted case at the end of each year. It is impossible to only examine the former since judges can possibly just choose cases that can be processed quickly at the expense of others. Therefore, it is good to have the average age of uncompleted cases in comparison. If that number is lower than the other one, it indicates first and foremost that the uncompleted cases are relatively new cases, and that is very positive. If the average age of uncompleted cases is, on the other hand, higher than the length of completed cases, it shows that more difficult cases have been neglected and implies that the length of proceedings could even grow.

The bar chart above shows the development of the length of proceedings in the Icelandic District Courts from 2000 to 2011 in general civil cases with a defence (see Fig. 15.3).

The bar chart shows that the length of proceedings seems to be growing substantially in civil cases in 2010 and 2011, whether the cases are completed or uncompleted.

When examining the length of proceedings over a longer period of time, it turns out that from 2000 to 2003 the average length of proceedings in completed cases from the first court session to the end was 248 days and had risen to 286 days in 2008–2011. The average age of uncompleted cases in each year from 2000 to 2003 was 221 days and 272 days from 2008 to 2011.

According to the aforementioned, the District Courts have moved away from that goal in the last few years. The average length of proceedings that were completed in 2011 had risen to 299 days in 2010 and 341 days, or over 11 months, in 2011. Growing length of the procedure indicates that the actions of the government were not successful.

15.7 Conclusion

Logically, the answer to how good general access is to the legal system has to be determined by an integrated evaluation of numerous factors of court organisation, procedural law and procedural execution, as well as court fees, possibilities of indigent status, courts’ efficiency, simplicity and transparency of the legal system and procedural rules, flexibility of courts, numerous procedural remedies and various procedural hindrances.

It must be kept in mind though that it is not possible to spend unlimited amounts of funds on the legal system, and extensive cutbacks in state funding must affect the courts as much as other public institutions. A lack of action regarding increased number of cases in a short period of time can lead to longer case proceedings, which in turn can lead to a great impairment in access to courts. The measures taken to reduce the number of cases seem to reduce access to courts. However, it does not have to be the outcome if other and less expensive measures to settle disputes and close cases are secured and the option of taking a case to court is kept open if the citizens so choose.

According to the above, the Icelandic government took measures to decrease the cost of the judicial system after the economic collapse and allow the courts to deal with various complex and intricate cases related to the collapse. Some of the measures were meant to decrease the number of cases in courts and thus decrease expenses related to the court system. The measures were successful in decreasing the number of simple cases in District Courts, and expenses have been cut in some areas. The measures have directly impacted lawyers in civil cases, in addition to having various direct and indirect effects on citizens’ access to courts. In addition, the length of proceedings in civil cases has grown considerably.

It can be concluded from the discussion above that relatively simple measures can greatly impact the number of cases and the composition of cases in courts in addition to decrease the cost of a defence and legal aid. Though it is clear that restraints must accompany the management of courts and the funding of the court system has to correlate to the earnings of the State Treasury, it must be kept in mind that a decrease in the number of cases and cutting funds for defence and legal aid certainly has an impact on the access to courts, directly or indirectly. When choosing where to cut funds, people must always be mindful of keeping the effects minimal for the citizens and providing fair legal proceedings in court.

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Chapter 16

Access to Justice: Is ADR a Help or Hindrance?

Anna Nylund

Abstract The Access to Justice movement and the Alternative Dispute Resolution movement have shaped the way we perceive the role and functioning of courts in society. Both movements have criticised the courts for failing to provide precise, real and achievable justice for citizens. The third “wave” of the Access to Justice movement has emphasised ADR as a tool for providing better dispute resolution processes resulting in better outcomes. Court-connected mediation has been presented as a key solution, but it has mainly failed its promises, sometimes even reducing real access to justice. In this text, the reasons why ADR in general and court-connected mediation in particular has failed its task are discussed. Then the main conditions for ADR providing increased rather than decreased access to justice are discussed. The need for understanding that ADR consists of a range of different types of dispute resolution mechanisms, the need for dispute resolution system design and the need for appropriate regulation for each type of dispute resolution process are highlighted as the most important preconditions for releasing the potential of ADR as a tool to provide access to justice.

16.1 Introduction

Access to Justice and Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) movements have influenced both legal thinking of civil procedure and policymaking on the functioning and role of the courts. Both movements have uncovered weaknesses and malfunctions of the traditional court system and civil procedure, and both have offered solutions to improve and develop the systems. The two movements were born in the late 1960s and early 1970s. They both offer a criticism of civil procedure based on practical, ideological and academic knowledge and insights.

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In this text, the relationship between Access to Justice and ADR will be explored. To start, the two movements will be introduced. Both movements argue that settlements and procedures outside of the courts might be a solution under some circumstances. Then a short presentation of the discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of settlements and different methods of dispute resolution in both movements follows. The ideas of the ADR movement have been partly embraced and implemented by the legislator. The legislators have, however, only taken some limited parts of the ideas of the ADR movement; therefore, the way court-connected ADR is practised is often far from the original ideas and ideals. After the general discussion on the developments of the two movements, the way ADR can both enhance and hinder access to justice is discussed. Finally, the way ADR can be used to increase access to justice will be analysed.

16.2 Access to Justice and Alternative Dispute Resolution Movements

16.2.1 Access to Justice

The Access to Justice movement is based on the idea that the civil procedure system and legal rules should be equally accessible to every citizen. The movement has provided insights on how legal and societal structures and institutions influence the function of the courts and how the actual access to justice often is weak for many social groups. A criticism of the traditional purely normative approach to civil procedure is one of the cornerstones of the movement. It is both a reform movement for societal change and a theoretical approach,¹ based on interdisciplinary research, for analysing the problems in civil procedure.

Three “waves” of the movement have been identified: the first wave focused on the cost of litigation and the need for legal aid, the second wave focused on collective and fragmented claims and making use of class or group actions and the third wave focused on using ADR to provide an alternative way to solve disputes.² These waves are based on a broad international analysis³ and do not necessarily fit the Nordic context. In the Nordic countries, consumer protection boards and ombudsmen have been an accessible way to solve disputes,⁴ and legal aid has been readily available. However, civil (court-connected) mediation and other forms of civil alternative dispute resolution processes are fairly new in Europe.

¹ Cappelletti (1993), pp. 282–283.

² Cappelletti (1993).

³ Cappelletti and Garth (1978).

⁴ Ervasti (2004).

Access to justice refers to any type of hindrances for the citizens to have a practical and usable way to realise their legal rights. The three wave model does not cover all hindrances citizens are facing. There are many other problems than lack of legal aid, backlog of cases, formalistic rules and lack of processes suited for collective interests. The public might not be aware of the legal rights or which procedure to use; the laws are increasingly more inaccessible as they are too detailed, too open or too technical; and there might be overlapping systems of regulation on an international, national or local level.⁵ There are also some more fundamental problems with the concept of justice (and fairness), and the legally “correct” solution might not be the preferred or best for the parties. Justice is a complex phenomenon, as there are different kinds of justice: distributive justice, reparative justice, retributive justice, procedural justice, and relational justice. Justice is not merely a question about who pays what but a question of the process and on finding equity.⁶ Access to justice can be enhanced by improving processes, thereby giving the participants voice and choice, by enhancing self-determination and empowerment. Also, access to justice might be a question of satisfying non-legal, even non-monetary, interests and needs, and about the labels used, for instance dropping the labels custody and visitation have given many parents a feeling of achieving justice, although the contents of the agreement on parenting are still the same. Consequently, access to justice is much more than legal aid, legally “correct” solutions and the opportunity to have a day in court.⁷

For lawyers, understanding the “additional” problems of access to justice might be difficult. Often, access to justice is understood as access to court, *i.e.*, a possibility to get a judgment within reasonable time and for a reasonable price. However, going to court often means reducing the conflict to the legally relevant parts of it, reducing the problem of the parties to the parts recognised by the legal system as legally relevant. In the same way, solutions are limited to the law. This makes the system potentially highly paternalistic, where lawyers define what the parties need and want, and “squeeze” the parties to the sideline of the dispute resolution process. In a polycentric, principle-based, teleological legal system, only lawyers understand what the law is and can predict the outcome of the case. Therefore, the citizens are increasingly dependent on lawyers in navigating the legal system, and more vulnerable.

The Nordic societies are fairly equal, and based on cooperation rather than confrontation, and Nordic civil procedure far less contentious and confronting than its US American counterpart. Still many problems of access to justice exist: there is often not a procedure offering accessible and appropriate help to solve the legal problems of the citizens.

⁵ Rhode (2004), pp. 3–23 and Storskrubb and Ziller (2007), pp. 188–195.

⁶ Deutsch (2006).

⁷ Cappelletti (1993) and Rhode (2004).

16.2.2 *The Alternative Dispute Resolution Movement*

The Alternative Dispute Resolution movement is similar to the Access to Justice movement as it, too, is a mixture of ideological criticism, a search for better alternatives to a flawed system and scholarship showing how and why the dominant system is flawed. The ADR movement is built on a twofold criticism of litigation (and arbitration): the process and the results. The results are flawed because litigation is based on competition; distributive (win–lose) agreements limited to monetary issues and a purely legal analysis of the case. The process generally accelerates the negative conflict spiral between parties and usually disempowers and alienates the parties.⁸

The core of the movement has been directed towards developing mediation as a method for dispute resolution. Other strands of the ADR movement have been more focused on involving the parties and the local community, such as the community justice movement and groups developing public mediation initiatives such as regulation–negotiation (reg–neg). Since the 1970s, the ADR field has developed to include many different forms of dispute resolution used in various contexts, a more general theory on different forms of dispute resolution, when to choose what kind of dispute resolution and how to design dispute resolution systems within an institution.⁹

Conflict resolution theories, which the ADR movement are based on, have brought new perspectives to dispute resolution. One of the most important insights is the difference between conflicts and disputes, where the word conflict refers to the underlying set of events, facts and relationships forming the backdrop of a dispute, usually a single event that can be legally defined to form the basis for a claim. The dispute is a reformulation and a part of a conflict as it is defined by a lawyer as legally relevant. The conflict is the background of the dispute and is usually much more complex. By solving the dispute, the underlying conflict is often not solved.

The idea of ADR was to provide not only alternative dispute resolution but also *appropriate* dispute resolution,¹⁰ which means that the process matches the needs of the parties and the kind of dispute at hand. ADR is an integral part of a multi-door courthouse, where disputes are directed into different “rooms”, offering different dispute resolution processes.¹¹ Judges and legislators were also interested in the reduction in conflict levels because a reduction in the conflict level probably reduces the need for further litigation and for the government to take measures to enforce the agreement. Many were also interested in the possibility to achieve a less stressful, less contentious, and less competitive procedure and better results for the

⁸ See *inter alia* Menkel-Meadow (2000, 2006) and Zariski (2010).

⁹ Menkel-Meadow (2000, 2005).

¹⁰ Menkel-Meadow (2001), p. 979.

¹¹ See *e.g.* Sander (1976). Frank Sander is considered the father of the idea.

parties.¹² ADR could give citizens more affordable and faster ways of solving their cases than litigation. Especially, small claim mediation and neighbourhood justice centres could contribute towards this aim and would therefore also contribute to access to justice.¹³

The growth of ADR, especially mediation, outside the courts, has been dependent on three concurrent developments: dissatisfaction with the legal process for creating good results, dissatisfaction with cost and delay of court procedures and the increased legislation on arbitration making arbitration more expensive and less flexible. The dissatisfaction with the procedure itself and the results could to some degree, be compared to the limited aspects of justice, namely mostly the distributive, discussed in court, and the limited legal remedies.¹⁴

As different dispute resolution processes have been developed, ADR today includes theories on different types of dispute resolution and on dispute resolution system design. Different ways of classifying dispute resolution have been developed. One important method of distinguishing between the systems is to look at the role of the third party involved. In *adjudicative processes*, the third party decides the case for the parties (e.g., arbitration); in *non-binding adjudicative processes* the third party decides the case but the decision is not binding for the parties (e.g., non-binding arbitration, summary jury trial); in *evaluative processes*, the third party gives an evaluation of the case, or a recommendation, but does not give a final decision (e.g., Early Neutral Evaluation, Expert Evaluation); in *facilitative processes*, the third party helps the parties find a solution but does not decide or give a recommendation (e.g., mediation, conciliation); and in *non-third party processes*, the parties decide the case without involving a third party (e.g., collaborative law, negotiation). There are also mixed or hybrid processes, combining elements from two or more pure processes (e.g., med-arb, evaluative mediation and mini-trial).¹⁵

The second way of classifying processes is to look at the use of norms: are the norms used predominantly legal, social or professional; who decides which norms are used, and are (legal/social) roles used as the sole or primary source for the outcome; or can the parties themselves decide if norms are used and which norms are used? The parties can either get help to form norms to solve the conflict (and future interaction between the parties); the parties could be educated about relevant norms, which they could then adapt and apply in their conflict, or the third person could advocate the use of, and a specific understanding of, a certain set of norms, usually legal or technical norms.¹⁶

¹² These goals are clearly stated in the government bills in the Nordic countries, see the Dansih Report no. 1481/2005 on court-connected mediation, the Finnish Hallituksen esitys HE 284/2010 and the Norwegian NOU 2001:32.

¹³ Christie (1977).

¹⁴ See e.g. Menkel-Meadow (2006) and Menkel-Meadow (2001).

¹⁵ See e.g. Kovach (2004), pp. 6–18 and Moore (2003), pp. 6–14.

¹⁶ Waldman (1997).

The second way is to look at the level of formality in the processes and categorise them as formal, semi-formal and informal.¹⁷ The third way is the most holistic approach as it offers a number of different variables for evaluating the relative formality or informality of any dispute resolution process.

From early on, the ADR movement has faced many challenges, especially within the legal court-connected context. Mediation has become a term used to describe a wide range of processes. This is problematic because the movement is not just about finding alternative but also about finding appropriate dispute resolution and requires that many different processes should be available to find the most appropriate procedure to solve a specific dispute. When ADR is reduced to mediation, the benefit of having a range of processes will disappear.¹⁸

Moreover, court-connected mediation has been co-opted by lawyers and often reduced to a process resembling judicial settlement conferences. Much of the criticism of dispute resolution within the court system and much of the ideas for offering alternative, more constructive and economically more sound process and outcomes were lost in the process. This development is discussed in more detail below.

Finally, the focus has been on dispute resolution within the court system, as court-connected dispute resolution. ADR often refers to dispute resolution where the court mandates or recommends alternative dispute resolution after the parties have filed the case, has shifted focus away from dispute resolution outside the courts and the narrow legal frame, such as dispute resolution boards and neighbourhood justice.

Consequently, lawyers, policymakers and the legislator often lack an understanding of the idea of ADR as appropriate dispute resolution and of the many different and truly alternative ways to solve disputes. ADR as a synonym for mediation (and sometimes arbitration) is only a small piece of what the movement has to offer for dispute resolution, the society and research and theories on dispute resolution.

16.2.3 Rhetoric and Reality of ADR

Court-connected mediation, the most discussed and visible form of ADR, was introduced to give the parties in disputes an alternative, faster, less stressful, more durable, and more interest-based process. In practice, the most important argument for introducing court-connected ADR, particularly court-connected mediation, seems to be economical. Mediation is considered faster and cheaper, therefore a way to reduce congestion and the backlog of cases and reduce the workload of the judiciary. There are many claims that mediation will result in a cheaper process for the parties. The rhetoric has clearly been adopted from the US American debate. However, there is no evidence from research that mediation is cheaper than litigation for the society, the courts and the parties.¹⁹

¹⁷ Menkel-Meadow (2012).

¹⁸ Gerencser (1998) and Love and Kovach (2000).

¹⁹ Wissler (2004), pp. 67–68.

Mediation is often presented as a process where the mediator helps the parties to negotiate an interest-based solution, which will be more durable than a traditional judgment. However, when mediation is described in more detail, the less it looks like a facilitative, interest-based, informal and norm-generating process. The main goal seems to be reaching settlement, regardless of its content, as fast as possible.²⁰ The rules governing mediation are often very general, and mediation is not clearly defined. Mediation is often used as a synonym for ADR, and covers a range of different procedures, without making a distinction between them and how to choose the most appropriate for the individual case.

The rhetoric promises a cheap, fast, facilitative, interest-based process, but reality does not match it. The research available on the practice of court-connected mediation in the Nordic countries, in addition to more anecdotal evidence, shows that mediation is often practised as an evaluation session, where the mediator will give his or her prediction of the probable outcome of a trial. Sometimes the process could be described as a non-binding mini-trial or mini-arbitration: the mediator will recommend a solution, thus setting pressure on the parties to accept a specific solution (with minor changes).²¹ Other mediators will be less directive but still use some indirect pressure on the parties to reach a settlement, adopt a certain view on how the case should be solved, or both. Some will be facilitative but define the problem narrowly, and some will be both facilitative and interest based. Mediation has been co-opted and could be described as “litigotiation”²² or “litimediation”.²³

The practice is not surprising, considering that mediation as a facilitative, interest-based, informal and norm-generating process is very different from the traditional way of legal thinking and what most lawyers have been educated to do. The more formal and adjudicative a process is, the more familiar it is to lawyers (who are trained to decide cases and to give their clients an estimate of the probable outcome in a trial); thus, lawyers seem to design and use processes that are similar to a trial. When lawyers do not understand the theoretical foundations nor have (sufficient) training in the skills needed, they tend to use more familiar processes but might still label the adjudicative or evaluative, formal or semi-formal processes as facilitative, informal processes.

In a lawyer-dominated setting, especially court-connected mediation, the judges, mediators and advocates will resort to more evaluative or even adjudicative, law-based, semi-formal and norm-advocating process. The traditional idea of settlement, without expanding it to the new reasons and justifications, becomes the dominant factor in determining the *raison-d'être* for ADR. ADR is therefore often, in reality, an avenue for settlement, not an increased access to justice. Parties

²⁰ See *e.g.* McAdoo and Hinshaw (2002). See Mykland (2010) for the Norwegian reality of mediation.

²¹ Mykland (2010), Adrian (2012) and Knoff (2001).

²² Galanter (1985), p. 1.

²³ Lande (1997), p. 840.

should settle to save time and money, not participate in ADR, because they might get more or more precise justice in a better process.

16.3 Is Settlement and ADR Better than Litigation?

In most societies, settlement and conciliation is preferred over contentious litigation. Therefore, the current trend to promote settlement is not a new turn but a new twist. The new development is the reasons for preferring settlement are economical rather than social,²⁴ and the organisation of settlement activities. Many scholars²⁵ have criticised the current debate for over-emphasising the benefits of settlement, or disregarding the drawbacks of settlement,²⁶ rather than discussing under which circumstances a settlement can be considered “good”.

Both the Access to Justice and the ADR movements have supplied reasons for preferring other types of dispute resolution than litigation (and arbitration): the processes are often cheaper and faster; they are open for more party participation; they allow solutions that are not limited to the distributive, legally defined monetary solutions offered by law; and the outcome is often more satisfactory; therefore, the parties comply to it. Additionally, new procedures often cater to the needs of multiparty cases better than civil litigation does. Finally, conciliation, or non-contentious procedures, is considered less stressful and less harmful for the future relations between the parties.

However, settlement and conciliation might also work against the goals of both movements. In some cases, a precedent is needed or publicity is needed to set an example or to show that a party is a “repeat offender”. The organisation and use of ADR might result in “poor justice for the poor”²⁷ or “discount justice”.²⁸ This means that the procedure is highly settlement oriented, and the third party pressures the parties to settle regardless of the terms of the settlement or whether the parties are willing to accept the settlement. In other cases, ADR becomes a quasi-trial without the legal safeguards of publicity, reasoned decisions, sufficient opportunities for the parties to argue their case or sufficiently adversarial, especially if private meetings are used. The argument of saving time and money might be false if the parties make decisions that are not informed, especially if the parties would never enter into an agreement on such terms when having sufficient information. Also, if the parties do not settle their case, they will have to go through expensive and time-consuming litigation. The more ADR resembles tossing a coin, or an abbreviated

²⁴ See also Cappelletti (1993), p. 287.

²⁵ Among others Galanter and Cahill (1994) and Menkel-Meadow (1985).

²⁶ Fiss (1984).

²⁷ Cappelletti (1974).

²⁸ Dalberg-Larsen (2009), pp. 118–121.

trial with (indirect) mediator pressure to settle, the less it fulfils the ideas and goals of both the Access to Justice and the ADR movements.

ADR consists of a range of very different procedures, some of which are appropriate for some conflicts in some contexts, while others are not, and vice versa. Therefore, ADR in general does not promote access to justice in all cases. By offering one or two different ADR processes, good settlements can be promoted in a way that increases access to justice. However, introducing new ADR mechanisms is not enough. The organisation of the programs; funding of them; training of the personnel, particularly the third party neutrals; and the rules and regulations will have an impact on whether a particular dispute resolution process has the capacity to enhance access to justice. Even though a process as such might have the potential of contributing to increased access to justice, funding or regulation might result in the potential not being released and realised. Important factors are the following: which cases should be directed to which kind of dispute resolution program; how are the programs defined, regulated and organised; and what kind of training and experience is required of the third persons?²⁹ The key question is then not whether ADR can enhance access to justice but under which circumstances.

16.4 ADR as a Hindrance to Access to Justice

Access to Justice and ADR are based partly on the same or similar principles; therefore, ADR seems to be a good solution to increase access to justice. In practice, ADR, or more precisely court-connected mediation, has not contributed significantly to increased access to justice. How can two movements that partly overlap have conflicting results?

ADR is supposed to be a solution to the problem of cost and delay of going to court. One of the most cited reasons for introducing court-connected mediation is saving cost and time. However, there is no evidence that court-connected mediation saves time and money.³⁰ Many cases are settled before trial without the parties having to resort to mediation. While court-connected mediation provides relatively speedy and cheap dispute resolution for those who settle, in cases where the parties do not settle mediation causes increased delay and costs. Some of the mediated cases would settle before trial without mediation. Research from the US shows that some parties who were pressured into settling their cases will try to overturn the settlement by suing the mediator or by referring to duress or undue pressure or by trying to escape the agreement in other ways.³¹ In the Nordic experience, there are

²⁹ Lande (2007), Oberman (2008), Gerencser (1998), p. 857 ff., Menkel-Meadow (1997) and Fuller (1971).

³⁰ Wissler (2004).

³¹ Nolan-Haley (1999, 2009), Welsh (2001) and Oberman (2008).

some dissatisfied parties,³² but so far post-settlement litigation has been very rare. One might therefore argue that ADR is introduced to limit the access to courts, as the parties are not only encouraged but also sometimes pressured or mandated to use ADR before filing a case or before trial.³³

Another hindrance for access to justice is the court procedure and the outcomes of it. Procedural rules, especially rules on evidence, might hinder what can be discussed and which facts the process and the solution can be based on. The adversarial nature of civil procedure encourages competition and focuses on disagreement rather than cooperation, empowerment and relation building. Civil procedure is oriented towards the past problems and injustice made, not future solutions making the wrong right. Legal rules have monetary compensation as the primary, and almost exclusive, remedy. Together, the law and legal practices might hinder access to perceived justice. Although Nordic civil procedure seldom offers a “winner takes it all” justice of the US American system, many parties will walk away from court as losers. The winning party seldom gets the “jackpot”: losses are often distributed to both parties as neither party will win on all accounts. Facilitative and interest-based dispute resolution processes could offer an alternative process based on negotiations, dialogue, cooperation and broader interests, and persons and communities normally excluded from the court process could participate. The results could be more satisfactory as a broader range of remedies and solutions could be included, and different forms of justice could be used. However, because the “mediation” process often mimics a trial, and the discussion is based on the legal process and the law, parties do not achieve an alternative process and alternative outcomes.

ADR as appropriate dispute resolution requires that the parties are offered several different processes and that they have information on the processes available. Unless the parties know which processes they might choose from and what each process implies, they will not be able to choose an appropriate process, a process that fits their needs. As ADR often is reduced to mediation, and the rhetoric of the mediation process does not match reality, parties do not have a true choice of dispute resolution process, nor do they get a process that matches the promises. Thus, ADR does not increase access to justice but, on the contrary, reduces it. The mediation process does not match the descriptions given, nor is it fair due to (indirect) mediator pressure. Norway is a good example of how different, but partly overlapping, mediation procedures do not give the parties increased opportunities for appropriate dispute resolution because lack of information and lack of clearly defined processes make informed decision-making very difficult.³⁴ In spite of the shortcomings of the mediation process in practice, parties tend to be satisfied. The reason might be that they are relieved to be finished with the dispute, to finally be able to go on, or that they feel the process despite its shortcomings is preferable to a more stressful and unpredictable trial.

³² Adrian (2012), pp. 311–317 and Knoff (2001), p. 1165.

³³ Leipold (2008), p. 78.

³⁴ See Chap. 6 in this volume.

In the US, mediation has been used as a way to solve small claim cases. However, research shows that mediation often offers “hit-or-miss justice” for unrepresented parties.³⁵ Unrepresented parties waive their rights and are pressured into settlement without giving their informed consent.³⁶ The problem is not the mediation process in itself but lack of opportunities to consult a lawyer, pressure to settle, sessions with little mediation and much evaluation. In the Nordic countries, the use of mediation in small claim cases has often been discouraged, as mediation might cause more costs and delays and mediation might be difficult if only one party is represented. In my opinion, ADR could be a tool for small claim cases. The problems with mediation in small claim cases could be solved with careful program design, offering both consultation on legal rights and a broad mediation process. Small claim ADR processes require good knowledge of dispute process design.

ADR has not been used to increase access to justice by providing more opportunities for dispute resolution for new types of cases. One of the great advantages with ADR is that it consists of a range of processes and that the processes can be formed to fit each case. Many of the limitations of traditional civil procedure, such as problems with multiparty processes and disputes involving ongoing relationships, can be overcome by designing and using the proper ADR process. However, ADR has, with few exceptions, been used to expand dispute resolution services or to find more appropriate ways of solving conflicts. The Norwegian National Mediation Service, discussed in Chap. 6 in this volume, is an exception.

ADR is a hindrance to justice when the organisation, funding, legislation, training and general structure of the dispute resolution system are not clear. In order to work properly, each ADR process used should be clearly defined in terms of what the goal of the process is, what the results will be, what the role of the third party is and what the process will be like. Rules governing the specific process should match the process in terms of level of formality of the process, use of norms and over-all goal of the process. The qualifications, training and experience the third person conducting the ADR depends on the process used. For example, mediation requires very different knowledge and skills than litigation, and therefore mediation training should be required for all mediators, whereas non-binding arbitration or a legal evaluation requires other skills. Methods of recourse against the third person and the possible outcome or settlement should be appropriate for the dispute resolution process at hand. Additionally, the organisation of the process should be discussed as it has an impact on the process: should ADR be court conducted, conducted by court-connected mediators; should private dispute resolution professionals be used; or should state or non-state agencies administer ADR?

The rules and regulations for different ADR processes are seldom discussed in-depth. There is a general understanding that general rules of civil procedure are not appropriate for ADR. The use of mediation as a synonym for ADR has made the debate much more difficult. Since all ADR processes are different, all require

³⁵ Nolan-Haley (1999).

³⁶ Engler (1999).

different rules. The more formal the process is, the more appropriate the general rules of civil procedure are, and vice versa. Thus, ADR as in giving the parties a “mini-arbitration” with an estimate of the probable court decision needs very different rules, than an evaluative session where the third party makes statements on strengths and weaknesses of the parties cases, and suggest ways to move forward, or in facilitative mediation, or consumer complaint boards. Different procedures require different rules, different organisation and different training of the third party neutrals; they do not deserve to be called mediation but to be recognised for what they are.³⁷ Today, ADR and court-connected mediation, in particular, are a black box where the mediator is free to do many things, including pressuring the parties and being highly directive, without the parties being able to complain in an effective manner.³⁸

16.5 ADR as a Tool to Enhance Access to Justice

16.5.1 *Introduction to How ADR Can Be Used*

Although the use of ADR has so far not resulted in increased access to justice, it still has unleashed potential as a tool to provide access to justice. This requires political will to extend dispute resolution services to new types of cases and populations, not just trying to save money in the judiciary. Three important elements must be embraced by the legislator and policymakers to make ADR a tool to enhance access to justice. First, ADR is a set of very different processes suitable for different disputes. Second, the ADR processes have unique qualities that should be respected and nourished to reap the fruits of ADR. Third, the greatest potential lies in the facilitative interest-based processes as they offer the biggest alternative to the limitations of traditional civil litigation.

16.5.2 *ADR as a Range of Different Procedures*

The first insight means that “mediation” can no longer be used as a synonym for ADR, nor can the rules be such that the “mediation” process can be shaped in almost any way, and the “mediator” can do almost anything except exert direct and heavy pressure. Rather, ADR must be defined as a range of procedures. This means recognising that ADR procedures can be adjudicative, evaluative, facilitative or

³⁷ Menkel-Meadow (2012) and Love and Kovach (2000).

³⁸ Norwegian Supervisory committee for judges case 21/11 of 14 July 2011, Mykland (2010) and Adrian (2012).

mixing elements from these procedures. Each of the procedures has advantages and disadvantages and can be adapted to different types of cases.³⁹

The result should be a multi-door courthouse or, even, a multi-door dispute resolution centre. It allows fitting the forum to the fuss,⁴⁰ *i.e.*, choosing the most appropriate process for each case. ADR should be Appropriate Dispute Resolution, where each case would be decided in a process chosen according to the needs of the parties and the type of the case. Knowledge of different forms of dispute resolution and of dispute resolution system design is required to develop an appropriate system. Not all forms of ADR need to be (or can be) included in a system, but in order to make the system an efficient one, knowledge of the basic forms, their adaptations and subforms and of combining different forms is required.

A system using different forms of ADR in the courts also requires an intake “screening”, an analysis of the conflict, in order for the agency providing the dispute resolution services to direct cases to the most appropriate process.⁴¹ The neutral third parties working within the system must understand the other forms of processes provided, know how to analyse a conflict to determine if their process is the most appropriate and to redirect the case to another type of process that might turn out to be more appropriate and understand the limits and relative advantages and disadvantages of their own process.

In addition to court-connected ADR processes, community-based ADR processes and different types of complaint boards should also be available. Community-based processes can increase access to justice by offering conflict resolution rather than dispute resolution. This means that the conflict does not have to be defined in legal terms and the parties do not need to engage lawyers or restrict the case to the limitations of the legal system by excluding issues of a more personal nature or by restricting participants in conflict resolution to those defined as parties by law. Legal classifications will not have to be respected; thus, cases involving minor misdemeanours can be included in civil conflict resolution if there is not a need to prosecute for setting an example for others. In community-based programs, the conflict does not have to be defined as a legal problem by the parties, although it can be, nor does the legal system have to define it as a legal problem. The National Mediation Service in Norway, discussed in Chap. 6 in this volume, is an example of a community-based program. The range of conflict resolution programs offered by the National Mediation Service could, however, be increased to offer citizens a better opportunity to solve their conflicts. Community-based programs should also be attractive to small businesses.

A system of community-based dispute resolution and complaint boards requires that citizens, businesses and lawyers have enough information about the service available to them and of their comparative advantages. If the general public knows

³⁹ See among others Lande (1997), Love and Kovach (2000), Oberman (2008) and Menkel-Meadow (2012).

⁴⁰ Sander and Goldberg (1994).

⁴¹ Sander (1976).

when and how to turn to these services, the need for hiring a lawyer and further escalating a conflict can be avoided and the parties can find an early, and therefore cheap and fast, solution to their problems. Lawyers as a group should have more information about these services to be able to direct clients to them. Only when lawyers feel they have sufficient information about the services available and understand the relative advantages can they direct appropriate cases. For the services to be used in more cases, the role of lawyers must be addressed, both to make the conflict resolution process simple and cheap and to prevent it from being poor justice. By involving lawyers in an appropriate way when there is a need, such services will be more attractive for lawyers to recommend to their (potential future) clients.

16.5.3 Well-Defined Procedures with Appropriate Regulation

The second insight is to understand that each process needs its own rules and regulations, its unique definition and training for third party neutrals. Some of the problems are a consequence of the fact that mediation as process, the values and ideas it is built on, has been compromised and “co-opted” by lawyers. Mediation has been seen as a black box where the mediator is free to do almost anything to make the parties settle the case, although settlement as such is not primarily the focus of the mediation process. In some jurisdictions, the result has been to try to regulate mediation by prohibiting mediator pressure or evaluation. Often, however, the result has been less than satisfactory, both because many lawyers do not understand the problems with highly directive mediator behaviour and lack of party self-determination and because using laws to regulate mediation has proven to be a difficult, perhaps even an impossible, task.⁴²

The problem is not primarily the way the processes are conducted but the organisation and regulation of the processes. In some cases, offering an evaluation on an issue or the entire case is an appropriate dispute resolution method; in other cases, the parties will benefit more from mediation or a non-binding adjudicative process. Today, many processes are called mediation, although the content and nature of the process is in fact highly evaluative, and sometimes even of a non-binding adjudicative character. This is a problem because finding the right process is difficult when no distinction is made between processes of very different character. Also, the quality of the processes and the third parties conducting them cannot be monitored, and many processes might be dysfunctional due to lack of proper standards and rules. Finally, lack of clear definitions and standards decreases the procedural justice.

The parties should be able to understand what kind of ADR process they are entering, what their rights are and what the results of the process might be. For

⁴² Lande (2007) and Menkel-Meadow (2012).

instance, when an ADR process is conducted as an “abbreviated trial”, resulting in a recommendation for the solution, or a how the court would decide the case, the parties must be aware of the nature of the process. They should not be promised a party-centred, interest- and discussion-based problem-solving process with a facilitative third party neutral when they are offered a lawyer and a law-driven process mimicking a trial. The “abbreviated trial” model requires that the third party neutral is a lawyer with expertise in the relevant field(s) of law, and the parties usually need legal representation or an understanding of the benefits thereof and the risks of appearing *pro se*. The process might of course be designed to cater self-represented parties, giving the process a more inquisitory and educational turn. An “abbreviated trial” mimics a formal process and is itself a fairly formal process where formal rules are used. Therefore, formal rules are needed to give parties due process. Formal processes should, among other things, be based on the principles of publicity and on documenting the process, party statements and recommendation in writing. In a formal process, private meetings should not be allowed. These requirements does not mean a full public hearing and the same requirements for written statements and “judgments” but use of written documentation of the main arguments and the main reasons for the recommended solution.

In the same token, evaluative processes should be openly evaluative. Depending on the type of evaluation offered, different requirements should be made to the third party neutral used. The rules for the process should be tailored to the type of evaluation offered, and parties should have a clear understanding of the process they are entering. For instance, a process could be designed where parties have the opportunity to give a brief presentation of their cases then get an evaluation on the strengths and weaknesses of their cases and an estimate of possible outcomes. The parties need to understand and, when needed, trace how and why the neutral recommends or suggests a particular solution. Parties also need to be free from pressure to settle, in particular pressure to accept a specific type of solution. Such process requires rules and regulation different from an “abbreviated trial” type of ADR process and from mediation.

Mediation requires quite different skills than formal and semi-formal processes, such as conflict analysis and behaviour, understanding decision-making traps, active listening skills and training in creative problem solving. In a facilitative informal process, the parties need safeguards against mediator pressure, both pressure to settle the case and pressure to accept a certain view on what is important or relevant in the case, including possible solutions. Mediation is, as a process, very different from adjudication; therefore, the rules and regulations should be tailored to fit it as a process.

Some processes might be abbreviated “trials”, but they should be so openly and with appropriate rules and regulations. There are many abbreviated processes in the Nordic countries offering the parties cheap, simple and accessible dispute resolution. One important example is the numerous consumer complaint boards, where a panel consisting of representatives for consumer organisations, businesses and neutral parties solve the cases. The costs for using the processes are very low, and the processes are simple to allow for *pro se* parties. Although many boards have

only the power to give recommendations, not binding solutions, businesses generally accept the decisions as if they were binding. Therefore, a criticism of the current way of offering mediation as an “abbreviated trial” is not about the processes as such but the organisation, regulation and practice of the processes.

16.5.4 The Potential of Facilitative, Interest-Based Processes

The greatest potential in the ADR movement comes from the less formal processes, particularly the ones where the parties are the primary agents, actively engaged in forming the process and the norms used to solve the conflict, and the interests of the parties are used to determine good solutions. Such processes offer new ways of dispute resolution, as the process and the outcomes are quite different from traditional legal processes. These processes also fit new types of cases as multiparty mediation, neighbourhood justice, regulation–negotiation and similar processes are useful methods for involving a greater number of participants with (partly) conflicting interests.

The Norwegian National Mediation Service has had, for more than two decades, had an important role in solving, among other things, conflicts between neighbours. The monetary interest in such conflicts is usually low, but the conflict itself has a profound impact on the quality of life of the parties. By offering a cheap and relatively quick process focused on dialogue and fostering greater understanding, the parties are given access to justice at a reasonable costs, often reducing the likelihood of future conflicts. The reason for success is that mediation is based on clearly defined procedure, the mediators are trained and the organisation of the mediation service minimises the costs and enhances accessibility. These processes may generate more specific justice than traditional legal processes because different forms of justice can be satisfied, not just distributive justice, and because the unique needs, interests and preferences of the parties determine the outcome, not some general rules. When the parties generate their own solutions, they are likely to be more satisfactory and, to a larger extent, cater the needs of the parties. The conflict level is probably reduced, as the parties work with the underlying conflict, not just its legal manifestations, and as the outcome is a result of an informed decision made by the parties, the parties probably feel more bound to it.

Part of the facilitative or even negotiating processes is learning conflict resolution skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills and negotiation skills. The parties learn skills from the third party neutral and even from their own experts and attorneys. This may reduce the need for formal dispute resolution later on.

The collaborative law movement has been an important contribution to increasing access to justice. In collaborative law, the attorneys, and other experts involved in the process, agree that they will not take the case to court if negotiations fail. The parties need to engage new attorneys if they want to go to court. Hence, the respective attorneys will try to collaborate rather than to compete to find a good solution. Collaboration will result in reduced costs for the parties, earlier solution

and potentially better solution.⁴³ Conflict resolution involving organisations, communities or neighbourhoods might result in designing a system for conflict resolution or solving the problems underlying the conflict.

Facilitative or evaluative processes cannot stand alone as the only processes offered. There will be a solution only if the parties find a mutually agreeable solution. Therefore, other conflict resolution processes must be available, and processes offering binding solutions must be available as a last resort. Although facilitative processes might be a benefit for both the parties and the society at large, binding conflict resolution should be available as an accessible alternative. The door to binding conflict resolution should always be open. Especially if participation in facilitative or evaluative processes is mandatory or almost mandatory (*e.g.*, programs where the parties can opt out of the required program or where parties risk sanctions for failing to attend the program or comply to rules requiring using such programs), the parties should not be forced to use much time and money on facilitative processes. In voluntary processes, the pressure exerted on parties to try ADR should be taken into account when deciding how much time and money the parties are expected to use before trying another type of procedure. Otherwise, the attendance in the ADR program will hinder access to justice because it is more difficult to go to court. The parties might feel pressured to accept an unsatisfactory (or even unlawful) settlement to end the dispute because they do not have, or are not willing to use, the time, money and other resources to use on further dispute resolution. Here resources must be understood broadly, including emotional costs, the costs arising from insecurity of the outcome, etc.

A dispute resolution system consisting of several different types of (ADR) processes should have a clear structure, in order for the parties to decide which type of dispute resolution is most appropriate for them and what the alternatives are. A party in a facilitative process might want to switch to a binding or evaluative dispute resolution mechanism, when it has a comparative advantage in the present case. The parties and the third party neutrals should be able to end processes which turn out to be inappropriate, and turn to more appropriate processes. It is important to recognise that not all cases fit to facilitative processes: sometimes a precedent, setting an example or clarifications of norms is necessary, and even beneficial. Sometimes the opposite is true: cases seemingly inappropriate for facilitative procedures might be a good fit. Many lawyers often assume there is no integrative, creative potential in a dispute, although the opposite might be true. Therefore parties should be given tools to evaluate which process fits their needs best.

⁴³ See *e.g.* Tesler (2008).

16.6 Conclusions on ADR and Access to Justice

The Access to Justice movement and the ADR movement have partly overlapping, and to a high degree compatible, goals. The most important overlapping goals are making “justice” more accessible by offering processes better suited for types of cases or party needs that are currently underserved or unmet, and by including a wider definition of justice than the narrow distributive, strictly legal view taken in traditional legal processes. By extending the range of dispute resolution processes available, society can, at least in theory, increase access to justice.

However, in practice the introduction of ADR processes has been often done in order to reduce the resources spent on dispute resolution, especially the resources used by the courts. Maximising litigation or the resources used on litigation is not optimal or even desirable, but the problem is when the main argument for introducing ADR seems to be saving of costs, “the production argument”, rather than the “quality argument”,⁴⁴ of directing cases into appropriate, or optimal, dispute resolution processes. Additionally there has been a lack of understanding of the importance of the knowledge and skills required of the third party neutrals in the new processes; the range of ADR processes and variations and adaptations available; training and organisation of third party neutrals; regulation, organisation and funding of the new processes; and of the dispute resolution system design processes needed to make a “multi-door courthouse” or similar system workable. The result is a system where ADR often reduces the access to justice rather than enhances it. In other word, ADR has often been misunderstood and misused as a tool for enhancing access to justice.

There are, however, some examples of the opposite: ADR processes such as the Nordic consumer complaint boards and the Norwegian National Mediation Service are examples of ADR enhancing access to justice. Creating a good dispute resolution system requires both political will to using resources on enhancing access to justice, and having people who have in-depth knowledge, understanding and skills in conflict resolution, in designing systems, organisation of different ADR processes, individual ADR processes and their adaptations and in regulating ADR processes. Today, there are perhaps a handful of people having one or several of the required competencies in the Nordic countries. Thus, making the most of ADR as a tool for enhancing access to justice will take time and requires us to gain expertise in conflict resolution and dispute systems design. Having gained researched-based knowledge, we can create a dispute resolution system for the benefit of society at large. The Nordic countries have potential to become leaders in the field creating a system with multiple ADR processes enhancing access to justice. There are already some experiences with different ADR processes, and there are many scholars with extensive knowledge in the field.

⁴⁴ Galanter (1985), pp. 8–12.

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Chapter 17

Class Actions or Collective Redress: The Need for an Efficient European Tool

Elena Martínez García

Abstract Collective redress makes sense both in court-based litigation and in alternative dispute resolution (ADR). Yet while the courts generally have a good sense of collective redress (though arguably there is room for improvements), in the second framework, there are some contradictions from a dogmatic point of view. When collective interests come up in conflict, judicial coercion and a judicial structure are often needed to resolve the conflict. In addition, the absence of a voluntary agreement, especially from the abuser's side, makes it more difficult to resolve conflicts using ADR. The future EU Directive in Consumer Collective Redress aims to bring a new era to the field. In this paper, I summarise the standards that Spanish rules include as a part of this new period in consumer protection.

17.1 The Current European Situation

To begin this reflection about the need to create a useful tool for the consumer collective protection in the European Union, it is necessary to start with the idea of how similar and different we are as member countries. If we were all quite similar, we would not need the intervention of the European Union. Any study made from these common minimum among Member States regarding the protection of consumers requires the following:

1. an analysis of all our systems of civil procedure—not only in the judiciary sense but also from an extrajudicial perspective; and
2. an analysis of the cross-border element so that the exercise of collective redress is enabled as if it were a national process.

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In 2008, the Commission of the European Communities published a green paper *On Consumer Collective Redress*.¹ The purpose was to find the best tools for promoting consumer and retailer rights in Europe. The discussion in the paper centred on how to promote access to justice in consumer cases. The discussion is pertinent, especially because class action lawsuits do not fit well into the European system and, especially, into the continental system. As a result, punitive damages, contingency fees and other things that belong to some non-European countries are not available and, in my opinion, should be avoided in European solutions.² However, in many respects, the world, through globalisation, has become smaller for users and abusers but not for the courts, which still must live within the confines of jurisdictional borders. The European Union has found a solution, part of which is the recently approved Recommendation³ to all Member States, to have collective redress mechanisms in place to ensure effective access to justice (11 June 2013).⁴

Mass contracts, and some damages that derivate from non-contractual relations, are characterised by the same, or almost identical, *causa petendi* and different (or identical) *petitum*. The amounts being claimed are usually very low compared

¹ Brussels, 27.11.2008 COM (2008) 794 final.

² Green Paper, p. 12.

³ See http://ec.europa.eu/justice/newsroom/civil/news/130611_en.htm.

⁴ According to the main principles of the Commission's Recommendation, all Member States must develop a national collective redress systems under the following common European principles:

Member States should have a system of collective redress that allows private individuals and entities to seek court orders ceasing infringements of their rights granted by EU law (so-called "injunctive relief") and to claim damages for harm caused by such infringements (so-called "compensatory relief") in a situation where a large number of persons are harmed by the same illegal practice.

Member States should ensure that the collective redress procedures are fair, equitable, timely, and not prohibitively expensive.

Collective redress systems should, as a general rule, must be based on the "opt-in" principle, under which claimant parties are formed through directly expressed consent of their members. Any exception to this principle, by law or by court order, should be duly justified by reasons of sound administration of justice. In parallel, the Recommendation stresses the need to provide information to potential claimants who may wish to join the collective action.

The Commission recommends important procedural safeguards to make sure there are no incentives to abuse collective redress systems. Member States should, for example, not permit contingency fees, as they risk creating an incentive for abuses. In addition, the entities representing claimants have to be of non-profit character, to ensure they are guided by the interests of those affected in situations of mass damages. Another way of preventing abusive litigation is the prohibition of punitive damages, which usually increases the economic interests at stake in such actions. Instead, full compensation should reach individuals once the court confirms they are right in their claims.

The Recommendation also promotes Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR), requiring that this possibility is offered to the parties on a consensual basis.

to the costs of justice, in general terms. This is demonstrated by the data obtained from the *Flash Eurobarometer* survey on “Consumer attitudes to cross border trade and consumer protection”,⁵ where it is quite clear that nowadays there are no adequate solutions by the European Union or national legislators, which, in essence, means we are ignoring the rights and guarantees of justice of the citizen concerned.⁶

At this stage, we can find several conclusions very interesting in the field: almost three-quarters of retailers in the European Union used the “distance sales channel”. There are some results that situate the economic threshold between 100 and 2,500 euros. Forty-four per cent of retailers and consumers were not aware of the existence of such collective mechanisms; 79 % of European consumers indicate they would be more willing to defend their rights in court if they could join other consumers with the same claim, and, on average, 9 % of users in the European Union have used ADR mechanisms to settle disputes with customers in the past 2 years.

So after reading this survey, it would be possible to conclude that the existing instruments for compensation and consumer protection in the European Union are not considered satisfactory or are little used. As a result, a first conclusion, or better still a starting point, could be that when a number of citizens are victims of the same infringement, individual actions cannot be an effective tool to stop illegal practices or to obtain compensation, especially when the individual loss is small compared to the costs of litigation. We need to ensure their effective access to justice with strengthened safeguards, and some harmonisation should be welcome. In accordance with the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality, it is necessary to act at EU level to improve the current regulatory framework: so indirectly it will generate consumer confidence and facilitate the functioning of the internal market. It makes sense if we affirm that this may probably represent a future transformation of national civil procedural laws in order to create a unique system of protection.

The European Parliament has achieved a legally binding horizontal framework and safeguards for the next future regulation in Europe. This is the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions in the document: *Towards a European Horizontal Framework for Collective Redress*.⁷ Of course, we have another two starting points:

⁵ http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_299_sum_en.pdf y vid. Fallon (1992), “Cross-border consumer litigation: Individual tort issues in Europe”, *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 15 núm. 4.

⁶ Ferrajoli (2004a, b), Martínez García (2011b), pp. 197 y ss.

⁷ COM (2013) 401/2.

1. There is a European regulatory framework for *consumer actions* in cross-border litigation.⁸
2. There are also some rules concerning *claiming small* amounts individually in cross-border litigation.⁹

So if this is the framework to start from this new developing time in collective redress, the next step will be to explain how the different national rules must be adapted to this new proposal of a legal binding frame. In my case, the question will be to find out and answer how far the Spanish civil procedure system is from the horizontal framework provided by European Union for the immediate future in the Consumer Collective Redress regulation and how much effort we should make to implement such a cross-border system.

The central points in this study focus on the following: (a) the right to access justice in cross-border litigation and the enforcement of title in several European Union countries, (b) how this unique process should be, (c) the collective interests that should be present, (d) legitimacy (stand), (e) the powers of the judge, (f) sentence (*res judicata*) and (g) executive process.

These questions are applied only in litigation, but they could exist also in the ADR system,¹⁰ although the latter includes additional problem areas (such as legitimacy).

17.2 The Spanish Collective Redress System

In Spain, we have implemented nearly all this EU framework through several specific rules related to consumer protection.¹¹ To understand all of them and go deeper into the analysis of collective redress in Spain, it must be said that Spain has

⁸ Commission staff working document of 4 February 2011 entitled ‘Public Consultation: Towards a Coherent European Approach to Collective Redress’ (SEC(2011)0173); ‘Quantifying harm in actions for damages based on breaches of Article 101 or 102 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union’, published by the Commission in June 2011; Directive 2009/22/EC on injunctions for the protection of consumers’ interests; Green Paper on consumer collective redress, published by the Commission in 2008 and to the consultation paper for discussion 2009; White Paper on damages actions for breach of the EC antitrust rules in 2009.

⁹ Directive 2008/52/EC on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters; Regulation (EC) No. 805/2004 creating a European Enforcement Order for uncontested claims; Regulation No. 861/2007 establishing a European Small Claims Procedure; Regulation (EC) No. 2006/2004 on consumer protection cooperation OJ L 364, 9.12.2004, p. 1; Directive 2009/22/EC on injunctions for the protection of consumer interests.

¹⁰ See European Parliament legislative resolution of 12 March 2013 on the proposal for a directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on alternative dispute resolution for consumer disputes and amending Regulation (EC) No. 2006/2004 and Directive 2009/22/EC (Directive on consumer ADR) (COM(2011)0793—C7-0454/2011—2011/0373(COD) and also rules for the online resolution in consumption, 12 March 2013. See Fn 5.

¹¹ Royal Decree 231/2008 Consumer Arbitration System (which is now under revision); Consumer Act 1984; General Publicity ACT 34/88; Unfair competition Act (3/91); Standard Terms in

an adversarial system (dispositive principle); we recognise the initiative of parties in bringing the action to the courts, also the initiative of the parties in presenting evidence, with a process based on quality and the right of the defendant to be heard and contested, where the judicial expediting of the proceedings based on congruence and free weighting of the evidence is paramount.¹² Also, the 2000 Civil Procedural Act recognises a great deal of judicial control to limit the parties' proposal of evidence, which has correspondingly encouraged settlements, procedural orality, immediacy and concentration.

Once this framework has been described, I should focus my reflections on the rules for group litigation. In the 2000 Civil Procedural Act, some specialities were introduced into our traditional procedural system to allow the legal protection of collective interests in an efficient way.

17.2.1 Collective Redress from Spanish Point of View

To begin with, it must be clarified that Spanish legislation does not develop a "class actions" system. Spanish lawmakers have developed a protection of consumer interests system based on new ways of standing and especially on the introduction of new procedural rules adapted to this type of interests: the public interest of protecting a lot of consumers affected by an infringement. These interests are the so-called collective interests.

We must speak about the "socialisation of standing (legitimacy)".¹³ This is a phenomenon produced by what has been called the progressive abandonment of the subjective right. For example, the standing of a consumer association has nothing to do with the ownership of the collective right that is claimed in a trial, but it could be in my system the only person with standing, I mean, it could happen with an actual exclusion of other legitimates as the consumers. And this could happen because there are different types of interests. A first conclusion could be that this legal phenomenon has evolved to the point of admitting the legal creation of specific bodies (both at national and European levels) that are qualified for the protection of certain rights or interests.

The Spanish system in collective redress establishes a difference between two interests: "collective interest" and "diffuse".

I must say that this different criterion responds to a "substantial different nature of multiparty legal situation" and also "in the moment of the determination of the class members". Let me explain what my lawmaker has developed.

contract (7/1998); Information Society and Electronic commerce 34/2002; Directive on protection of interest of consumers (39/2002); Guarantee on consumer good 23/2003; Access to justices in environmental matters 27/2006; Directive 2009/22/EC on injunctions for the protection of consumers' interests

¹² Esplugues Mota and Barona Vilar (2009); Montero Aroca (2012).

¹³ Montero Aroca (1997).

Collective interest refers to a group of consumers or users in two situations: a group whose members are determined in advance or once the process has begun. There's a legal band easy to identify between people who take part in this group (art. 11.2 L.E.C).¹⁴ A good example could be a group of consumers with a legal contract in force.

On the other hand, there is a group of people that is impossible to be determined *ab initio* 'nor during the procedure' because there is no relationship or legal bond that makes possible or viable this determination of the group: the magnitude of the conflict has enough importance to entrust the defence of this group by a legal entity of this nature (art.11.3 L.E.C).

A good example could be a group of people affected by a leak or oil spill on a concrete beach or river—or people who have paid a bus ticket, but finally there is no service.

A third situation could be defined by diffuse interests: it must be referred to interests that do not belong to individual people but only to the society, for example, the right to defend a properly and healthy environment; equality in gender, culture, etc.; a fair consumer in Europe; or the right not to be disturbed by a telephone company at 10 o'clock at night offering bargains. The most important thing is to realise that these associations are standing to defend these interests through these collective actions but not as a result of accumulative ones.

As a conclusion, in collective interests, the hypothetical owners could be determined at a preliminary audience (art. 15 LEC) or, later on, the executive process at the execution of the sentence (Art. 519 L.E.C). But according to the third category (diffuse interests), it makes sense if we say that it could not be a real interest of determining the group because the beneficiaries are all of us. In other words, we, as beneficiaries, only want to be recognised on the right not to be disturbed every night by Vodafone, and this will be possible, thanks to the action of the associations named above.¹⁵

Identifying this group of affected people requires designing a model quite different to the classic nineteenth-century conception of civil process, where the judge is merely a passive manager during the development of this *proceeding*. That means the duties of the judge should remain in balance, trying not to converse the judge in an inquisitor or to transform the nature of civil process.

¹⁴ L.E.C means "Ley de Enjuiciamiento Civil" Civil Procedure Act 1/2000.

¹⁵ At that point, Spain was a little bit far from the actual position of the European Parliament recommendation: it suggested the identification of the complete group before the proceeding begins, and it was also suggested to develop an opt-in system obligatory in this type of litigation.

17.2.2 Standing to Sue Collective Redress (Collective and Diffuse Interests)

Going deeper into “standing” in collective redress, which is one of the most complex terms in this area of law, it must be said that a consumer organisation could defend the following situations in my country: (a) it could defend its own association rights (the so-called ordinary stand), (b) it could also represent the interests and rights of its individual association members (also called “ordinary stand”) or (c) it could protect general (collective or diffuse) interests through the so-called extraordinary stand, where interests of the consumers are considered as a whole by the association and its defence must be ruled on their own statutes. Of course, at the same time, it is possible to find other different standing actors as the prosecutor for public interests (extraordinary stand), consumer as individual actor (ordinary stand), an independent group of consumers without any representation (ordinary stand).

This explanation shows that we do not have to speak about “representativeness”, as it is not relevant at all, as it happens in class actions. According to the Royal Legislative Decree 1/2007, representative associations are only these “which are part of the National Council of Consumers and Users”, and according to the recent Directive 2009/22/EC concerning consumer injunctions, there will be as part of it any association accepted and published in the Official Journal European Community.

17.2.3 Powers of the Judge at the Preliminary Hearing

The next step should be the analysis of whether the powers of the judge at this stage may have a preventive effect so that the introduction of unmeritorious claims will be discouraged. Judges in the initial assessment must be empowered to review and decide on aspects pertaining to the merits, such as types of damages, type of actions, ownership, the number affected and national rules applicable to the merits—aspects that honestly decide whether to maintain the cause as a “collective process” or not. As it is easy to imagine, the importance of the role of the judge in a formal control of the process is primordial (both in the declaration, preparation of process and enforcement), especially giving enough publicity to the process in order to achieve the maximum possible for victims. The main question is to find out to what extent the judge may decide over the admissibility of the claim. The future EU regulation must answer all these questions.

A very controversial issue will be the definition of the object of the process and the role of the judge by defining the object of a collective process in consumer law. This topic represents one of the most complex issues of this type of protection: the right to defence of a plurality of people who may be affected by a future sentence and who have not been heard. The reasons are as follows.

So *litispendency* and the effectiveness of *res judicata*, particularly in cross-border processes, will highly impact the result, and any alteration of the object of the process will, therefore, affect individual and collective situations for the citizens of the Union.

Considering that it will be possible to allege objective/subjective connections between a plurality of collective procedures in different national judicial districts and other countries of the Union, would it be reasonable for the judge to observe an accumulation on these causes? This makes sense, generates legal certainty and avoids unnecessary procedures with probable contradictory statements.

The same can be said about *litispendency* cases: judges should be able to control if there are identical prosecutions with the same objectives in different countries.

To do so, it is potentially advisable to create a web page or database with the suitable publicity for pending procedures. These questions must be resolved by future lawmakers, but, at this time, none of the recommendations say anything about these issues. But, in my opinion, the nearest lawmaker should give the judge greater leeway when defining the object of the process without affecting the nature of civil procedure.

In Spain, these issues are debated and resolved at the so-called preliminary hearing where, once the judge accepts the collective nature of the procedure, a huge publicity campaign must begin in newspapers and online. Also, at this time, the judge could decide on the early protection of violated rights and interests.

The Spanish Civil Procedure Act states that interim protection must be sought *ex parte*, but it is true that the Spanish legislator allows in Article 721 some exceptions to this rule. The presence of collective interests of noteworthy public importance is one possible exception where the judge could adopt *ex officio* an interim measure.

Finally, at the “preliminary hearing”, introducing the possibility of considering negotiation and mediation could be also suggested (and let me remind that it will be a future directive in ADR for consumers in the European Union in the following months).¹⁶

17.2.4 *The Evidence*

In the area of evidence, the classical rules in civil litigation could be affected. It is common in most countries that the boundaries of the court’s actions are imposed by the facts and the defence’s rights, which implies a prohibition to introduce new focus or evidence *ex officio*. In this sense, our law (art.752.II LEC) also allows the judge to warn the parties about the lack or insufficiency of evidence.¹⁷

¹⁶ Where I hope the following questions will be affected: how should the structure of the agreement be if the court approval must be necessary, and what would be the effects of the incorporation to a trial of these agreements would be?

¹⁷ Martínez García (2009).

Likely on the mind of the lawmaker is a feeling of vulnerability of the consumer and the empowerment of the companies (which often have the defence of professional firms that put all the legal obstacles in the way to hinder access to important sources). So this could be one of these cases where the judge may be empowered to act *ex officio*¹⁸ by asking the defendant to present the documents and evidence in favour of the little, individual claimant (*inversion de la carga de la prueba*).

Improving the position of the collective claimant over the individual, however, is criticised by the European Parliament, which refuses to put in a better position the collective claimant more than the individual one. This could be a weapon for unmeritorious claims, as the European Parliament said. So it must be said that the Spanish legal system is quite far from this point.

17.2.5 About Cost-Finding Measures and Litigation Costs

Spanish lawmakers have rejected any system based on the “American class actions contingency fee”. Lawyers and clients can freely agree about fees under the frame established by the General Bar Association: as a result, these can only be controlled by the judge when they are improper or excessive.

In Spain, the general rule on litigation costs is the principle of “loser pays”. In other words, the plaintiff must bear the litigation costs (both plaintiff and defendant). But it is true that there is an exception when none of the parties win completely. In this case, the judge may decide the percentage of litigation cost of each party, depending on criteria such as the attitude and superiority of the abuser, ‘defencelessness’ of the victim and unfair practices of the company.

In Spain, the consumers association that is recognised by the National Council I have named has legal aid to litigate, which means if it loses it will not have to pay because the very nature of such associations implies that their costs are assumed by the State, and, it must be said, this is quite far from the position agreed by the European Parliament.

As a recommendation, perhaps it could be advisable to create a European fund to finance the costs of such cross-border collective redress in order to fight against fraud.

17.2.6 The Execution of the Sentence

The execution of sentence is the moment when material rights are completely established by the judicial title, when the rules to delimit the affected group of people will be established (those formally represented and also the people who have

¹⁸ Martínez García (2010).

not been a formal part of the process). Hence, in the case of collective interest, the group will be determined by the sentence, and, in the case of diffuse interest groups (where the determination was not possible), the judicial title must refer to the data, requirements and conditions applicable in the future (arts. 221.1 and 519 L.E.C).

Finally, I think the last motivation of the lawmaker should be to avoid the executed party passing through a plurality of execution processes in the future, especially when future claims will be practically identical for all their beneficiaries. In that sense, to avoid that in Spain we have ruled an opt-in system. However, in order to avoid double jeopardy doctrine, we have also regulated the *res judicata ultra partes* effectiveness (art. 222.3 L.E.C). The keyword for future regulation must be how to plan an efficient way of giving publicity to the process to make that the consumers have the right to opt in to the process.

Nevertheless, in my doctrine, the following topic is very controversial: what to do when the consumer is unaware of the existence of the process. Could *secundum eventum litis* statement be applied (I mean the sentence could only be applied to the third parties solely in a positive way and by avoiding the negative consequences)? The answer nowadays, based on my reasoning, is no. Consumers have lots of opportunities to access to the process also at this execution level. To avoid risks, “publicity” and an opt-in system are a key proposal by the European legislator.

To conclude, the last important topic is jurisdiction. There are a great many consumers in Europe, and they have to know *where* the title must be executed and *how* to achieve this. This situation requires the standing of such associations (the more they are integrated, the better is the identification of affected people). It also implies two possibilities.

Firstly, of all that, competence will be recognised in the court where the effects of this abuse have been developed (which could be slower to be executed due to the plurality of places); or

Secondly, competence will be recognised in the court where the origin of this unfair practice began (which is simple but could likely bring problems of legitimacy).

To conclude, given all these are issues that need the European legislator’s attention to give effectiveness to this kind of mass litigation, it could be reasonable to grant the national legislator the ability to design the way to proceed in each state, to implement the collective process and to make the issuing of title by another European Country easier.

17.3 Proposals for Future Regulation of Collective Processes in Europe

To summarise, we really believe that European Union law does not protect the consumer in a full manner in consumer cross-border claims. There is a lack of legal certainty and consistency between the States of the Union dealing with consumer

rights. The new European Recommendation has imposed some guidelines. Now, the corresponding 27 Member States must develop and implement national systems to ensure an economical and a juridical new way of facing these kinds of problems.

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Chapter 18

“Class Actions” in the Court Culture of Eastern Europe

Anna Piszcz

Abstract This chapter presents some features of “class actions” (group actions) existing in legal systems of the countries of Eastern Europe, in particular Poland and also Bulgaria and Russia, from the perspective of court culture and is organised as follows. The introduction (first section) offers some definitions and questions about the issue. The second section provides some details about the major developments in group action regimes in the countries of Eastern Europe. The third section provides some reflections on group actions in Poland, including some empirical findings of my own analysis of the relevant data from the Polish courts and statistics of the Ministry of Justice. It is concerned rather with describing problems than offering a complete set of precise solutions and recommendations about how to provide more effective group action regime and make it more attractive. The last section concludes with a summary of the findings.

18.1 Introduction

18.1.1 Background

The disappearance of the Iron Curtain led to the end of the strict ideological and political division of Europe. The last decade of the twentieth century witnessed dramatic developments in the former communist countries. The countries of Eastern Europe found themselves “flooded” with many fresh ideas from the Western world.

For the purpose of this publication, the definition of Eastern Europe uses the wording from the United Nations Statistics Division’s “Composition of macro

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geographical (continental) regions, geographical sub-regions, and selected economic and other groupings”¹ and thus includes the following ten countries (in alphabetical order): Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia and Ukraine. They are quite diverse. Some are huge (like Russia or Ukraine); others are small (like Republic of Moldova or Slovakia). Some are centralised, and others have a federal structure (like Russia). Some are liberal and free market, while others are authoritarian (like Belarus). Some belong to the EU, whereas others do not (Belarus, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, Ukraine).

This chapter does not examine national laws of all countries of Eastern Europe. It provides a short overview of the “class-action” landscape throughout Eastern Europe and focuses on Polish law.

Eastern Europe has absorbed many Western ideas, even those for which it has been hardly prepared. This can be said with regard to a wide range of areas of social life such as public administration, state institutions and justice, health and social services delivery, family and relationships, culture and the media. In this chapter, I focus my attention on the phenomenon of court culture appearing in a rather small sub-area of social life.

18.1.2 The Concept of Court Culture

The abstract concept of court culture is accompanied by some other ideas regarding culture and law. The first is legal culture. The term “legal culture” describes attitudes about law; it refers to “those parts of general culture – customs, opinions, ways of doing and thinking – that bend social forces toward or away from the law and in particular ways”.² As such, it may be an export product.

The second concept is lawyers’ culture (lawyers’ legal culture). As the internal legal culture (an element of the legal culture), it influences the external legal culture, i.e., the legal culture of the general population.³ However, the existence and the extent of this influence depend on the number of lawyers in society and on the lawyers’ cultural developments.⁴

The concept of court culture is similar to these two now familiar ideas. It is being defined as “the beliefs and behaviours shaping ‘the way things get done’ by the individuals – judges and court administrators – who have the responsibility to

¹ United Nations Statistics Division (2013) Composition of macro geographical (continental) regions, geographical sub-regions, and selected economic and other groupings. <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49regin.htm>. Accessed 7 August 2013.

² Friedman (1975), p. 15.

³ Friedman (1975), p. 223.

⁴ For instance, in Poland, lots of lawyers still think very traditionally. Thinking of criminal punishment is dominated by motif of imprisonment, although there are considerable alternatives in the Criminal Code. See Wantuła (2010), p. 77.

ensure cases are resolved fairly and expeditiously”.⁵ However, I am using this term in a wider sense to include not only the courts’ (judges’, court administrators’) attitudes towards resolution of cases. In my view, court culture has more dimensions (levels). Also the parties’ and their lawyers’ behaviours and attitudes towards courts and resolution of cases make up an important part of court culture. Moreover, court culture is a relative concept, not only depending on various values and attitudes to courts and resolution of cases but also being shaped by the laws introduced to govern resolution of cases and organisation of courts. Therefore, there are three subjective levels that structure court culture: (1a) courts (judges, court administrators, laypersons, etc.), (1b) parties and their lawyers, (2) lawmakers. Due to this division, it is possible, for the purposes of analyses, to create a classification of court cultures as (1) court cultures in a real sense (attitudes and behaviours that take place in fact) and (2) court cultures in a normative sense (attitudes and behaviours desired by lawmakers). Although we cannot ignore the influence of changes in values (as well as the impact of numerous constitutional, economic, political and social factors in which courts operate) on court cultures, legislation and its enforcement can be understood as the primary factor determining court culture in its real sense.

Court culture manifests itself through aspects of the justice administration such as access to courts (including court fees, compulsory or voluntary representation), procedural fairness, substantive fairness (including consistency of decisions in similar cases), and efficiency. If we (including consumers and SMEs) have easy access to courts, quick dispute resolution, fair and consistent case law, then court culture could be perceived as high. The lack thereof results in reluctance of potential plaintiffs to assert their rights in civil litigation.⁶

18.1.3 The Concept of Collective Actions

In the sphere of court culture, some patterns of actions (that are intended to facilitate asserting rights) in the form of phenomena such as collective actions attract particular notice. I divide collective actions into joint actions, representative collective actions and class (group) actions.

A joint action is one in which a number of parties can (voluntary joinder) or must (compulsory joinder) be joined as plaintiffs or defendants. In other words, in the case of joint actions, a number of actions by several parties may or must be brought as a joint action or may or must be ordered consolidated (to continue

⁵ Ostrom et al. (2007), p. 22.

⁶ In some countries of Eastern Europe, the court culture seems not to keep up with the times. In particular, slow, long-lasting court proceedings and bureaucratic ways of working are in conflict with the “I want it now” culture in which young generations are growing up today. See Piszcz (2013), pp. 20–21.

together) by the court. As a rule, there exists a power to consolidate actions within the court's general powers when common questions of law and fact are pending before a court.

A representative action is one where the parties act through a representative body, for example, an association (a consumer association, a trade association). Representative actions have had quite a long tradition in Eastern Europe. The right to represent plaintiffs has been given to prosecutors, social organisations, etc., but it is frequently a single plaintiff who is represented by them.

A class (group) action is somewhere between those two types of actions since it has features of both a representative action and a joint action. Such an action, as a method of collective redress, allows a collective claim to be made by the plaintiff on behalf of all those who are adversely affected (a class or a group). The plaintiff, as the representative, seeks redress for all the members of the group (who are not appearing in court) and not (only) for himself or herself.

The last of three categories of collective actions is a particular novelty in Eastern Europe. While talking about such European actions and not American ones, I prefer the term "a group action" instead of "a class action"; therefore, the latter appears in the title of this chapter in quotes.

18.1.4 Recent EU Developments and Questions

Over the last decade, we have begun to see in the EU Member States a growing movement to adopt group action regimes or half measures of a similar nature. In the EU Member States, this process was spurred by, among others, the Green Paper of 2008 on consumer collective redress.⁷

It is significant that a group action—to a greater degree than other tools of private enforcement—has seemed to have the potential to be influenced by processes of voluntary uniformisation in Eastern part of the EU. I suppose the reason was that a group action was not a transplant between countries sharing a common legal heritage; rather, it came from a system of different legal traditions, the United States common law system. It seemed to me that it might be simpler to introduce completely new tools of the same or very similar kind into systems that had not known them yet than to unify different tools existing in these systems for years.

Group actions are a completely new solution examined in Eastern Europe in the search of alternative options for further reforming individual action. It does not mean that the old procedural institutions are simply neglected or replaced. And group actions cannot be considered a competing system but rather a complementary system that may make things work better than only individual actions. However, the

⁷ Commission of the European Communities (2008) Green Paper on Consumer Collective Redress, COM(2008) 794 final. http://ec.europa.eu/consumers/redress_cons/greenpaper_en.pdf. Accessed 7 August 2013.

European Commission has just shifted to the next stage of the development of the European horizontal framework for collective redress. On 11 June 2013, the Commission published and, on the next day, forwarded to the Council and the Parliament its Communication “Towards a European Horizontal Framework for Collective Redress”⁸ accompanied by a Commission Recommendation,⁹ which recommends that all Member States have national collective redress systems based on a number of common European principles. The Member States should implement the principles set out in the Recommendation in national collective redress systems within 24 months from the publication of the Recommendation in the Official Journal (26 July 2013) at the latest.

Uniformisation of group actions in the EU Member States is not going to be “free” anymore. Clearly, if the Recommendation is to be implemented, the new national systems of collective redress or the new versions of the existing national systems of collective redress will need to be defined. And there is a question—can group actions be defined and organised effectively in the Eastern European legal world that is vastly different from the American one in which class actions were born? Can the Eastern European lawmakers just copy and paste the European principles common to Western, Southern, Northern and Eastern European Member States of the EU? The scope for problems to arise cannot be underestimated.

18.2 Major Developments in Group Action Regimes in the Countries of Eastern Europe

18.2.1 *General Information*

Around Eastern Europe, many countries have not yet even made efforts geared towards the introduction of group actions. In Belarus,¹⁰ Czech Republic,¹¹

⁸ European Commission (2013) Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions “Towards a European Horizontal Framework for Collective Redress”, COM(2013) 401 final. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2013:0401:FIN:EN:PDF>. Accessed 7 August 2013. The Communication concludes that “the Commission sees the advantage of following a horizontal approach in order to avoid the risk of uncoordinated sectoral EU initiatives and to ensure the smoothest interface with national procedural rules, in the interest of the functioning of the internal market”. For more on the topic, see Sect. 17.1 by Elena Martínez García.

⁹ Commission Recommendation of 11 June 2013 on common principles for injunctive and compensatory collective redress mechanisms in the Member States concerning violations of rights granted under Union Law; OJ L 201, 26.7.2013, pp. 60–65.

¹⁰ Grechko and Bondareva (2011), pp. 74–75.

¹¹ Bělohávek (2013), pp. 49–62.

Hungary,¹² Republic of Moldova,¹³ Romania,¹⁴ Slovakia¹⁵ and Ukraine,¹⁶ the possibility of collective redress exists, to some extent, only in the form of joint actions and representative actions.

At the same time, group actions have become an issue for a few countries of Eastern Europe, namely Bulgaria, Russia and Poland. Interestingly, this group of countries comprises not only two EU Member States that, obviously, have been influenced by the European Commission encouraging the use of collective redress mechanisms but also Russia.

18.2.2 Bulgarian Group Actions

Bulgaria was the first one to introduce the concept of group actions in Eastern Europe. The provisions with regard to group actions were included in the new Code of Civil Procedure (Chapter 33 “Procedure on collective claims”),¹⁷ which came into force on 1 March 2008. These rules apply to all areas of law and not only its certain sectors.

Collective claims may be brought before the district court as a court of first instance¹⁸ where there is a group of persons harmed by one and the same violation and, due to the nature of the violation, the number of such persons cannot be determined accurately but is determinable. The threshold requirement of standing is not imposed; therefore, hypothetically, a group may comprise two or more persons. Either institutional actors or private applicants may seek remedies (Article 379 of the Code).

The available remedies are of two types and extend beyond monetary relief (Article 385 of the Code). First, a plaintiff may obtain injunctive relief that consists of a court order requiring the infringer to cease the infringement and/or to take necessary measures (including appropriate “preliminary” measures). Second, monetary (compensatory but not punitive) damages may be awarded.

The first stages of the proceedings relate to the preliminary questions of the accuracy of the plaintiff’s statement of claim and the admissibility of the claim as a collective claim. Then the court adjourns to consider the ability of the plaintiff(s) to

¹² Kecskés and Wallacher (2013), pp. 87–100.

¹³ See Article 62 et seq. of the Code No. 225 of 30.05.2003—Civil Procedure Code of the Republic of Moldova. Available in Russian at <http://lex.justice.md/index.php?action=view&view=doc&lang=2&id=348338>. Accessed 7 August 2013.

¹⁴ Luther (2012), p. 323, Leş (2011), pp. 120–125.

¹⁵ Gešková (2007), p. 32 et seq. However, group action issues are considered as part of the ongoing process of re-codification of the civil procedure law in Slovakia.

¹⁶ Didkovskiy et al. (2012), p. 815.

¹⁷ See Article 379 et seq. of the Code. Available in English at <http://www.lawoffice-bg.net/userfiles/Code%20of%20Civil%20Procedure.pdf>. Accessed 7 August 2013.

¹⁸ Article 380 of the Code.

protect the collective interest of the group represented “seriously and in good faith” and to bear the burdens in connection with the case, including legal expenses (Article 381 of the Code).¹⁹ This part of the proceedings may be considered the “certification” (not of the group but of the “competency” of the plaintiff) or prequalification, since the admissibility of a group action is dependent on the decision of the court and there exists the risk of refusal of certification. An order that does not admit the group action is appealable. It is worth noting that the Code does not permit pre-trial discovery of documents from third parties.

After the admission of the group action, the court hears the parties during the course of the open hearing, investigating the circumstances that determine a group of harmed persons and an appropriate way to announce the action (Article 382 of the Code). The court determines a way to announce the action, the number of the notifications and the medium (media) in which they are going to be communicated.²⁰ These announcements last for as long as the court determines it necessary. They must provide a period (stipulated by the court) in which one may express the intention of joining the group or choose to assert his/her rights on his/her own.

After the lapse of the prescribed period, the court (during a closed session) classifies those persons indicated in point 1 as group members and excludes from the group those who have chosen to assert their rights on their own. Orders of the court are appealable.

The judgment of the court has a binding effect (*res judicata*) on the defendant, members of the group and all persons harmed by the same violation who have not chosen to bring individual claims. Bulgaria explicitly embraced the more radical opt-out model of collective redress. Bulgaria as the EU Member State will be under obligation to implement the principles set out in the Commission Recommendation in its national collective redress system. To do it properly will require a good deal of work. It is due to, inter alia, the fact that the Commission does not support the opt-out model (chosen by some EU Member States besides Bulgaria, Portugal, the Netherlands and Denmark). In the Commission’s view, the opt-out system gives rise to more fundamental questions as to the freedom of potential claimants to decide whether they want to litigate (see paragraph 3.4 of the Communication “Towards a European Horizontal Framework for Collective Redress”). In addition, an opt-out system may not be consistent with the central aim of collective redress, which is to obtain compensation for harm suffered, since such persons are not identified, and so the award will not be distributed to them. The Commission has taken the view in the Commission Recommendation (paragraph 21 et seq.) that under the European horizontal framework on collective redress the claimant party should be formed on the basis of the opt-in method and that any exception to this

¹⁹ During the course of this part of the procedure, the plaintiff(s) may be afforded the opportunity to an open hearing. See Article 381(2) of the Code. It is worth adding that Bulgarian legislation includes a “loser pays” cost rule.

²⁰ An order that stipulates the above is interlocutory but is appealable. See Article 382(3) of the Code.

principle, by law or by court order, should be duly justified by reasons of sound administration of justice. Bulgaria will have to decide whether they should try to “duly justify” their opt-out model or whether it needs to be completely modified to satisfy the opt-in model conditions.

The Bulgarian group action regime has a striking peculiarity. The court of first instance may convene a General Assembly of the harmed persons, which is conducted by the judge, and may adopt decisions if at least six harmed persons participate in it (Article 388 of the Code). The General Assembly elects a Committee that administers the monetary compensatory amounts (it is worth adding that the court may decide that monetary damages are paid by the defendant into an account of one of the plaintiffs, a special joint account for all the plaintiffs or a special joint account for all harmed persons). Furthermore, the General Assembly may charge the Committee with other duties. The Code does not specify what other duties may be assigned to the Committee by the General Assembly.

The number of Bulgarian group actions brought is still very low. A few of them appeared in the area of consumer protection law.²¹

18.2.3 Russian Group Actions

Russia too has a group action regime, but it does not mean that consumers have better access to courts. The new provisions were introduced in 2009. Chapter 28.2 “Considering Cases on the Protection of Rights and Legitimate Interests of a Group of Persons” (in Russian, “Рассмотрение дел о защите прав и законных интересов группы лиц”) was then added to the Arbitration Procedural Code of the Russian Federation of 2002 (No. 95-FZ).²² The so-called arbitration courts (the state commercial courts, so named because of their descent from the old Soviet State Arbitration authority) have jurisdiction over all commercial disputes. The provisions with regard to group actions can be applied, in particular, in connection with the corporate disputes and securities disputes (Article 225.11 of the Code).

Of the requirements of Article 225.10 of the Code, the one that seems to give rise to the great difficulty of interpretation is the condition that the collective protection to be provided must concern the same legal relationship. Persons involved in the same legal relationship are defined as a group of persons (группа лиц). Any of such persons, as well as institutional actors, may file a group action. An action is deemed a group action if, by the day on which the applicant has filed a group action, at least five persons have joined the applicant. Thus, the minimum number of persons required to form a group is six.

²¹ Georgiev and Hinov (2011), p. 47.

²² See Article 225.10 et seq. of the Code. Available in Russian at http://www.consultant.ru/popular/apkrf/9_38.html. Accessed 7 August 2013.

Unlike in Bulgaria, the court does not certify the “competency” of the applicant, including individual financial eligibility (the Russian system adheres to the “loser pays” principle²³). However, due to circumstances, the court is entitled to impose a fine thereon and/or even deprive the plaintiff of the authority to represent a group under conditions defined by Article 225.12 of the Code.²⁴ The Russian approach is not to use the *ex ante* measures (to prevent incompetent applicants from representing a group) but to use the *ex post* measures (to punish or dismiss those already incompetently representing a group).

A group of (harmed) persons must be identified in the plaintiff’s statement of claim (Article 225.13 of the Code). In the first stages of the proceedings,²⁵ the court decides on the composition of the group and determines an appropriate way to announce the action (Article 225.14 of the Code). Group members may be notified of the action either by publication in the media or by registered mail with delivery confirmation or in some other manner.

In order to obtain the benefit of, or to be bound by, the group action, persons who wish to be part of the group must opt into the action. The court adjudicates on claims of each member of the group separately. However, the Russian legal system does not recognise punitive damages.²⁶ It is worth adding that the facts established by a final judgment rendered in the group action will not be proved again if the arbitration court decides another case involving the same defendant and a member of the same group of persons (Article 225.17 of the Code).

Interestingly, case processing time by the court of first instance shall not exceed five months (Article 225.16 of the Code).

Till February 2011, group actions were brought five times in Russian courts, but experts say that, first, the notes (justifications) to the judgments are poor and, second, the same is true about discussions in the literature.²⁷

18.3 The Polish Group Action Regime

18.3.1 *An Outline of Issues*

Similar trends to the ones being described above became apparent in Poland. In this section, the reader is informed about the Polish group actions in detail, including statistics, legal framework, some concerns, potential areas of dispute, as well as advantages and disadvantages of such a group action model.

²³ See Reimann (2012), pp. 201–206.

²⁴ See also Article 225.15 of the Code.

²⁵ It is worth adding that there is no “pure” pre-trial discovery during the trial preparation stage.

²⁶ Russia (2012), p. 249.

²⁷ Dudko and Smirnov (2011), p. 19.

The question concerning what is new in group actions that is different from the traditional Polish court culture is going to be equated here with the question concerning whether the existence of group actions is able to influence the Polish court culture. Another issue is, if so, whether this impact has already started to be seen (what the practice is). The other problems addressed by the study are whether the Polish lawmaker wanted to influence the Polish court culture by group actions to any extent and which particular solutions could be proofs of such an intention. Closely linked to these questions is a multitude of additional questions: has the advent of group action suits reshaped the Polish judicial landscape? Is it possible that they will drive Polish court culture in the direction of the “litigation culture”? Is the rise of the “litigation culture” in Poland possible?

18.3.2 An Empirical Investigation into the Practice

On 19 July 2010, the Polish Act on the Pursuit of Claims in Group Proceedings (in Polish *ustawa o dochodzeniu roszczeń w postępowaniu grupowym*) of 17 December 2009 (hereinafter referred to as the Act) came into force.²⁸ Last month (July 2013) marked the third anniversary of the Act. In the first years of the Act, it was not possible to state with precision any figure as to the number of group actions brought to trial or settlement in any particular period of time because there were not published any national statistics as to such actions. However, after the first half year of the Act, it was estimated that approximately 70 % of group action suits had been filed against the State and not private defendants.²⁹ Not surprisingly, there are commercial banks and insurers among private defendants.

Some statistical data on group actions for the years 2010 and 2011 are presented below. They are based on information provided by the courts voluntarily to me, at my request.³⁰

At the date of my survey (2012), in Poland there were 29 commercial regional courts (in Polish, *okręgowe sądy gospodarcze*)³¹ handling “commercial disputes”, i.e., disputes arising between businesses. Twenty-three of the twenty-nine (79.3 %) responded to my survey, and only one (the Regional Court in Warsaw) indicated it had received a group action suit in 2011. No respondent received such a suit in 2010. It is worth noting that there are several dozens of thousands of individual litigious cases being filed in commercial courts every year.

On the other hand, at the date of my survey (2012), there were 45 civil courts (civil divisions in general courts) in Poland. Thirty-six of the forty-five (80.0 %),

²⁸ Journal of Laws No. 7, item 44.

²⁹ Niedużak (2011), p. 7.

³⁰ Statistical data were gathered in my projects No. 524/BMN and No. 538/BMN (University of Białystok) in 2012.

³¹ Specialised commercial divisions in general courts.

including the Regional Court in Warsaw, responded to my survey (and the remaining 20.0 % included the Regional Courts in, i.a., Warsaw-Praga, Kraków or Gdańsk). They received 13 group actions in 2010 and 16 group actions in 2011. Neither of 22 courts handled this type of litigation. Given that there are over 100,000 of individual litigious cases being filed in civil courts every year, one might get the impression that the group action procedure is relatively rarely utilised in Poland.

In sum, during the 2010–2011 biennium, a total of 30 group action suits were filed in the courts that responded to the survey. However, six of them were returned to claimants by the court without any further examination. Nine of them were rejected. Of the remaining 15 cases, one was closed without ever reaching trial. Only 14 were supposed to be continued (were still under consideration) as of the date of my research. But it is hard to say how many of them will reach the final stage, i.e., the judgment.

The rates reported by the Ministry of Justice³² in 2013 are almost double the rates recorded in my survey. According to the statistics released by the Ministry, 21 group action suits were filed in 2010, 37 in 2011 and 35 in 2012. There are no data available in the public domain for 2010 showing how many of these 21 actions were rejected or returned to claimants. However, according to the Ministry of Justice’s ratings, in 2011 and 2012 ten group actions were rejected, 21 were returned to claimants and in one case a judgment was rendered in 2012 against the plaintiff. At the beginning of 2013, 33 cases initiated before 2012 were pending. There are, on average, around 18–19 group action cases filed each half year in Poland.

At present, some spectacular examples of group actions can be seen. They will be referred to below. There also appeared a tendency in the media to foretell that there will be a group action whenever there are mass problems with businesses.

18.3.3 The Polish Lawmaker’s Intentions

In the Polish legal tradition, it has been typically the case that single plaintiffs advanced claims in courts. We have had joint actions and representative actions (including representative collective actions), but they have been relatively rare. In 2008, the Government decided that it was not enough simply to accumulate more. They decided to remake civil proceedings beyond anything known in the past in Poland. However, this decision was not based on an in-depth analysis of the social status quo but on a subjective decision of the lawmaker (strongly inspired by the EU) to carry out an experimental task.³³

³² Wydział Statystyki i Analiz Wymiaru Sprawiedliwości (2013).

³³ See Wielgolaski (2011), pp. 70–71.

The governmental draft Bill on the Pursuit of Claims in Group Proceedings was consulted with, i.a., the National Council of the Judiciary of Poland. Their concerns expressed in the opinion of 10 September 2008 were that (1) legal provisions on group actions should be included in the Code of Civil Procedure³⁴ and not in a separate act and (2) the proposed provisions were “underdeveloped” and the language was inconsistent with the Code.

However, the Government did not accept these reservations and sent the draft Bill to the lower house of the Polish Parliament in spring 2009. On 17 December 2009, the Parliament adopted it after some discussion and amendments. The Act came into force on 19 July 2010.

Both the Government and the Parliament wanted to influence the Polish court culture. It can be seen from the explanatory notes to the draft Bill. The Government suggested therein that the adoption of the proposed provisions was intended to improve access to courts, ensure consistency of judgments in similar cases, reduce litigation costs, as well as increase efficiency.

The further analysis proceeds to find any specific features of the Act that prove such an intention or contradict it. Is there the difference between the Government’s original intention and outcome in the form of the Act? Is the opposite outcome produced? As with any new legal tool, it is important to understand what their drawbacks are. Do these drawbacks or something else prevents the Polish court culture from being connected happily with the originally American concept of “class action”?

18.3.4 Particular Solutions

18.3.4.1 Scope of Application of Group Actions

The first key feature of the Polish legal framework for group actions is the limited scope of its application. The Act applies to consumer protection, product liability and tort liability claims. However, group lawsuits seeking to protect personal rights are barred by the Act (Article 1 paragraph 2 in fine). The Act does not specify what personal rights cannot be protected in the group proceedings. Therefore, in fact, the exclusion is a relatively broad one and encompasses everything that might be referred to as personal rights. Article 23 of the Civil Code³⁵ concerning the protection of personal rights offers an “open” catalogue of exemplary personal rights that contains health, freedom, esteem, liberty of conscience, name and/or pseudonym, image, secrecy of correspondence, inviolability of residence, creative activity, scientific activity, rationalising activity and ingenuity.

³⁴ The 1964 Code of Civil Procedure (Journal of Laws No. 43, item 296, as amended).

³⁵ The 1964 Civil Code (Journal of Laws No. 16, item 93, as amended).

The “personal rights” provision was successfully added to the Act at the last minute by the Senate. The lower house of the Parliament accepted the Senate’s logic going along the theory that the limited scope for group actions prevents abuses of the use of such actions. It seems that with two steps forward to increasing access to courts, one step back was taken. Such a result is opposed to the purpose of the governmental draft shown in the explanatory notes. The Government’s original intention went out of control.

We did not have to wait long to see the result. In 2011, the Regional Court in Warsaw³⁶ ruled inadmissible the group action concerning the collapse of a trade hall in Katowice that had taken place in 2006. This ruling was confirmed by the Court of Appeal in Warsaw. The plaintiff sought a declaratory judgment that the State was liable to the parties injured in the collapse. The court said that group action treatment was inappropriate because many members of the group sought to protect their personal rights (to hold the State liable for injury to person). In my opinion, due to common issues of fact and law, accidents such as a building collapse or a plane/train crash resulting in injuries to numerous persons are appropriate for a group action. The Act should be amended.

18.3.4.2 Standing to Sue

Another basic feature of the Polish group action model is standing to sue. The Act applies to proceedings in which claims of a single type arising from common or similar issues of fact are pursued by a group of at least ten persons and the statement of claim is filed by the group representative. A threshold requirement for standing to sue as contained in Article 1 paragraph 1 in fine of the Act is not as low as it is in Bulgaria or Russia, but it is still quite low. It cannot be considered unconscionable and creating barriers to access to courts. Moreover, the Act does not reserve the benefit of group proceedings exclusively to consumers, and thus the group can include businesses. More reservations can be held about the group representative (plaintiff). A member of the group (lead claimant) or a regional (municipal) consumer ombudsman³⁷ can act as the group representative. On the one hand, such an approach allows any member of the group to bring a group action. This may be recognised as a factor that contributes to better access to justice. But on the other hand, it is incomprehensible why such an important form of protection of market participants as group actions filed by consumer (non-governmental) organisations is seen as dispensable by the Polish lawmaker. In fact, the limitations introduced in relation to representative organisations may decrease access to justice for the most vulnerable market participants, i.e., consumers. Thankfully, these limitations will have to be revoked to enable the development proposed by the Recommendation mentioned in Sect. 18.1.4 to take place. The more focused single-

³⁶ Case No. II C 121/11.

³⁷ In Polish, powiatowy (miejski) rzecznik konsumentów.

issue organisations will be allowed into the group action system. Then it will remain to be seen how things work out.

The “competency” of the group representative is not examined and certified even if the group representative is one of group members and not a consumer ombudsman (which is different from, e.g., the Bulgarian system). Furthermore, the court can adopt the ex post measure in the form of the replacement of the group representative only at the request of the majority of members of the group. On the other hand, the plaintiff (lead claimant or consumer ombudsman) must be represented by a barrister or legal advisor. It is compulsory unless the plaintiff is a barrister or legal advisor himself/herself. However, civil legal aid does not include the provision of civil legal services in the form of legal representation to a party to group proceedings. Although these provisions are capable of restricting access to courts, they might have originated from the positive intention of the lawmaker. Compulsory legal representation might have been designed so as to reduce anticipated problems associated with evidence³⁸ and, in my view, needs to be there as the safety valve. The same is true even of consumer ombudsmen. They are experts in consumer matters, but they did not use to represent consumers in court proceedings; they rather focused on advisory activities. Figures published by the Polish competition authority show that there were three cases where consumer ombudsmen took action in 2010 under the Act (and no such cases in 2011).³⁹ But these were three cases of 21 (14.3 %) in the whole country. One of the most spectacular actions filed by a consumer ombudsman is the one against BRE Bank (a Polish unit of German Commerzbank). It was filed in the Regional Court in Łódź by the Consumer Ombudsman of Warsaw.⁴⁰ It was served by one of the biggest law firms and gathered group of over 1.2 thousand plaintiffs. It seems to be the biggest group action case the Polish courts have seen. In July 2013, the bank lost the case. An appeal may be expected. However, the statement of claims did not include a request for monetary relief. The plaintiff focused on declaratory relief. It is believed that the possibility of group actions for declaratory relief may encourage settlements⁴¹ (but in my opinion, it contributes much less to increased efficiency of justice if settlement is not arrived at in the course of group proceedings and declaratory relief is followed by massive individual suits). In this case, it did not work out that way.

18.3.4.3 Standardisation of Claims

The Polish lawmaker posited the so-called standardisation of claims. In accordance with Article 21 of the Act, in the case of monetary relief the court makes

³⁸ See Sieradzka (2010), p. 107.

³⁹ Urząd Ochrony Konkurencji i Konsumentów (2011), p. 21, Urząd Ochrony Konkurencji i Konsumentów (2012), p. 20.

⁴⁰ Case No. II C 1693/10.

⁴¹ Erciński and Grzegorzcyk (2013), p. 35.

awards that are binding on particular members of the group. The court cannot, however, dismiss some claims (claims of some members of the group) and grant relief to the plaintiff on other claims (of other members of the group).⁴² The fact that the judgment concerns the group as a whole is a remarkable feature of group actions. Article 2 of the Act concerns the standardisation provisions. In cases concerning monetary relief, the amounts of individual claims, which make up the overall group litigation, have to be standardised. If the standardisation is not approved by all members of the group, group proceedings will not be allowed by the court. Article 2 paragraph 2 of the Act stipulates that the standardisation can be made in subgroups of at least two members of the group. It is disputable how to interpret these provisions. The Act does not clarify how to standardise claims and what the results thereof are. Would it be possible to make a particular subgroup of two claims for PLN 100 and PLN 140 and standardise them in such a way that each of the claimants would have the same average amount of claim that is PLN 120? This would be contrary to the rule of full compensation typical for our legal culture that makes punitive damages (as opposed to damages limited to the amount actually suffered) unavailable. One of claimants would be enriched, and one would be harmed. Then perhaps each of them should have the lowest amount of claim, i.e., PLN 100. But what would happen to the remaining PLN 40 in the case of the second claimant? Could (s)he bring an individual claim for payment of PLN 40? Even if it was considered possible under Article 1 paragraph 3 of the Act, it would undermine the goals of the group action concept. These goals are not to multiply actions brought to the courts. The standardisation is something completely new, which may be different from the traditional Polish legal culture. This depends on how courts will understand it. The standardisation appears to be one of the most problematic characteristics of the Polish group action model that, in my view, needs to be changed. I recommend deleting the rules thereon. Currently, the standardisation is a fiction, as the smallest subgroups may comprise two persons.⁴³ For instance, in the case of the “para-bank” Amber Gold, there are about 100 subgroups.

18.3.4.4 Competent Courts

A regional court (in Polish, sąd okręgowy) as a court of first instance has authority over cases that proceed as group actions. At first glance, it seems that the Polish lawmaker could have provided more generous conditions for access to justice for consumers if it had charged district courts (in Polish, sądy rejonowe) and not regional courts with jurisdiction in (some) group proceedings in the first instance. District courts are located closer to the people throughout the country, whereas regional courts cover quite extensive territories. However, jurisdiction of regional courts means that group cases are decided by a panel of three professional judges.

⁴² See *ibid*, p. 43.

⁴³ See also Rejdak and Pietkiewicz (2011), p. 77.

Their superior experience and expertise are likely to allow them to handle such complex cases better than a single professional judge at a district court.

18.3.4.5 Costs and Fees

Reduction of litigation costs is generally believed as one of the mechanisms of ensuring easier access to courts. The Act employs such a mechanism. Whereas the court registration fee for individual proceedings is (as a rule) 5.0 % of the claim value, the court registration fee for group proceedings is 2.0 % of the claim value, not less than PLN 30 (approx. EUR 7) and not more than PLN 100,000.00 (approx. EUR 23,800). The Act reduced the court fees incurred by plaintiffs so as to raise the incentive for plaintiffs to aggregate their individual claims in a group action.

One of the greatest peculiarities of the Polish group action model is the concept of a contingency fee agreement. Contingency fees (understood as percentage of the amount won) used to be prohibited by the ethical rules of legal professions. Article 5 of the Act contains exception to the general rules. The fee agreements may tie barristers' or legal advisors' fees to the amount awarded in group proceedings—up to a maximum of 20.0 % of the total amount eventually won (if any). Naturally, percentage-based contingency fees are not available in the case of applications for declaratory relief. It seems that the lawmaker wanted to avoid the situation where due to the lack of the lawyers' direct financial interest in the outcome of the litigation, lawyers are not interested in filing group action suits. Contingency fees may be a mechanism to increase access to courts as they allow suits by claimants who could not pay for legal services if the fees were not taken out of the amount won. Conversely, practice shows that lawyers want members of the group to pay the full amount for services in cash up front. Moreover, it is unclear—and even doubtful—whether contingency percentage of up to a maximum of 20.0 % can be charged to a losing defendant according to the “loser pays” principle. It seems that the court cannot charge more than the maximum fee amounts stipulated in the fee regulations in respect of individual actions.⁴⁴ In individual proceedings, the contribution of the losing party to the fees for the winning lawyers has, as a rule, the highest minimum value of PLN 7,200.00 (approx. EUR 1,700) where the claim is over PLN 200,000.00 (approx. EUR 47,600). The court can increase it by up to sixfold (here, to PLN 43,200.00, approx. EUR 10,300), but that is dependent on such factors as the nature of the case, lawyers' effort, his or her contribution to clarifying and/or bringing the case to a resolution.

Despite some areas of progress mentioned earlier, there is arguably a shortcoming—in terms of the access to courts—in the form of a deposit. At the request of the defendant accompanying his or her first procedural activity, the court can order a deposit of up to 20.0 % of the claim value to be paid in cash by the plaintiff within at least 1 month in order to secure the defendant's claim for the costs of the

⁴⁴ See also Ereciński and Grzegorzcyk (2013), p. 38.

proceedings (Article 8 of the Act). The court’s decision is appealable. If the plaintiff fails to pay the deposit, the court—at the request of the defendant—shall reject the statement of claim and oblige the plaintiff to recover the costs incurred by the defendant. First of all, a deposit should be defined broadly as the range of cash-like instruments, including cash, but it should not be limited to cash only. Another question that arises in respect of a deposit is how to treat ombudsmen as the group representatives. The Polish law exempts them from payment of any court fees (but literally a deposit is not a court fee). There is nothing in the Act that suggests whether this general rule might be a clue to finding the answer to our question. The case law has not dealt with the problem; courts are not eager to order a deposit to be paid at all.

18.3.4.6 Other Solutions

The Polish group action model is opt-in, as opposed to the American-style opt-out system. In its Article 1 paragraph 3, the Act states that initiation of the group proceedings does not exclude the possibility of bringing individual claims by the persons who did not join the group or left it.

The regulatory framework governing the “unusual” course of group proceedings is complex. The court holds an admissibility hearing. A determination of inadmissibility by the court results in an application being rejected. Both the determination of admissibility (the decision to examine the case in group proceedings) and the determination of inadmissibility are not discretionary.⁴⁵ Importantly, they are appealable. After the decision to examine the case in group proceedings is final and binding, the court orders an announcement in the press to be made. Article 11 paragraph 2 of the Act provides that the announcement contains, among others, information on the possibility of joining the group and the time limit therefore of at least 1 month but not exceeding 3 months. After the notices of joining are given to the group representative, it specifies a time limit of at least 1 month for the defendant’s objections regarding the membership of particular persons in the group or subgroups. The objections are made available to the plaintiff, and the court specifies a time limit of at least 1 month for the plaintiff’s answer. After the above periods of time, the court decides the composition of the group. This decision is appealable. After the group is formed, the court examines the merits of the case. Unless the case is settled, it is pursued through to judgment.

To sum it up, group action suits must be very time consuming. For example, in the case of BRE Bank, the course of the proceedings at first instance was one of the best managed and lasted over 2.5 years. Two interlocutory court orders were appealed by the defendant, and those appeals were dismissed in the meantime.

⁴⁵ In post-socialist legal cultures, there is often a fear of not having control over the phenomena of corruption and abuse of discretion once legal provisions have allowed for much discretion for a judge or a panel.

An admissibility hearing was held after 4.5 months of the date of the statement of claim (20 December 2010). The second (last) open hearing concluded with a statement that the judgment would be published on 3 July 2013. In Poland, handling a group action case within 5 months⁴⁶ is impossible. The course of the group proceedings lasts years, not months. Group proceedings could be far more efficient from a plaintiff's point of view if the procedural chain was shorter. There are too long deadlines and too many appealable decisions in the course of the proceedings.

18.3.4.7 The Newest Litigation Management Rules and Group Actions

Not surprisingly, group litigation as a new and complex area of litigation needs the courts to focus on efficient litigation management; otherwise, we will not be able to accelerate the pace at which decisions can be made in group proceedings. Polish judges do not seem to be good managers, but there are prospects for progressive improvements in this area. These prospects do not arise merely from the Act but from a wider context of recent trends in Polish civil procedure. There have been dozens of amendments to the Code of Civil Procedure since it was first introduced; however, on 3 May 2012, the 170th amendment—one of the most important amendments—came into force and made some major revisions (changes) to the system. Formerly, there was a special type of evidentiary proceedings apart from the one governed by general rules. The first one used to be only available in commercial cases; however, they were not applicable to group proceedings. Those special rules (dated back to 1989) were stricter, more formalistic and more difficult for the parties than general ones. The heart of those special rules was the principle regarding the burden of proof applicable to businesses, the so-called non-admission of evidence principle (in Polish, *prekluzja dowodowa*). According to this principle, the plaintiff had to include all allegations in the statement of claim, as well as indicate all evidence to support these allegations. The court would ignore late allegations and/or evidence not filed within the deadlines laid out by the Code of Civil Procedure. On the other hand, as a rule, defendants would be precluded from making allegations/presenting corresponding evidence if they failed to include them in the response to the statement of claim. The reason for the use of the statutory non-admission of evidence principle was to facilitate and shorten proceedings regarding commercial cases.⁴⁷ The prime task of such evidentiary proceedings was to speed up proceedings rather than find the material truth of the case and achieve justice. As of 3 May 2012, the new rules with respect to evidence make no difference between submissions by businesses and others.⁴⁸ Currently, the judge may (but does not have to) order the defendant to make a statement in response to the statement of claim within the period of at least 2 weeks. The

⁴⁶ See Sect. 18.2.3 regarding the Russian provisions on group actions.

⁴⁷ More Cieślak (2007), p. 171, Flaga-Gieruszyńska (2007), p. 202.

⁴⁸ See also Piszcz (2012), p. 72.

judge may also, before the first sitting of the court, require the parties to file further submissions, giving them directions on the order of submissions, time limits and stressing points that must be explained and clarified. Parties are not allowed to file any submissions other than a statement of claim, response to the statement of claim and those required by the court unless such submissions contain only motion(s) to order that proof be heard. Statutory non-admission of evidence, which used to apply to commercial proceedings, has now been replaced by judicial non-admission of evidence. The previous solution was considered inflexible but at the same time transparent, and the new approach seems to considerably reduce legal certainty of all parties at the beginning of the proceedings. Now, the judge—and not merely the Code—is the manager of the proceedings. Judges who decide group cases needed to have been given the new managerial role in order to improve efficiency in group proceedings.

18.3.5 Concluding Remarks

Although the Polish lawmaker analysed the solutions adopted in other countries, the Act does not resemble any foreign legal act in force regarding group actions and, as such, can be considered innovative.⁴⁹ Somehow the very idea of group proceedings that is so different from the traditional Polish court culture seems to work quite well in the first years of the Act. The lawmaker wanted to advance court culture, and group actions are a way to increase access to courts. The main beneficiaries of the innovation are consumers who usually suffer restricted access to justice. Group actions combined with lower court fees are capable of improving consumer’s access to justice. On the other hand, this capability is reduced due to the limited scope for group actions, limited standing or exclusion of the possibility to receive civil legal aid in respect of the group action. Some provisions of the Act are unclear and do not give sufficient guidelines to courts and parties to the proceedings.

Some transplants from other cultures, like contingency fees, seem to be rejected in Poland. Others, like standardisation, are circumvented when plaintiffs require declaratory relief instead of monetary relief in order to arrive at settlements or bring individual monetary claims once declaratory relief is obtained in group proceedings. Such difficult solutions may survive for long periods of time in the stagnant form unless the lawmaker amends them or courts interpret them in terms of our own cultural contexts but in a more plaintiff-friendly way. Both lawmaker and courts should not be reluctant to interfere in the status quo in the hope that, if ignored, problems would go away.

The adoption of the Act did not result at once in a “storm” of collective claims. The Polish judicial landscape has not been drastically reshaped. Group actions are

⁴⁹ Ereciński and Grzegorzcyk (2013), p. 26.

not very numerous, and they bother the biggest courts in Poland; thus, it appears doubtful to me that currently they are able to reshape the Polish court culture in the direction of a culture of American-style litigation. However, the figures are higher than not only Bulgarian and Russian figures but also, e.g., Swedish figures. In Sweden, for 8 years (2003–2010), 13 cases have been brought to courts as group actions.⁵⁰ I think one can make the assumption that if there was a further increase in the number of group action cases pending in the biggest Polish courts, it could lead to the emergence of “islands of litigation culture”, either relatively closed or openly influencing the process of “class actionisation” of smaller regional courts. The “litigation culture” does not seem to be very prone to rise in Poland because of our Eastern European cultural background (see also Sect. 18.4). However, final results of the current processes will vary depending on the outcomes of the first “wave” of group actions. The first final judgments will, arguably, have a strong influence on the occurrence of the next actions. Successful ones will encourage them, but judgments in favour of defendants will make potential plaintiffs sceptical about group actions. Within a few years, group actions may spread over the country or disappear. Would it be probable that the lawmaker would have repealed the Act if group actions disappeared? It is normal that, from time to time, some new procedural solutions are added, and after some time they are eliminated. But here, only evolution in the reverse direction is possible. Due to the Recommendation mentioned in Sect. 18.1.4, Poland is under pressure from the EU continually pressing towards the adjustment to the EU approach to collective redress.

To sum it up, in my opinion, the Polish group actions do not constitute themselves as prompt cultural shift. But it is still possible that they will become a vital judicial tool, real alternatives to individual actions, contributing to development of court culture. And after some revisions to the legal framework (in particular, shortening the procedural chain and deleting the rules on standardisation), they could be a good example to be followed by other Eastern European countries, in particular, those who do not have group actions but are obliged to implement the Recommendation.

18.4 Summary

Not surprisingly, Eastern Europeans, compared to other Europeans and Americans, exhibited what appears to be a much less committed approach to advancing their claims through legal channels. After the collapse of socialism, the countries of Eastern Europe needed to renew their models of litigation; however, access to justice did not necessarily become much easier at once, although appetite for such access was whetted.

⁵⁰ Michelson (2010) Thirteen Cases of Class Action in Sweden. Bulletin 9 Issue 2. http://www.imakenews.com/iln/e_article001958140.cfm?x=b11,0,w. Accessed 7 August 2013.

People who faced pervasive shortages under socialism were individualists; they were competitors fighting for a slice of a finite cake. It is also true that the protection afforded by courts used to be strictly individualised. Now, a couple of decades later, it is difficult for all the subjects of court cultures to move beyond the scope of traditional concepts, adopt and make use of appropriate measures for the collective protection of interests afforded by courts. We, Eastern Europeans, are still individualists and we rarely share a sense of unity. It is uncommon that various plaintiffs involved in the same legal controversy with the same defendant(s) are represented by the same law firm. We like the individual attention.

Our court culture has yet to come to terms with the increasing appetite for access to justice; this would provide greater opportunities for lawyers to create a broader market for legal services. Claims-consciousness used to be an aspect of American legal culture and not the Eastern European one. But generally, the post-socialist generations of consumers are much more aware of their rights than the elder generations brought up during socialism. Now, generation Y of consumers born between late 1970s and late 1990s who hardly remembers or does not remember socialism is reaching Eastern European courts with their claims. Of course, the characteristics of generation Y cannot be assumed to apply to the entire generation in the whole Europe.⁵¹ But even in Eastern Europe the post-seventies generations are seen as more liberal thinking and sharing more similarities with their western peers. More frequently they see themselves as a part of a larger whole, even if they are not motivated to assert common rights in civil litigation by multiple (punitive) damages. Technologically savvy, they use the Internet and social-networking tools as their means of communication with people sharing similar interests and concerns. This may create fertile turf for growth in the group actions, thanks to either committed injured persons or creative lawyers seeking to maximise their earnings. However, the Eastern European lawmakers should not just copy and paste the European common principles on collective redress into their legal systems. Each Eastern European country needs to be approached in an individual way due to inter alia their different legal status quos. As we have seen in examples shown herein, these differences are considerable since approaches of particular countries to group actions range from the adoption of the American-style opt-out system to the lack of a legal base for such actions.

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⁵¹ More Tulgan and Martin (2001), p. 4 et seq.

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Part IV
Outlook and Conclusion

Chapter 19

Nordic Court Culture in Progress: Historical and Futuristic Perspectives

Laura Ervo

Abstract This chapter addresses topical issues within the subject area of civil litigation. The perspective will be partly historical and partly futuristic. The progress that is just now going on in European civil litigation is explained and studied from the traditional and historical perspectives, both of which are used as a tool to find the explanations for recent developments. Civil litigation, the author contends, seems to return to ancient venues that are outside courts, to be resolved by alternative methods, such as mediation. There are many common factors with the ancient dispute resolution, but because the current society strongly differs from the ancient one, the reasons must be studied from the societal perspective as well. The questions to be set are if there is something new under the sun or if we are just circulating. In other words, which are the modern characteristics of the progressive civil litigation, and from which parts of it does dispute resolution seem to return to the very traditional and ancient forms only? Why can nowadays justice be seen as a negotiated compromise between parties? Why we can talk about the new court culture, why can adjudication be seen as court service and the parties as customers and no longer as “royal subjects”?

19.1 Introduction

Is there anything new under the sun, or are we just hanging out? The ancient conflict resolution in two Nordic countries (Sweden and Finland) was based on the consent and will of the parties and their families. The village community was the main actor, and the adjudication was based on communal values. The finding of the material

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truth in the case, as well as adjudication that was based on the will of outsiders (the judge and the legislator), came into the picture later, together with the centralised power and state authorities.¹

Just recently, similar values and elements that refer to the ancient venues and types of conflict resolution can again be found in the post-modern civil proceedings. For instance, the post-modern court culture² in civil litigation is based on communication and interaction between the parties and the judge. Furthermore, the legislator has delegated quite a lot of its powers to actors in practice. Additionally, the judge has quite a lot of discretionary powers to find the best and the most reasonable solution in the case, together with the parties.³ Due to the named changes, there has been a radical change from adjudication, ideals of material law and a substantively correct judgment towards the ideal of negotiated law and pragmatically acceptable compromise.⁴

There has even been a change from judicial power towards court service, which means that it is not enough to follow normative fairness, but the actors should additionally feel that the procedure was pleasant, and even this kind of experimental fairness is nowadays a significant factor in due procedure. Adjudication can, therefore, nowadays be called a court service.⁵

The civil procedural frames, the terms of references, in other words process ideas, have been fixed according to social needs instead of liberal values, and the practical distribution of work between the parties and the judge is based on the cooperation between the parties and the judge.⁶

In addition, especially in Sweden, conflict resolution has often been seen as the most important function of civil proceedings, and with this development the perspective has been changed from external towards internal and from retrospective towards prospective points of view.⁷

¹ Summary on the history of Swedish–Finnish procedures can be found, for instance, in Ervo (2007), pp. 49–77.

² I use the term “court culture” in the same sense as Anna Piszcz has earlier done in this anthology (see Chap. 18.), including courts, lawyers and parties’ attitudes towards resolution of cases. Like Piszcz has explained earlier, court culture is especially being shaped by procedural laws. The latter part of the court culture is even more important in this chapter than the first dimension due to the fact that this article is not sociological but a juridical one. Therefore, I am looking at court cultures, especially from the normative perspective. In addition, values, as well as the impact of numerous constitutional, economic, political and social factors, have influenced court culture not only directly but even indirectly in the form of new procedural legislation.

³ Ervo (2013b), p. 51.

⁴ Ervasti (2004), p. 168, Ervo and Rasia (2012a), pp. 62–64, Haavisto (2002), p. 20, Laukkanen (1995), p. 214, Takala (1998), pp. 3–5, Tala (2002), pp. 21–23, Tyler (1990), p. 94 and Virolainen and Martikainen (2003), p. 5.

⁵ Ervasti (2004), p. 168, Haavisto (2002), p. 20, Laukkanen (1995), p. 214, Takala (1998), pp. 3–5, Tala (2002), pp. 21–23, Tyler (1990), p. 94 and Virolainen and Martikainen (2003), p. 5.

⁶ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–106.

⁷ Ervasti (2002), pp. 56–62, Leppänen (1998), pp. 32–41, Lindell (2003), pp. 82–101, Lindblom (2000), pp. 46–58 and Virolainen (1995), pp. 80–89.

All of that refers to change, even in democracy. In the current model, democracy means that the courts have to meet the needs of democracy incessantly and *in casu* via the parties. The courts or judges have no longer authority and legitimacy as such, but it has to be deserved every time, in every single case, once again.⁸ All in all, the civil proceedings have become again very communal.

In this study, I will compare the current civil procedural paradigm with the historical procedural development to find out where we are coming from and to estimate which direction we are going to from this moment onward.

19.2 The Link Between Procedural and Substantive Laws

The main purpose of the procedural norms is to guarantee access to justice, in the other words, access to substantive law. The first step on that way is to guarantee access the courts, which nowadays could be described as access to conflict resolution (and also belongs to the main goals in the procedural law). The third aspect is the needs of the parties, that, is how to realise the named goals in the best way such that both society and the current parties are satisfied. Therefore, both society, as such, and the single parties and other actors in one current case are the objectives of procedural norms. Society is along, in the meaning of economic and effective⁹ adjudication and conflict resolution and the individual, in the meaning of well-working procedural system.

Therefore, the procedural law does not exist for its own purposes but for the realisation of other goals. That is why the existing societal ideologies and needs play a major role in the way how all of that has been organised. The process ideas and the functions of proceedings are reflections due to the above-mentioned societal background.

Due to this link between society, substantive law and procedural norms, the current situation in society, current ideologies and values, current way of thinking in the economy and also an individual's sociological behaviour and way of thinking affect deeply the valid procedural system, procedural laws and procedural behaviour (the behaviour of actors in this field) in the sociological meaning.

Procedural system and laws are essential tools to realise substantive law and material rights, as explained above. At the same time, they can be seen as assisting methods in fulfilling other aims. They do not exist alone, but without them substantive law and the material rights cannot be reached and executed. This is a necessary symbiosis that makes the link between the valid procedural law and the current societal circumstances extremely interesting and worthy of researching.

⁸ Ervo (2013b), p. 57.

⁹ Effective in this sense means well-working system where the judicial relief is taken into consideration among costs and length.

In this chapter, the named link has been touched from different perspectives and it is researched, especially from the historical and sociological points of view, to capture the current stage, the reasons to that and to take a peek towards the future development to estimate the next steps in this procedural progress.

19.3 Historical Development: All in One Go Will Be?

There is not much information on the ancient civil proceedings in eastern Nordic countries before the state Sweden–Finland. However, ancient conflict resolution was based on village communities, as well as families and their power to solve conflicts at a local level. There might be differences between inside conflicts (inside the family) and conflicts between families. Inside conflicts were probably solved by light means and damages, and compensation played a main role, whereas in conflicts between families, and especially when the conflict was caused by a serious “criminal” offence, the resolution happened by using the oath taking, where the defender had to give an oath that several people from the same village or family confirmed by their own oaths. The meaning of this procedure was to show if the person still had confidence in the community or not. The aim was to guarantee public peace and to reach law and order in the community to go on and to return from disunity to the unity.¹⁰ As we can see, the main function of the proceedings was to find a concrete solution to the case to continue the peaceful life in the community. Loser/winner relations were not on the focus that time, but the procedural perspective was totally communal and in societal needs as such. The similar characteristics can still be found in the later eastern Nordic proceedings, even if the mentioned features were no longer that strong. Despite of the centralised power in Sweden–Finland, the law and jurisdiction included still 1 village communal undertones. The total change happened not before than during the 17th century even if this tendency towards state law started already in the end of 16th century.¹¹

In the middle ages (1150–1523), Finland was occupied by the Swedes and the state was called Sweden–Finland. As one of the consequences, Swedish legal order, which was based on the continental system, was accepted in Finland as well. In the 1200 century, the centralised power started to develop, which was a good start for the development of procedural law as well. The adjudication and the administration of justice started to move from parties and their families to the societal organs. However, as mentioned before, state adjudication did not fully take place before the 1600 century.¹²

In the beginning of the 1300 century, Western legal order started to take root in Finland, together with Christianity, and by time Sweden–Finland started to get

¹⁰ Tirkkonen (1974), p. 48 and Ylikangas (1983), pp. 7–19.

¹¹ Letto-Vanamo (1995), pp. 6, pp. 264–268 and Ylikangas (1983), pp. 7–19.

¹² Jokela (2005), p. 6, Letto-Vanamo (1995), p. 6 and Tirkkonen (1974), s. 48.

even national legislation—though provincial ruling was still typical in medieval Sweden–Finland. The *provincial laws* included still a lot of ancient common laws, and originally they existed only in an oral form. Later on, in the 13th and the 1300 centuries, they were also written down by the Catholic Church and by the more powerful king. The provincial laws also included family justice, canon law, and king's orders. The family justice effected, for instance, in the way that the victim and his/her relatives they played the central role and lot of decision power in the procedure. In addition, they had a wide choice of procedural conduct.¹³

The procedural code was failing in most cases and, even later, the procedural rules; they were included in the substantive laws. It was common to all provincial codes that the substantive law and procedural rules were not separated but were blended in. Even juridical discretion and evaluation of evidence were not separated. However, the law of evidence was important as such, and the provincial laws included many rules on the burden of proof and on admissibility of evidence.¹⁴

The earlier mentioned system of oath takers was still a very common way to solve conflicts in the medieval Sweden–Finland, and it was used even in civil cases if the plaintiff had no proof, such as documents or witnesses. The claim was, namely, enough to win the case if the defendant could not find those, usually 12, people to confirm by oath that the defendant has a right. The burden of proof, which belonged to the plaintiff, meant only that in case the plaintiff had evidence, even the oaths given by those 12 people could not save the defendant. Otherwise, the defendant had to give evidence against the claims of the plaintiff to win the case.¹⁵ As we can see, medieval proceedings were based on the idea of conflict resolution instead of dispute resolution. The main aim was to solve the conflict materially and not to be satisfied with the not proven decisions. This was due to the goal to reach peace and to avoid revenge.

The medieval proofing was therefore based on oaths and not that much on material truth finding due to the aim to avoid revenge and to continue a peaceful life between the parties. The system of oath takers was based not on the truth as such but on metering how much trust the involved person had in the local society. Due to the same reasons, to find public peace, the main aim was to make a friendly settlement between the parties. However, the church and its adjudication stressed the meaning of truth finding. From the 1200s onward, truth finding was more important and the nature of the system of those 12 oath takers changed to the jury system,¹⁶ where the jury had to decide the material truth in the case. At the same time, oath taking lost its significance and the plaintiff got the burden of proof.¹⁷

¹³ Jokela (2005), p. 6 and Letto-Vanamo (1995), p. 10.

¹⁴ Letto-Vanamo (1995), p. 84.

¹⁵ Letto-Vanamo (1995), pp. 127–132.

¹⁶ From the beginning of 1400s on, all litigation cases were decided by the jury.

¹⁷ Letto-Vanamo (1995), pp. 142, 230–231.

Despite of the provincial laws, their application did not correspond to the modern interpretation of nationwide statutes, but that time the lighter practice was applied, especially in a case where the parties made a friendly settlement or when the jury or the general audience asked for a lighter judgment. The role of the assize was important, and the general audience played a central role at the district court sessions as well. The general audience did attend in the decision-making, and it was an essential part in the proceedings. By doing so, the procedure and decisions achieved even publicity. The general audience took part in decision-making not only in criminal cases but also in civil cases, especially when ownership of land was the issue. As time went by, the general audience was no longer present in large numbers and its significance became minor. One reason for that was that district court sessions turned to inside instead of ancient venues in the nature. This fact that assizes were shifted inside from earlier ancient outdoor venues furthered the progress where private and communal justice became state justice because all the assize audience could no longer find seats to be present. These changes in factual procedural frames caused changes in the internal proceedings as well.¹⁸

The era during the provincial laws was a border line between private and state justice. Still, in those provincial laws, family justice, church justice and state justice existed side by side. More or less, this period continued until the 1550s, where the acts done by parties had already diminished significance, but, on the other hand, legitimacy and power in adjudication were not yet based on state authority but on the way the result had been reached, in the other words, by communality.¹⁹

Later in the middle of 1300s, *two nationally wide laws* were enacted, one for cities and the other for countryside. The procedural code included so many new rules, and the assizes became the means to solve the dispute. Friendly settlements were no longer that important than earlier, and the negotiated justice made by the parties, communities and traditions was not any more important, but adjudication in courts was underlined. It has been said that the medieval era found the law and justice, whereas the new era legislated it.²⁰

The sessions of assize became more and more state court type of proceedings in the 1600s. At the same time, the using of attorneys became more and more typical. This development was mutual in the sense that, on one hand, the proceedings changed to the type where it was possible, necessary and essential to use attorneys instead of own party actions and, on the other hand, the development of the law profession made it possible and the named changes in proceedings facilitated the occurrence of the law profession.²¹

There were long distances to the courts of appeal, which also made it useful for the parties to use attorneys instead of appearing in court themselves. Attorneys sued and responded in the name of the parties and with binding consequences for them.

¹⁸ Ervo (2007), p. 67, Letto-Vanamo (1995), pp. 10–13 and Nousiainen (1993), p. 327.

¹⁹ Jokela (2005), p. 6 and Letto-Vanamo (1995), p. 10.

²⁰ Virolainen (2004), p. 576.

²¹ Letto-Vanamo (1989), p. 223.

Family justice and the oath taking were of the past and the state proceedings had become instead.²²

The development where the central power became more and more important continued reaching its top in 1540, when the private settling of crimes became forbidden and the power to sanction was taken to the society and the state only.²³ It was no longer a private affair of the parties, their families and the local community.

In 1615, Sweden and Finland got a new act on juridical procedure, where, for instance, written proceedings were stressed. In addition, advocates took care of proceedings in the name of parties. Also, this is a good example on the development, where the family type procedures were recessive and the proceedings started to be more and more state based.²⁴ At the same time, the sequential jurisdiction became ruled and the summoning and rules covering the absence of the parties were institutionalised. All that led towards state jurisdiction, instead of earlier family jurisdiction.²⁵ In addition, in the end of the fifteenth century, the legislator tried to effect and speed up proceedings by so many state orders.²⁶ At the same time, the material truth became a more and more important aim in court procedure. The party's status to be a tool for evidence became minor, and witnesses as well as the jury became more important in this sense. The judge and the jury decided together what the truth was in the case and confirmed the law in the case.²⁷ The jury had important status, especially in civil cases where equity played a huge role.²⁸

From 1617 to 1721, the nature of the proceedings became more rational. The courts got the instance hierarchy, and the characteristics of the law of evidence changed. Truth finding became the most important. The parties lost their autonomy to decide the case. This power was taken by the state, and adjudication and justice started to be based on authority, state power, rules and coercion. At the same time, adjudication became professional and bureaucratic.²⁹

In 1695, Sweden–Finland got a new procedural order by which oath taking was even formally abolished and the witnesses should be outsiders from this on, which was a major change in the characteristic of the law of evidence and in the function of proceedings.³⁰ By the same 1695 procedural order, the procedure got even otherwise the modern frames in its present form.³¹

Evidence was based on the legal theory where the court was dominant instead of the parties. Even the participation of the judge played a major role in

²² Letto-Vanamo (1989), p. 255.

²³ Letto-Vanamo (1995), pp. 85–101 and Nousiainen (1993), pp. 319–320.

²⁴ Letto-Vanamo (1989), pp. 221–233 and 307.

²⁵ Letto-Vanamo (1989), pp. 233–236 and 307–308.

²⁶ Letto-Vanamo (1989), p. 308.

²⁷ Letto-Vanamo (1989), pp. 246, 256 and 308.

²⁸ Letto-Vanamo (1989), p. 248.

²⁹ Nousiainen (1993), pp. 318–319.

³⁰ Letto-Vanamo (1995), p. 85.

³¹ Virolainen (2004), pp. 407–408.

the Swedish new era proceedings. It was the judge who was the main element in court communication and participation. The judge could decide the fact gathering and the adduction of evidence and whether the parties should be present or not despite of the fact that the case was a non-discretionary or non-mandatory type. The Truth finding played the most essential role as well, and the judge could use party hearing to investigate this even in non-mandatory cases, and the method was widely in use, especially in the countryside and generally in lower courts.³² The development got its height in 1734 with the famous codification, where it was stressed that the judge is the servant of the law and not its boss, which meant that the judge has to follow the law in all its details and should not settle or amend for reasons of equity. Legalism was therefore very important, and it was underlined that the roles of the legislator and the judge are highly separated.³³

The system continued like this for quite a long time. In 1809, Finland became an autonomous part of Russia, having still earlier Swedish laws in force. Therefore, Russian adjudication did not have much of an effect in Finland, but the Swedish model was followed even later in the independent country from 1917 onward. The 1734 Judicial Code of Procedure is valid in Finland even today, even if no original paragraphs are valid any longer. However, from 1870s on, there were plans to reform the proceedings comprehensively. So many partial reforms were fulfilled; for instance, the law of evidence was reformed in 1948 when the legal theory of evidence was abolished even formally. In practice, courts had followed the free theory of evidence from the late 1800s on. There were so many plans and suggestions for this overall reform, but they were not realised before 1993, when the overall reform in Finnish proceedings finally seriously started. In 1993, reform was drafted with the three main goals to build the procedure at lower courts into the oral, immediate and concentrated proceedings.³⁴

The reasons for the long-lasting planning were partly societal and political. There were wars and economic crisis, in addition to political disunity.³⁵ From 1993 onward, there have been so many procedural reforms in both civil and criminal proceedings covering especially the lower courts and the courts of appeal. In the latest development, the possibility to make friendly settlements has been strongly stressed by the legislator. In addition, mediation has played a huge role and even court-connected mediation; judges as mediator has existed since 2006.

³² Inger (2011) and Letto-Vanamo (1989), p. 241.

³³ Nousiainen (1993), p. 389.

³⁴ Aggregated in Ervo (2007), pp. 77–95.

³⁵ Aggregated in Ervo (2007), pp. 82–93.

19.4 The Functions: For the Parties or Society?

There has been a very wide discussion in the Nordic countries, especially in Sweden, on the function of civil proceedings, which nowadays has mostly seen to be conflict resolution. Traditionally, it has been seen that the function of procedure is to grant judicial relief.³⁶ According to it, the function of procedure is to grant the interests of civil law. The proceedings are the instrument in order to achieve access to justice strictly according to substantive law. The point of view is internal what the procedure is concerned.

However, nowadays, the point of view is wider and takes the aspects of society into consideration. The main function of procedure has been seen to be dispute resolution,³⁷ conflict resolution³⁸ or even both.³⁹ Those who see that the function of procedure is dispute resolution keep the process as a sanction mechanism. The idea is that procedure has a strong influence on material law and therefore judgments should be given strictly according to substantive law. The point of view is to consider procedure as an institute. The viewpoint is external to what the single proceedings are concerned. The function of proceedings as an institute is to guide the behaviour of people so that they would obey the norms of substantive law. At the same time, the proceedings have the task to maintain and advance morality in society. This function is quite close to the traditional thinking. The main difference is, however, that the point of view is not internal but external and the proceedings have been seen to have effects on the whole society.⁴⁰

The other current viewpoint is to see conflict resolution as a function of proceedings, which seems to be the most popular and current trend among both academics and legislator. According to this thinking, it is most important to resolve the conflict between the parties as a whole not only as a judicial problem. The correctness of the judgment and its contents are not the most important things, but the task is to resolve the conflict in a way that it will no more exist but the parties can go on in their lives and even together. The latter is especially important in case parties are, for instance, neighbours, colleagues, former spouses or business partners, who still have common activities even in the future. In order to achieve this

³⁶ The goal of civil procedure has traditionally been said to be the realising of the interests and of the rights of civil law. That is why also procedural values have been seen to be identical with the values of substantive law. See, for instance, Henckel (1970), p. 409.

³⁷ For instance, Hägerström, Lundstedt, Olivekrona, Ekelöf, Andenæs, Boman, Werin, Scott and Fiss.

³⁸ For instance, Aubert, Bolding, Eckhoff, Lindell and Palmgren. According to Lindell, the procedure in non-mandatory civil cases should be conflict resolution and in mandatory cases, dispute resolution. Lindell (1988), p. 87.

³⁹ For instance, Lindblom and Strömholm; see in the procedure the influences of both theories. Lindblom (2000), pp. 52–58.

⁴⁰ Aggregated in Ervasti (2004), p. 507.

aim, the parties should participate widely in procedure and have wide possibilities to make dispositions as well.⁴¹

Among the school of conflict resolution, the law of evidence, especially the burden of proof, as well as the standard of proof, is in centre. This school has used the idea of so-called preponderance of evidence in the law of evidence. It means that the burden of proof and somehow even the standard of proof will become invalid. That party will win who has the overweight, that is, who has proven his or her claim to be more probable. So even the 51 % overweight can be enough for what the standard of proof is concerned about. The main idea is, of course, again to resolve the conflict. With the judgment “not proven”, the conflict between the parties will not become resolved will exist even after the procedure has been finished. The rules on the burden of proof and the standard of proof are therefore not useful in conflict resolution.⁴²

The most current trend is to see the function of procedure as conflict resolution and to underline that kind of characteristics. The legislator, academics and actors in practice seem to both seek and appreciate elements that realise this type of civil litigation. Party autonomy, friendly settlements and different types of mediation are the current procedural tools to fulfil the goal. Communication, interaction, cooperation—they are psychological approaches towards the same direction. Mediation and class actions are examples of more communal conflict resolution as earlier. By those means, the legislator tries to achieve access to justice and experimental fairness better and in a more effective way. By conflict resolution, the proceedings and therefore even state justice come closer to alternative dispute resolution and private justice.⁴³

19.5 Truth Finding: Societal and Moral Interests Involved?

The intensity to find out the material truth in the case has varied the course of the day. Sometimes it has been underlined more, whereas there are periods when the procedural truth has been stressed more. Sometimes truth finding has not been a goal at all, but the parties could have settled the case according to their wills despite the proof, sometimes even despite the substantive law. in the case.

It has also been said that the truth is illusory, incomplete and dependent on the knower and knowledge. The truth is especially very complicated.⁴⁴ Therefore, we can even ask the question whether truth finding is important and why it is if it is.

⁴¹ Aggregated in Ervasti (2004), p. 507.

⁴² Lindell (1988), p. 88 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 227–290.

⁴³ Ervo (2009a, 2011a, b).

⁴⁴ Menkel-Meadow (1996), p. 5.

In addition, we can ask what kind of role it has played and what kind of role it should play in the civil proceedings.

In the recent centuries, the aim of procedure has been to find out the material truth, that is, what has really happened in the case, whereas in the olden times, in other words in the ancient conflict resolution, material truth finding played no role at all.⁴⁵ The recent trend in the legal literature has again been to stress the meaning of procedural truth mostly.

According to Chap. 17, Sect. 17.2 of the Finnish Code of Judicial Procedure “after having carefully evaluated all the facts that have been presented, the court shall decide what is to be regarded as the truth in the case”. This has been interpreted to refer to the material truth as an aim. However, the real result, the judgment, is always based on the procedural truth that is what has been proved during the trial.⁴⁶ Still, it has been important to make the difference between these two dimensions and to aim at the material truth at the illusory level and not to be satisfied with something that is false.⁴⁷ The material truth is illusory when the procedural truth is incomplete and dependent on the knower and knowledge.

However, this has been the situation. In the newer literature, the material truth is no longer stressed, but it has been pointed out that the result reached in the proceedings is based on the procedural truth only, and the material truth as an aim has been underestimated.⁴⁸ Quite recently, the Finnish legislator made a suggestion to change even the above-named section.⁴⁹ According to the proposal, the court shall decide what has been proved in the case. This decision shall be based on the presented pieces of evidence and other facts that have arisen during the proceedings. In Sweden, this has been the case even before, and both the aim and the result in the proceedings have been based on the procedural truth only. According to the Swedish Code of Judicial Procedure, Chapter 35, Section 2, the court shall namely determine what has been proved in the case after evaluating everything that has occurred in accordance with the dictates of its conscience.

If we compare this development with traditional dispute resolution, we can find some similarities. In olden times, the power to decide the case belonged to the village communities. In addition, family and relatives played a huge role in conflict resolution, which is based on the aim to find public peace again and to avoid the spiral of revenge. The significance of the truth became more important just later by the canon law and when the central power started to develop.⁵⁰

⁴⁵ See Sect. 19.3.

⁴⁶ Tirkkonen (1969), pp. 24–25.

⁴⁷ Ervo (2012b), p. 3.

⁴⁸ Frände (2009), p. 366, Niemi-Kiesiläinen (2003), p. 346, Huovila (2003), p. 179, Turunen (1999), p. 496, Virolainen and Pölönen (2003), p. 174. However, Jokela, Lappalainen and Saranpää have stressed aspects that refer to the material truth and its importance as well. Jokela 1996 (2005), pp. 40–41, Lappalainen (2001), p. 993 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 28–29. About the significance of the material truth in criminal cases, see Ervo (2013a).

⁴⁹ Oikeusministeriön mietintöjä ja lausuntoja 69/2012, p. 215.

⁵⁰ See Sect. 19.3.

It has been also said that the increasing complexity of modern life and trials has led to the fact that in conflicts there are often more than two parties. This development will also affect how the truth as a goal is understood in the proceedings. If we accept that modern conflicts are complex entities that belong to more than only the main parties to the conflict, it may be necessary to accept the relativity of truth and to emphasise the function of proceedings, specifically as conflict resolution.⁵¹

As mentioned above, the current trend in civil proceedings has since some decades been conflict resolution. Therefore, it is natural that the material truth and its finding is no longer that important, but the most vital aim seems more and more often to be that the parties are satisfied and that the conflict between them has been solved fundamentally, finally and by legitimate means.⁵² Thus, the importance of the procedural truth is growing in such a way that the parties may be permitted to even dispose of it.

19.6 Process Idea: A Link to Societal Ideologies

Process ideas refer to theoretical frames of reference covering the objectives of the trial and the norms and methods with which the objectives, in a concrete trial, are carried out. Especially, the frames of civil procedure have been described with the process ideas.

The process ideas or civil procedural frames,⁵³ the terms of references, can be organised according to liberal or social values; nowadays, even the third form, namely the modern social procedural frames, has been found.⁵⁴

The liberalistic process idea is based on the thinking ‘wherein the parties’ role is very strong and the court is passive. This is due to the equality of parties. The proceedings are seen as a fair play between parties who should have an open playground for the play that should not be restricted by the judge or the procedural norms. Their equality is based on the equal freedom and equal norms and on the passive judge who will not take care of one’s rights but focus on the dispute resolution only. It does not belong to the duties of the judge to take care of the judicial relief of the parties or the material truth in the case.⁵⁵

⁵¹ Menkel-Meadow (1996), p. 5.

⁵² Tolvanen (2006), p. 1343.

⁵³ With the procedural “frames”, I refer to the way how the distribution of the procedural work has been dealt with by the actors, like the judge and the parties, for instance, who are active and responsible for the truth finding, pleadings, etc. If it is mostly or only the parties who take care of this kind of procedural acts and by those means decide the frames in the single case or if the judge is more active.

⁵⁴ Ervo (2005b), pp. 102–103.

⁵⁵ Ervo (2005b), pp. 98–99, Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–68 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 82–84.

The social process idea is almost the opposite of the liberal one. It is central in the social process idea to secure the parties' real equality. The judge's role becomes active, and the objective is to reach materially the right judgment. Theoretical equality is no longer enough if the parties are anyways unequal in practice due to different resources.⁵⁶

The modern social process idea is the second step in this development where the parties' real possibilities should be secured⁵⁷ but where also their freedom and free will should be respected with the help of the party autonomy in both substantive and procedural questions. In addition, the object of the proceedings, the problem the parties have, is seen not only as a juridical problem but as a comprehensive way where the conflict as such should be solved, and the parties should get the possibility to touch even sociological, psychological and moral dimensions of their problem instead of the issues with the pure juridical nature.⁵⁸

The liberalistic process idea took shape in Germany in the 1800s, and its basic structures reflected the liberalistic way of thinking in the field of economy, which was typical for the period. In the background of the liberalistic process idea is the concept of freedom in which the autonomy of the individual is essential in relation to the government. This idea of freedom is the same that was typical for the era of the Enlightenment. The freedom is manifested in the failing of the adjusted norms. The freedom rights formulated the so-called freedom circle for the individual, where the state did not use its power but it was free for individuals to use their power independently. According to this way of thinking, the individuals had to have freedom to use their individual power freely even during the trial.⁵⁹

The procedural freedom was manifested, especially with using the principle of the party disposition by the fairly orthodox way, which expressed the above-mentioned private autonomy in the law of procedure. There was no significance whether the party was able to make pleadings or if he or she understood their significance. The formal equality between the parties was sufficient in the process. The judge's role was passive. His/Her task was to solve the quarrels defined by the parties and not to take care of their legal protection or of the material truth. The liberalistic process idea was based on the distinctive neutrality of the court, and the parties' equality was carried out particularly with the passiveness of the judge. Passiveness and equality were even compared with each other.⁶⁰

The liberalistic process included the dispute resolution perspective in which the court was considered as a tool to solve the quarrels impartially. Society offered this alternative to the parties to solve their quarrels independently. The private quarrelling was namely seen to be more dangerous than the peaceful settling of quarrels by a trial from the point of view of societal peace. However, the purpose of the

⁵⁶ Ervo (2005b), pp. 99–101, Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–88 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 84–85.

⁵⁷ Ervo (2005b), pp. 102–103.

⁵⁸ Ervo (2009a, 2011a, b, 2013b).

⁵⁹ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–68.

⁶⁰ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–68.

alternative was only to offer the setting and controlled conditions to the solution of quarrels. The offering of formal methods was a sufficient and the material interference with the solution of quarrels; it was kept as a forbidden interference to the private autonomy. Within the liberalistic sphere of the process idea, the trial was understood as a competition between the formally equal parties. The trial was strongly based on the idea of the two-party proceedings. In addition, the perspective in the proceedings was retrospective. The main point was to solve the judicial problem due to the historical facts that happened in the past.⁶¹

In the trial shaped by the liberalistic process idea, it was sufficient to reach this formal freedom and equality. It was not at all significant if the party was able to achieve his real objectives by his pleadings. A responsibility also was connected to the freedom as an essential part. From the stupidity it was fined.⁶²

The social process idea was created as a reaction to a liberal process idea and thus is mainly the opposite of the liberalistic one. At the same time, it is a question of competing process ideas because they foremost will pay attention to the same features of the frames of the process and usually appear in the same legal culture. The social process idea rose especially out in Germany 1950–1970 in connection with discussions concerning the objectives and goals of the civil procedure. As such, the social process idea developed already at the end of the 1800s, and, for example, Austria's 1895 Civil Procedural Code is considered as its one manifestation. The social process idea is not as uniform a theory as a liberalistic process idea is. Instead, the social process idea mainly criticises some procedural features that are typical of the liberal theory. However, there is one common feature in all social process ideas, and it is the active judge. It belongs to the judge's duties to find out the material truth and to take care of the judicial relief of the parties. In addition, the perspective is future oriented, and the conflict should be resolved in the way that makes the possible cooperation of the parties possible even in the future. The main point is, therefore, not to find the juridical compensation to the past event but to look towards the forthcoming cooperation and relation between the parties.⁶³

The proceedings are not only the matter of the parties, but it can have links to the other actors as well. The structure of procedural actors is likewise more versatile than in the liberalistic process idea. It is not necessarily a question of a tight two-party proceedings, but the interests that are related to the matter can vary more widely. The conflict situation is understood in a way that it may reach also outsiders and not only the formal parties. In addition, it has effects to the whole society because one aim of the proceedings is to affect the behaviour of the people in the future. Therefore, one of the functions of civil proceedings is seen to be one kind of sanction mechanism. At the same time, even the other civil procedural function, namely conflict resolution, fits well into the social process idea because the social process idea stresses that the conflict should be solved as a

⁶¹ Ervo (2005b), pp. 98–99 and Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–68.

⁶² Ervo (2005b), pp. 98–99, Ervo (2007), pp. 106–111 and Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–68.

⁶³ Ervo (2005b), pp. 99–101, Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–88 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 84–85.

whole and not only from the judicial point of view. In social process, the conflict should be solved as the whole, including all its projections.⁶⁴

It is central in the social process idea to secure the parties' real equality. Therefore, the judge's role became active, and the objective was to reach the judgment that was materially correct. The judge became the central character in the trial, which was isolated neither from a surrounding society nor from parties. The judge was a process subject who could use his or her own advisers and experts. An attempt was also made to reduce the formality of the procedure and to intensify the flexibility and speed of the procedure. According to the social process idea, the judgments are more negotiated than condemned. The procedure indeed is a many-sided interdependency where the active judge leads the process. The procedure itself can be seen as a flexible service that takes the parties' needs into consideration.⁶⁵

In Germany, in which the social process idea especially developed the Civil Procedural Code was considered as a law of for the elite. The different procedural burdens and the parties' responsibility to carry on the procedure were seen easier to the subjects who were able to do the business better. They were successful in the process who knew their rights and were familiar with both legislation and procedure. Within the sphere of the social process idea, a criticism was presented against this inequality. The procedure and the court were seen instead of the implementer of the stronger party's rights as a servant of the whole right community and society. However, it was not necessarily a question of the class war that was brought to the law of procedure, but the social process idea may have been understood also as an implementer of general interests, such as in consumer protection or environmental protection. In the Nordic countries, however, the sociability appeared, for example, in achieving of the objectives of the material legislation in which the law of procedure operated as executor of these objectives.⁶⁶

The Austrian Civil Procedural Code of 1895 has often been mentioned as a good example of the procedure that has been built on the social process idea. The above-presented German critic was taken into consideration, and the Austrian procedural rules were no longer that formal but, the whole proceedings were built on the social idea. An attempt was made to accelerate the trial by shortening deadlines. The judge got wide power for the process management. Furthermore, the principles of orality, immediacy and concentration were brought into use. The formality of the trial was reduced by emphasising the objective of the material truth, by the judge's active project management and by bringing into use the free examination of a witness and the free consideration of evidence. With these reforms, the basic idea of the process as a matter that belongs to the parties' private autonomy was stepped aside in Austria, and the process got distinctly social features. The judge had

⁶⁴ Ervo (2005b), pp. 99–101, Ervo (2007), pp. 111–118, Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–88 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 84–85.

⁶⁵ Ervo and Rasia (2012a), pp. 62–64.

⁶⁶ Ervo (2005b), pp. 99–101, Ervo (2007), pp. 111–118 and Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–88.

a social role with the active process management, a task to study the matter thoroughly and a duty to take care of the parties' substantive interests. The new tendency began to spread also elsewhere to Central Europe, as well as to the Nordic countries soon. Austria's reformed law affected especially Norway's and Denmark's similar laws, which likewise were reformed at the turn of the 1900s.⁶⁷

In the early 1970s, the social process idea reached its second step when in Germany a so-called *co-operation principle* developed as a fruit of the social process idea. It talked about a social civil procedure and about humanisation of the civil procedure by emphasising the parties, and the judge's active interaction. A discussing judge was brought out instead of a passive solver. The discussion began already in the 1950s, in which case the social process idea was brought up in a discussion concerning the objectives and principles of the civil procedure.⁶⁸

In 1976, a specific prohibition was taken to Germany's reformed Civil Procedural Code to avoid surprising judgments, and a duty to reserve an opportunity to utter from all the matter questions and questions of law that have emerged for the parties was set for the courts. Thus, the discussion between the parties and the court increased and was directed to essential matters. The judge's social role was emphasised by the active process management and duty to study the matter thoroughly. The judge has discretion in the choice of the legal consequence. Even legislation does not necessarily restrict this consideration, but the judge has permission to shape a suitable legal consequence and also has a responsibility for the finding of the suitable consequence. It is significant to achieve the objectives of, especially, material legislation.⁶⁹

With the reform the cooperation principle, the social process idea got the point of reference in a valid law. With it also the views that are related to the social process idea were systematised and organised. The school that studied the cooperation principle also was born. Except a social process idea, thoughts were connected to the cooperation principle from a humane civil procedure and from a discussing judge's points of view. Within the sphere of the school, it was shown that the social structures on which the liberalistic process idea had been based once had changed during the century.⁷⁰

Nowadays, the cooperation principle is understood as particularly the court's and the parties' concrete cooperation. Originally, the thought was to restrict the principles of party disposition and method of treatment because in court instituted civil action was not considered as only the parties' personal affair, but the quick and right solving of it was also in the interest of society. The purpose was to guarantee the parties' real equality in the process with a more active process management than before.⁷¹

⁶⁷ Ervo (2005b), pp. 99–101, Ervo (2007), pp. 111–118, Laukkanen (1995), pp. 69–88 and Saranpää (2010), pp. 84–85.

⁶⁸ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 89–108.

⁶⁹ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 89–108.

⁷⁰ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 89–108.

⁷¹ Laukkanen (1995), pp. 89–108.

With a social process idea, an attempt was made to replace as a battle between the parties the thought of the process that has dominated earlier. As the judge's task, the achieving of the objectives of especially the material legislation in its solutions was raised. The thought was that fairness does not develop only from the case-specific analysis of the right, but to achieve the objectives of the legislation in the individual cases is central. In the discussion, the questions of the normativity of the law of procedure, of the judge's person and social profile also were brought up. Thus, it was not a question merely of the criticism of process rules and of the change demands, but also the criticism was directed to the lawyers' education, the judges' working methods and attitudes and the possibilities of the court system to offer a real legal protection. On the whole, humanisation of the civil procedure was required. The objective was to increase citizen's confidence in the courts.⁷²

19.7 Modern Social Process Idea: Back to Ancient Venues?

The dominating process idea is developing towards *the modern social process idea*, which can be seen as a developed version of earlier social process idea. In its modern form, the parties are even given the concrete tools to act in an equal and active way in the proceedings. It is not sufficient to correct a possible inequality with the procedural laws or with the active operation of the court only, but the cooperation principle must be supplemented, if necessary, by developing the external methods of the court to create the equality. This kind of a method is, for example, an opportunity to get a free legal aid.⁷³ These kind of concrete tools are typical in the current process idea. The other examples are interpreters, support persons, experts like psychologists and so on. No one should—due to the lack in resources—be unable to act in the proceedings or to reach the conflict resolution. By those means, even the court is given the best possibilities to solve the case.

This is essential in a fair trial that also belongs strongly to the modern social process idea, thanks to international human right conventions and thanks to the internationalising⁷⁴ and constitutionalising⁷⁵ of legal procedures. The named phenomena have caused the boom of human and constitutional rights, which is very strong especially in Finland during decent decades and has affected strongly in the

⁷² Laukkanen (1995), pp. 89–108.

⁷³ Ervo (2005b), pp. 102–103 and Ervo (2007), p. 118.

⁷⁴ Procedural law has been said to be internationalised because there are more and more international conventions and other rulings, which include very often quite deep regulating procedural norms. Especially, this has been the situation in Finland, where the European Convention on Human Rights and its Article 6 plays a huge role in adjudication. Also, EU law has deep-going effects, especially in the field of civil proceedings and nowadays more and more even in criminal procedure.

⁷⁵ This concept refers especially to the Finnish phenomenon where the constitutional rights in the field of procedure play a significant role nowadays.

procedural law and court proceedings. Therefore, also access to court and access to justice have been taken more seriously and even in the way where the court proceedings are viewed critically. Foremost, legal aid and this kind of tools to reach the procedure are stressed and other hindrances in proceedings, such as the delays, are taken into consideration. Different solutions to those problems have been found or at least tried to be found. Still, court proceedings have been reviewed critically as such and alternative dispute resolution has been arising, especially in the form of mediation procedures. This significance of fairness is one very important element in the modern social process idea. In addition, not only normative fairness but even experimental fairness have been stressed in recent development. The parties and all actors in the procedural field should even feel that the process was fair. Currently, the most important function in adjudication is that contextual decisions, which the parties are satisfied with, are produced through fair proceedings. Therefore, one of the main goals is substantial satisfaction. There has been a change from formal justice to perceived procedural justice and from judicial power to court service, which means that it is not enough to follow normative fairness but the actors should additionally feel that the procedure was pleasant, and even this kind of experimental fairness is nowadays a significant factor in due procedure. Adjudication can now be called court service.⁷⁶ All of that means that major changes in the role of a judge and the parties, as well as fundamental changes in the main goals of civil procedure, have been done during the latest 20 decades, that is, since 1990s.

The other characteristics of the current process idea are that the discursivity and communication of the proceedings are stressed more than ever since the ancient dispute resolution. In its modern form, the adversarial principle (*audiatur et altera pars*) bears with it, as human and fundamental rights, the chance for active involvement in a trial. The parties have to have an equal opportunity to present their case and to participate in the proceedings. The inequality of the starting point has to be brought into a rightful balance by emphasising the legal security of the weaker party. The parties in the case have to be guaranteed sufficient practical means for their participation so as to put forward their side of the matter. Neither lack of resources nor ignorance should serve to hinder the exercise of their adversarial right. Nor should participation of this kind be prevented or restricted by the imposition of too strict a set of procedural limitations upon the hearing of the case. This is based both on the normative and experimental needs of procedural fairness.⁷⁷ Therefore, nowadays, the concept of adversarial right covers much more than the provision of a formal opportunity that a judge is asked to ponder in answering the contentions of the other side.

Fair trial in its normative sense has even been compared with the theory of discourse ethics, according to which the goal of communicative endeavour is

⁷⁶ Ervasti (2004), p. 168, Haavisto (2002), p. 20, Laukkanen (1995), p. 214, Takala (1998), pp. 3–5, Tala (2002), pp. 21–23, Tyler (1990), p. 94 and Virolainen and Martikainen (2003), p. 5.

⁷⁷ Ervo (2005b), pp. 425–426 and Ervo (2008), pp. 155–157.

consensus. And this may best be reached in an ideal speech situation. The latter prevails when everyone participates. Each party may contest every argument put forward and may themselves put forward their own arguments: nor may any party challenge the use of these rights. The ideal speech situation is thus a right to participate, which means the right to be present and to enter into argumentation. In the ideal speech situation, a joint understanding is reached only by the force of the most powerful argument. Internal or external coercion such as the relative strengths of the parties or their actual chances of participation should not determine the conclusion or influence its formulation. It is certainly true that a trial has a strategic side and that in consequence every party would like to gain his own advantage. Notwithstanding this, when seen in terms of the modern-day concept of a social process, it is the fair trial in particular that should be intensely communicative, for the aim of the trial is the granting of legal protection so that the correct outcome is attained in a fair manner reflecting respect for fundamental and human rights and for the self-determination of the individual. An indication of this is the extension of the opposite party's right to be heard (that is, of the adversarial principle) so that it would cover all practical rights of participation in place of the earlier, more formal right simply to be heard. In other words, in order to be fair, the trial should not contain hidden strategic aspects, which would endanger the reality of participation, adversarial or otherwise. A fair trial has to be as wide a discourse as possible even to the extent that actual participation should be encouraged, where necessary, by the support of legal aid and interpreters. Naturally, it is once again worth stressing that an ideal speech situation in a trial, too, can only be attempted. Real discourses are even at their best only a glimmer of ideal discourses. Reality is always therefore inadequate, that is to say, to some degree strategic.⁷⁸

To sum up, a system based on the concept of a fair trial is a communicative one and, to a certain degree, does recall the ideal speech situation, though it cannot be said that it is a total reflection of it. In the formal procedure, there is inevitably a strategic aspect, too, which appears, for example, in questions relating to the burden of proof. A trial has to take place within a reasonable time, and the solution has to occur not merely in terms of the trial materials but also in terms of the law. These limitations do mean that it is far from being the case that the consensus aimed at in the theory of discourse ethics is always attained. In spite of this, in a fair trial, in particular, communication has an important procedural role. The adversarial principle and the other principles that enhance communicativeness only serve to strengthen the chances of realising a fair trial. Indeed, they constitute its very core.⁷⁹

There has also been a big change from adjudication, ideals of material law and a substantively correct judgment to the ideals of negotiated law and pragmatically acceptable compromise. In this kind of procedure, the judge is seen more as a helper of the parties than the actor who is using his/her public power to make final

⁷⁸ Ervo (2005b), pp. 57–112, Ervo (2005a), pp. 226–235 and Ervo (2009b), pp. 361–376.

⁷⁹ Ervo (2005b), pp. 425–457, Ervo (2005a), pp. 226–235 and Ervo (2009b), pp. 361–376.

decisions. The development has proceeded from judicial power to court service.⁸⁰ Sometimes mediation and this kind of assistance action carried out by the judge have even been seen as a main function of adjudication,⁸¹ which is a significant sign of a totally new paradigm in the procedural world. During liberalism, the judge was seen as a passive outsider who was observing the formally equal parties who had the courtroom as a playground for their match. Later, when the proceedings were understood from the more social, maybe even more socialistic, point of view, the role of a judge became more active and participating. It belonged to her/his duties not only to observe but also to guarantee that the proceedings were fair and the parties factually had possibilities to advocate in the case.⁸² In the current post-modern and more global procedural world, the result of the proceedings plays a more significant role for the parties, especially in civil litigation, than before. The parties prefer controlling the outcome, and they do not want to take risks of surprising decisions made by judges. This is due to the societal changes. People are more aware of their individuality and human dignity. They are aware of their rights. In their relation to the authorities, they demand service instead of obeying. Even in their internal relations to the other actors, whether human beings or juridical bodies, people appreciate human communication and discretion, that is, the possibility to control the output by themselves in case the result affects their daily lives. All of that has affected so that the modern social process idea can be seen as a fair communication between the actors where all can participate in active, factual and equal way. In addition, they should have party autonomy both in procedural and substantive matters, and the outcome should be seen more than together reached—that is, as negotiated law—than the decision made by an outsider by the traditional means adjudication. In sum, these elements refer to ancient venues and to communal, social conflict resolution made by parties themselves.

19.8 Newest Trends and Conclusions

In court-connected mediation, the most important thing is to reach the decision made by the parties themselves, which they accept and to which they commit themselves. In the traditional judicature, the decisions are instead made by authorised officials (judges). In the court-connected mediation, the procedural fairness is mostly based on the experiences of the parties in the mediation procedure, and their participation is important. In traditional court proceedings, the fairness is significantly based on the formal procedure, which should produce fair and correct judgments. However, civil litigation in courts via traditional court proceedings has

⁸⁰ Ervasti (2004), p. 433, Ervo (1995), Haavisto (2001), pp. 98–102 and Haavisto (2002), pp. 165–251, 260–262 and 287.

⁸¹ Von Barga (2008).

⁸² Laukkanen (1995), pp. 35–36 and 58–98.

recently reached many similar dimensions that are fully realised in the court-connected mediation. Therefore, also the court proceedings approach to similar values which are hallmarks in the court connected mediation that is the party autonomy both in procedural and substantive matters and the experimental fairness which have become more and more important elements even in the traditional civil litigation earlier done by courts but nowadays done in co-operation and together by all actors involved in the case.⁸³

In court-connected mediation, the main point is to find out the interests and needs of the parties, while in civil litigation, the main point of view is their juridical rights and duties. In court-connected mediation, the most important thing is not to find out if the parties have a right or not but to find out a solution that they both accept and follow.⁸⁴ In Finland, court-connected mediation is a strong trend among scholars and research,⁸⁵ as well as among the judiciary where court-connected mediation has been developed and widened recently to cover even family mediation in a specific, originally Norwegian form.⁸⁶ As referred above, even civil litigation has similar characteristics nowadays. In Sweden, court-connected mediation is not that common yet, but 60 % of judgments in civil cases are reached by friendly settlements done during the preparatory stage of the civil litigation.⁸⁷ Therefore, it can be said that eastern Nordic civil litigation is nowadays quite strongly based on the idea of negotiated justice and procedural, experienced fairness.⁸⁸

The alternative dispute resolution is quite a popular topic, especially among Nordic scholars.⁸⁹ The phenomenon of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) has been described as the strongest judicial megatrend of this moment, at least, on the basis of written numbers of pages.⁹⁰ It has also been said that this debate has thoroughly changed earlier ideas as to how to solve conflicts that arise in society;⁹¹ however, when researching backwards and looking at history, those ideas and models are not unique or modern, but the similar conflict resolution models can be found already in the ancient venues. Still, it has even been claimed that the question is about the revolution of the resolution of disputes. Within ADR, mediation has

⁸³ Ervo (2009a, 2011a, b, 2013b).

⁸⁴ Ervasti (2005), p. 242.

⁸⁵ Koulu (2009), p. 26 and Koulu (2011), p. 5.

⁸⁶ <http://www.oikeus.fi/55281.htm>, visited 2013-09-23.

⁸⁷ According to court statistics, the amount of civil cases at district courts where the case has been decided by a judgment are the following: (per cent) in 2008, 40.5 %; in 2009, 40.2 %; in 2010, 40.4 %; in 2011, 42 %; and, in 2012, 41.2 %. <http://www.domstol.se/Publikationer/Statistik/Domstolsstatistikpercent202012.pdf>, visited 2013-09-23. Similar results also in Lindell (2012), p. 303, and in SOU 1982/26: 137, which shows us that the trend has quite long traditions by now.

⁸⁸ See also Ervasti (2005), p. 243.

⁸⁹ See, for instance, the publications of Lindell from Sweden, Nylund from Norway and Ervasti, as well as Koulu from Finland.

⁹⁰ Ervo and Sippel (2012c), pp. 352–353 and Koulu (2011), p. 5.

⁹¹ Ervo and Sippel (2012c), pp. 352–353 and Koulu (2011), p. 5.

received the largest amount of interest from scientific and other people.⁹² The availability of access to justice has improved in this context because of the lower legal expenses arising out of this sort of device in comparison with a court trial.⁹³

As explained above in Sect. 19.4., the ultimate function of civil proceedings has been seen to be a conflict resolution instead of dispute resolution or granting of juridical relief. In conflict resolution, the conflict should be solved as a whole, taking also social and moral dimensions into consideration, and not only judicially as described earlier. In addition, the solution should be prospective to cause the parties to go on in their lives and in their possible cooperation instead of mostly retrospective judicial decisions.⁹⁴ All of that refers to the change of the paradigm in civil litigation.⁹⁵

The other current trend that refers to collective dispute resolution is collective redress. In that context, the collectivity plays a little bit different role, as I explained earlier. Now the point is how to react together to get access to justice. However, even in that type of collectivity, the above-presented changes in the paradigm play a significant role. Namely, in this context it is the question of multiparty litigation where the whole community who feels hurt tries to react together towards “the enemy”, that is, a defendant in a class action case who is an outsider of “the community” (the members of the group). Somehow, I can easily find the similar social and communal characteristics even in the class actions in the form they exist⁹⁶ in the eastern Nordic countries.

⁹² Koulu (2011), p. 5.

⁹³ Ervo and Sippel (2012c), pp. 352–353 and Viitanen (2001), pp. 245–247 and 252.

⁹⁴ Lindell (2003), pp. 82–101.

⁹⁵ Ervo (2013b).

⁹⁶ In Sweden, there has been a system of class actions in force since 2003. The possibility of class actions covers civil cases, which belong to the competence of general courts, as well as the cases concerning environmental damages in environmental courts. The possible class actions in Sweden can be individual group actions, governmental (public) class actions, as well as suits by organisations. The system is based on the opt-in-method. One individual who is a member in the group concerned can bring a suit against a defendant in the case of individual group action. Physical or legal persons can sue the individual group action. In suits by organisations, the plaintiff is a non-profit-making association by consumers or employees. In environmental cases, the non-profit associations can bring class actions if they work for the interests of nature or environmental conservation. Also, the associations for fishermen, farmers and reindeer management and forest societies can bring an organisational suit on environmental issues. A public class action is possible in cases where a suit has not been brought as an individual class action or by the organisations named above. Possible authorities that can bring a public suit are a consumer ombudsman and conservancy authorities in environmental cases. (See Lindblom (1996), pp. 15–21 and Swedish Class Action Act, Sections 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 14 as well as the Code of Environmental Matters, Chapter 32, Section 13 and Government bill 2001/02:107, p. 54.)

In Finland, class actions are possible in disputes between consumers and entrepreneurs. The Act on Class Actions came into force on 1st October, 2007. Even if the name of the act seems to cover class actions in general, class actions are possible only in consumer disputes. Participation in a class action requires registration as a member of the class. The system is therefore based on opt-in method. Only governmental (public) class action is possible and it is the Consumer Ombudsman

Summa summarum, conflict resolution seems to return to ancient venues in a way that means privatisation and widener party autonomy, as well as variety in conflict resolution models even in courts. In this development, the communication and interaction between decision-makers and parties have a significant importance. Therefore, conflict resolution, including traditional adjudication in courts, has become more communal.

The way of thinking of archaistic people was, namely, dependent on habit, orality and tradition. Therefore, even conflict resolution was based on oral discussions. This legal debate took place in the assize venues, and there the consensus that had been broken by the conflict was found again by a very concrete way, in other words, by talking. It is even alleged that outside this “court of communication” there existed no other binding legal order or positive law. The question was about opinions and arguments against other opinions and arguments. To be valid, the opinions and arguments had to pass the formal process, reach each other, and thereby reach a consensus. The consensus that had been found during the trial by party and family/neighbour discussions meant that before the nationwide state law existed, law and justice existed and were valid only when they were reached by the above-mentioned communal means, in other words, by mutual understanding. Law and justice were, therefore, one type of convinced justice whose validity was not based on authority but on consensus, which was found or renewed by adjudging. The precedents were not important, but the new justice was created by the same means whenever needed. However, the most important thing in the validity of law and justice was mutual understanding and therefore communal consensus. This consensus was reached by negotiations. The legal decision got its authority and validity therefore from the community, which practised adjudication by itself. In the current post-modern dispute resolution, we can find so many similar phenomena, and the values in the background of the civil litigation are surprisingly identical. Orality, immediacy, concentration, cooperation, communication, interaction and rapid resolution are appreciated. Civil litigation has been seen more as a conflict resolution than a juridical relief or a sanction mechanism. Access to justice and access to court are stressed by both the state and the individuals, and different types of solutions in this sense have been found to make the system more rapid and easier to use, as well as cheap enough to reach.

As a result, civil litigation as a whole, including even ADR, has become more communal and more or less returned in this way to ancient venues even if the reason today is different compared with the olden times. In our current situation, we have alternatives in the form of state courts and nationwide legislation. In the past, village and family-based conflict resolution was the only possibility, in addition to private revenge or that type of solutions. Therefore, the reasons behind this development are today different, and the choice seems to be voluntary and based on the will, on one hand, of the legislator and the state and, on the other hand, on the

who will bring the class action and act as the representative of the class, thereby ensuring that an action cannot be brought for malicious purposes. (Sections, 1, 2 and 4 of the Finnish Class Action Act. See also the [Government bill 154/2006](#), p. 20.)

will and wishes of individuals. In the other words, society seems to be ready or in the need for this kind of change, which leads back to more human and more communal dispute resolution in our modern world.

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Chapter 20

Conclusions on the Future of Civil Litigation in the Nordic Countries

Anna Nylund

20.1 Introduction

In this chapter, some conclusions are drawn from the research project on the future of civil litigation in the Nordic countries on which the contributions in this book are based. The articles in this book show that Nordic civil procedure is going through a period of change. On the surface level of law, changes are easy to spot as there have been recent major reforms of civil procedure legislation; among other things court-connected mediation and class or group actions have been added. On the deeper, principle-oriented and fundamental levels of law, there have been important changes as well.¹ There has been a change in civil procedure thinking and concepts used, and the role of the courts in society has altered slightly. Court culture, *i.e.* how the judges and attorneys perceive their role in the courtroom, how the patterns of interaction, communication and argumentation have changed and how the judges and attorneys have learned new strategies, has also been in a period of transformation.

This concluding chapter consists of three main parts. In the first part, the developments in civil procedure legislation, civil procedure legal thinking and court culture will be discussed. The part consists of a discussion on the recent reforms of civil procedure acts and any related laws, which is followed by a concluding analysis of the impact of Europeanization on Nordic civil procedure and ends with a discussion on the development of changes on a doctrinal and conceptual (or academic) level, as well as on the level of court culture (or a practical level). In the second part, court-connected mediation and class actions will be discussed as recent additions to increase access to justice and as tools to adapt

¹ The idea of surface level and a deep structure comes from Tuori (2002).

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civil litigation to a fragmented, polycentric, individualized legal system. In the third part, access to court and access to justice are discussed on a more general level. The current problems and possible solutions are analyzed and discussed.

20.2 Developments in Legislation, Legal Thinking and Court Culture

20.2.1 Reforms of Civil Procedure Acts

During the last 20 years, the Civil Procedure Acts of all five Nordic countries have faced major changes. First out was Finland in 1993, when the rules of civil procedure were completely modernized. Finland was lagging behind with an old, almost archaic civil procedure compared to the other Nordic countries. As the Finnish rules are of a newer date than their Nordic counterparts, there have not been major reforms after 1993. However, many rules have been changed or adjusted to better fit societal developments or to react to problems with the rules. Denmark and Norway, with civil procedure acts from the 1910s, and Sweden with an act from the 1940s, have made major reforms to their civil procedure legislation. Norway has chosen to enact a new law, the Dispute Act; Denmark has made an almost complete overhaul of its legislation but has chosen to do it in bits and pieces; and Sweden has made a comprehensive reform, but it has kept the old act and left some parts untouched. Although the five countries have chosen different methods of reforming their civil procedure systems, the five systems have been influenced, to a high degree, by the same ideas and goals.²

To begin with, the functions of civil procedure are considered to be the same in all Nordic countries. Civil procedure is needed to enforce laws, to give protection to legal rights of the citizens. Without enforcement, legal rights and legal rules are only illusory. Civil procedure is also used for dispute resolution, for solving the dispute between the parties in a case to restore peace in society and on an individual level. Additionally, civil procedure allows for a judge-made law, or at least necessary interpretation; weighing and balancing; and development of the way legal rules are understood and used. This is true, especially in the west Nordic countries where the legislator has a tradition to openly leave some questions (often of a more practical nature) for the courts to decide and also increasingly in the more legalistic eastern Nordic countries. Finally, as the western countries Denmark, Iceland and Norway lack administrative courts, judicial review is a more pronounced function of civil procedure. Judicial review is also more important in the west because advocates or attorneys have historically had a stronger position and there are clearly more advocates per 100,000 inhabitants than in the eastern part.³

² See Chap. 2.

³ See Chap. 4.

In recent years more emphasis has been put on the dispute resolution function in all five countries and less of the enforcement function. The systems are turning towards individualized, privatized and negotiated justice. This type of justice could be called more “precise” as it can be tailored to the needs, interests and preferences of the parties.⁴ Consequently, arbitration, mediation and settlement are preferred over judgments. This development can work against the other three functions as there will be less case law, less certainty and publicity on how laws should be interpreted. Competence of the judges might be lost if there are very few cases, especially few commercial cases. Also, individualized, more precise negotiated justice might work against itself, giving advantage to the stronger parties, who have more resources and experience during the negotiation phases.

In all five countries, the belief in the courts being able to provide the “correct solution” to a case is in a decline, further accentuating the idea of dispute resolution. The solution is often a result of weighing and balancing both national and international rules, of balancing principles expressed in open rules, and the outcome should be “good”, fitting to the particular context. Therefore, finding “the one”, correct and predictable solution is increasingly difficult and might be even impossible. The process should involve real party participation, or at least active participation of the lawyers. The legal process is also tailored to the case as the courts are increasingly considered a service function of society, and the process should be fitted to the case. The time for one-size-fits-all or *prêt-à-porter* justice and processes seems to be over.⁵ This idea is a consequence of both individualization and privatization of justice in society at large and of Europeanization of civil procedure.

Another important development is the increased emphasis on providing swift and cheap justice. The legislator is willing to go far to reduce costs and the duration of trials. Backlog of cases is not a widespread problem in the Nordic countries; it is usually limited to the district court and appellate court in the capital and one or two of the other big district courts. When compared to many other countries, the Nordic countries have swift court processes. However, especially the cost part of civil procedure seems to be almost insoluble. One answer to the problem has been to introduce class action to enable a citizen with small claims to join other citizens to summon the same defendant or to let an organization or a government agency act as a proxy for the citizens.

The Swedish government has tried to provide swifter and cheaper civil litigation by using modern technology. The Swedish Courts of Appeal are not supposed to hear the oral evidence but to watch audiovisual recordings of the process in the district courts. This is supposed to save time and money, but an important cornerstone of immediacy is lost. Additionally, the court is not able to ask questions and might therefore lose opportunities to get a clarification on an issue. It might also be a problem if only part of the case is disputed in the Court of Appeals, as it might be difficult to distinguish and find the relevant information. Watching recordings

⁴ See Chap. 19.

⁵ See Chap. 2 and Chap. 19.

might make the work of an appellate judge less interesting, making recruitment of excellent lawyers more difficult.⁶ It is symptomatic that this “innovation” has not been copied to the other Nordic countries, although all Nordic countries have increased the use of modern communication technology by allowing evidence by telephone and videolinks.

The perpetual enigma is to balance the cheap and swift process with “good” or “correct” results. Here, “correctness” is understood as finding out the real facts, discovering or uncovering the “truth” and applying the “right” legal provision. Additionally, public confidence and trust in the court system have been stressed. Citizens should trust the courts, and the court process should live up to the ideal of “justice must be seen to be done”. Therefore, civil procedure and actions of the judges should foster confidence in the functioning of the courts. If a proper balance between a swift and cheap, on one hand, and a “good”, on the other hand, process resulting in “correct” results is found, the courts will provide increased access to justice and serve citizens and society. However, if the balance tilts one way or the other, none of the goals might be achieved, resulting in less justice. The Finnish situation seems disheartening, where the civil procedure is (at least) perceived expensive and at least in commercial cases there is a doubt on the courts being able to find a “correct” or “good” solution. Iceland is facing cutbacks in court services and increasing costs after the economic meltdown in 2008. The respective developments are discussed in detail below (11).

Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) in general, and court-connected mediation in particular, is offered as a solution to access to justice. Court-connected mediation can offer relatively cheap, swift and precise justice, but it can also result in a more expensive and longer process if mediation fails. This is especially a problem if the parties feel they have been pressed into mediation. Court-connected mediation is generally not public and can therefore reduce public confidence in courts. This might be especially true if the mediation process is conducted in a way very similar to litigation or arbitration. Mediation is a black box, leaving the parties with few possibilities to escape pressure from the mediator and a highly evaluative and law-oriented approach from the mediator.⁷

Another trait common to the Nordic reforms of civil procedure is the emphasis on central principles stressing the importance of an adversarial, oral, public and fair trial. The participatory rights of the parties have been stressed, and the parties have been given more opportunities to shape the process. The idea of active case management has been transplanted from the English civil procedure. There also seems to be a trend towards a written summary at the end of the preparatory stage of the process. The written summary is either provided by the parties or the judge preparing the case depending on the country; the idea is the same: to clearly state what the parties agree and disagree on, what the main legal points are and what

⁶ See Chap. 13.

⁷ See Chaps. 6–10 and 16.

evidence the parties will exhibit at the trial. The summary gives the parties an incitement to settle the case and to be well prepared for the trial. The aim is also to provide for a more structured and to-the-point trial.⁸

Finally, the reforms of civil procedure in the Nordic countries can be summarized with some keywords: modernization, increased flexibility, use of information technology, cost saving, achieving of a swift process, streamlining of the court system (almost all cases starting with district courts), fewer district courts, introduction of court-connected mediation, introduction of class or group actions, increased access to justice, stressing of the participatory rights of the parties and more individualized justice. There has also been a tendency to decrease access to the appellate courts. The changes can be summarized as a turn away from the classical ideas of the liberal civil process and the ideas of enlightenment: the passive judge and law as a perfect, predictable system in favor of introducing an active judge managing a tailor-made, discussion-based and negotiation-based process of weighing and balancing rules and principles.⁹

One can of course ask to what extent these tendencies in the development of civil litigation are uniquely Nordic. One conclusion is to say that they are not unique at all, as they are seemingly ubiquitous in all western legal systems. However, what makes the changes uniquely Nordic is which ideas are introduced, how different ideas are weighted, the result of introducing new ideas and the methods for introducing them. Court-connected mediation is a good example where there is a Nordic model and concept clearly different from the Austrian and German models.

20.2.2 Changes Resulting from Europeanization

European integration has so far had little impact on the legislation on civil procedure in the Nordic countries. The main influence has so far come from the case law of European Court on Human Rights (ECtHR), but the influence has mostly been on small details in the laws. New legislation from the European Union (EU) and case law from the European Court of Justice (ECJ) have had almost no impact on the core of civil procedure: they have almost exclusively had an effect on issues that can be characterized as “traditional” judicial cooperation.

However, Europeanization has had a clear impact on legal thinking, the legal methods, and the concepts and argumentation of civil procedure. An increasingly polycentric legal system gives the courts more power to shape the law, as the need for weighing and balancing different legal systems grows. The fragmentation of legal rules and increased use of principles rather than strict rules have given courts new roles and a need for finding new ways to work. Together with the development of privatization of law and preference for negotiated justice, the role of courts has

⁸ See Chap. 2.

⁹ See Chap. 2 and Chap. 19.

changed. Civil procedure is no longer purely a system to make the courts the mouth that pronounces the word of the law in the sense of Montesquieu; the judge has become an active manager of the case and orchestrator of dispute resolution. In civil procedure scholarship and practice, the idea of a fair trial has been strengthened and the trial is analyzed as an entity, including the consequences of it. The principles of civil procedure have gained weight relative to specific written rules or court practice or court culture.¹⁰

When using a traditional narrow comparative approach, Europeanization has had limited impact on Nordic civil procedure notwithstanding case law from the ECtHR. Most of the impact has been bottom-up influencing civil procedure thinking rather than legislation. Yet the changes in legal thinking and argumentation are important. The courts have gained more power and importance in society, as their task is to weigh and balance different norms in a polycentric system, and ultimately an obligation to set aside national norms when necessary. In the future, there will probably be more legislation from the EU on civil procedure, even more comprehensive legislation; the situation might change radically. Vigilant academics and practitioners are needed to keep track with the future changes and to actively shape the process of Europeanization of Nordic civil procedure.

Concurrently with increasing Europeanization, there has also been a slight “Americanization” of Nordic, and indeed much of European, civil procedure. Court-connected mediation and class actions are transplants from the American system. Iceland seems to be the Nordic country with most influence from the US. This is not surprising, considering the relative geographic proximity. However, the Americanization of the Nordic systems should not be overemphasized, as it is still very limited and restricted mostly to certain transplants.¹¹

20.2.3 Court Culture and Civil Procedure Thinking

There are some important changes in the court culture and civil procedure thinking in the Nordic countries.

As mentioned earlier, justice has become increasingly individualized, privatized, contextual and negotiated. The role of civil procedure is no longer purely to help the courts find a correct solution to the legal problem at hand but also to provide an arena for the parties for discussion and participation in dispute resolution process, where the solution is drawn from weighing and balancing principles and increasingly open rules. In some cases, there is of course still a clear answer, but as legislation has become more fragmentary and polycentric and the call for good, pragmatic solutions has increased, so has the court culture increased.

¹⁰ See Chap. 3.

¹¹ See Chap. 4.

On the other hand, there has been a juridification of society, where the lifeworld, or “*Lebenswelt*” in the Habermasian¹² sense, is diminishing and the legally regulated public sphere is taking over. Therefore, there is increasingly detailed regulation, which is sometimes contradictory and needs clarification in the courts. In terms of juridification, the amount of civil litigation cases and the number of advocates, there is a difference between the western countries of Denmark, Iceland and Norway, on the one hand, and the eastern countries of Finland and Sweden, on the other. Denmark, Iceland and Norway are much more juridified than their eastern counterparts. The future impact of this type of juridification is difficult to estimate.¹³ On the other hand, one could imagine more detailed regulation in Finland and Sweden as they are full members of all aspects of the regulation stemming from the EU.

The discussion in the courtroom and the participatory rights of the parties with a focus on procedural justice have changed the way judges work and the ideals of civil procedure. Although the judge is the master of the process, the judge is expected to actively manage the case and consult the parties when doing so. The judge guides the parties through the process by offering them guidance (*die formelle Prozessleitung* in German) in a proactive way. In the name of access to justice, the judge also has partly a duty to balance imbalances between the parties. In order to balance the need for a swift and cheap process with legally correct (or sound) results, the judges are, to some extent, given a role to uncover important aspects affecting the results (*materielle Prozessleitung* in German).¹⁴

The privatized, negotiated idea of justice and the need for swift and cheap dispute resolution have opened for more settlements, both through judicial involvement and without it. Arbitration is becoming increasingly common, and court-connected mediation programs have been set up. However, the latter have only been a partial success and have faced clear resistance. The fear is that these services will be marginalized when the initial curiosity and novelty have faded. Despite the partial disappointments with court-connected mediation, finding pragmatic solutions through settlements is still stressed.¹⁵

Courts are increasingly considered a service institution comparable to other societal services in a welfare state. Therefore, they should give the citizens the best service available and give weight to customer satisfaction. However, the courts are also considered a last resort for dispute resolution. The parties should try other alternatives before suing, for instance, negotiation or ADR. The Norwegian example shows, however, that many of the different forms of civil mediation offered are little known to the general public.¹⁶ The same is true of the Finnish court-connected mediation program where the parties can file a petition for mediation without summoning.¹⁷

¹² See Habermas (1995).

¹³ See Chap. 4.

¹⁴ See Chap. 19.

¹⁵ See Chaps. 7 and 9.

¹⁶ See Chap. 6.

¹⁷ See Chap. 7.

Overall, the courts have gained in importance during the last few decades, and their functions have been diversified with increased focus on settlements and development of the law.

20.3 Court-Connected Mediation and Class Actions as Tools

Court-connected mediation and class actions or group actions have been introduced in a number of jurisdictions, including the Nordic, to provide better access to justice for the citizens. These innovations have been heavily influenced by American law rather than European systems, although class actions originate from the English law.

20.3.1 *Court-Connected Mediation in the Nordic Countries*

Mediation exists in many ways and many senses in the Nordic legal systems. The articles on Finnish law¹⁸ and Danish law¹⁹ show the multitude of different mediation services, although most of them are not civil mediation, with a connection to the court system, but rather community or commercial mediation programs. Norway seems to be the only country offering a set of different ways of civil, nonfamily mediation.

Traditionally, the Nordic judges have had a right to promote settlement and the promotion of settlement has been seen as one of the goals of civil procedure. This tradition continues today, and the recent legal reforms have given judges increased or at least more visible opportunities to promote settlement, sometimes even a duty to do so.

In addition to the traditional activities, court-connected mediation has been introduced in most of the Nordic countries. Sweden is the only exception, where a fully fledged court-connected mediation scheme has not been enacted. In Sweden, a judge can refer a pending case to “special mediation”, which is outside the court, but the change has not been received with any enthusiasm by the legislator, judges or lawyers. The main reason for the change is probably the EU mediation directive, stating that EU member states must offer mediation in cross-border disputes. There is no obvious explanation for this; usually the Swedish government, the lawyers and legal academics are or want to be in the forefront of change and are curious about innovations.²⁰ One explanation might be the individual lawyers and government officials preparing legislation: as pointed out in Chap. 3, Europeanization and

¹⁸ Chapter 7.

¹⁹ Chapters 9 and 14.

²⁰ See Chap. 8.

internationalization are often dependent on a single person or a couple of persons bringing in new ideas and advocating them. In Sweden, no prominent person has advocated court-connected mediation; on the contrary, some prominent academics have been sceptical. In Denmark and Norway, groups of lawyers—advocates, judges and academics—have actively advocated introducing court-connected mediation. In Finland, a few judges and government officials became interested in the experiments with court-connected mediation and endorsed it.

In court-connected mediation, the case is sent to mediation during the preparatory phases of the court process. A judge, either the one presiding the case or another judge, or an advocate, or other professional depending on the system and the case, can act as a mediator. If a judge mediates the case, he or she cannot as a rule judge the case later. The mediator does not have the role of a judge, although some mediators actually conduct court-connected mediation sessions as abbreviated trials.

Although court-connected mediation was supposed to bring new ways to reach better outcomes in civil dispute, mediation is often conducted in a way where legal rights dominate and the outcome mirrors the outcome in a trial, with relatively few cases having a creative solution outside the original claims of the parties. Research shows that the interest of the parties is seldom discussed in-depth and mostly limited to aspects directly related with the legal issues in the case. The mediation is conducted “in the shadow of the court case” in a juridified way. Therefore, the alternative, different aspects originally offered by mediation are partly or fully lost. Depending on the mediator, the parties might have more voice and choice in mediation, or they might be just as marginalized as in general civil litigation. Additionally, as court-connected mediation might be conducted in so many and very different ways, it is difficult for the parties to know what kind of process they are entering. Creative outcomes exist in many cases as the agreements contain more than what is asked for. It is unclear how much of the creative potential is used, probably far from full potential. Mediation gives a chance to obtain different results.²¹

Court-connected mediation and other forms of civil mediation can be introduced to promote new paths to justice. This has been done in Finland and Norway. In Finland, the parties may send a petition for court-connected mediation without summoning, that is, without the case being pending in court.²² In Norway, courts offer out-of-court mediation and the National mediation services offer mediation especially for small claims.²³ However, in both countries, the opportunities for civil mediation outside the traditional civil litigation are little known and little used, despite the clear benefits of the systems. The parties face a loss of opportunities to find better ways to solve disputes and to utilize different, less contentious proceedings.

²¹ See Chaps. 6, 7 and 9.

²² See Chap. 7.

²³ See Chap. 6.

It is interesting to note that Austria has chosen a quite different approach to mediation. Austria is an interesting example as its population size is comparable to the Nordic countries. In Austria, mediation is considered a profession, not something any lawyer or judge can do as a “side business” to traditional lawyering. As mediation is a profession, there are strict requirements for training and professional liability. The mediation market has become clearly distinct from the traditional judging and lawyering services.²⁴ In Germany, there seems to be quite a lot of ambivalence on how mediation can be promoted and if and how judges can mediate.²⁵ The discussions are foreign for the Nordic lawyers, although especially the Norwegian system with its many ways of mediation could benefit from a discussion on organizing, streamlining and structuring civil mediation.

Mediation is seen as the future of civil litigation, supplementing it, not replacing it. Yet after initial enthusiasm for court-connected mediation, interest now seems to be declining and the mediation movement has lost momentum.²⁶ Court-connected mediation has not reached the popular awareness, nor have lawyers and judges been fully convinced of the benefits of mediation. So far, we can only speculate for the reasons for and the future consequences of this development. One reason might be that mediation requires different skills and knowledge than litigation from the mediator, judges and lawyers involved. When mediation training is limited both in terms of length of the training itself and the number of persons trained, it is not realistic to expect that lawyers and judges alike will embrace mediation and be able to practice it according to the original ideas. Another reason might be that mediation is not a quick fix, neither for courts nor for the parties. As the legislators (and some mediation proponents) have announced it as the miracle solution, many lawyers and judges have been disappointed. Successful introduction of court-connected mediation requires a change of culture, and such a change takes a long time. Changing the civil procedure system to include different dispute resolution mechanisms to offer more holistic services might be more difficult than expected. Therefore, a certain amount of ambivalence and resistance to mediation is natural. The question remains how the systems will develop and if more of the potential of mediation can be unleashed.

20.3.2 Class Actions as a Tool to Increase Access to Court

Class actions and group actions have been introduced to many civil law systems and Nordic systems during the last decade. Their primary purpose is to provide increased access to court in cases with fragmented interests, where each individual

²⁴ See Chap. 10.

²⁵ See Chap. 5.

²⁶ See especially Chaps. 7 and 9.

claimant has usually only a small interest, but where the diffuse interest is significant. In the Nordic countries, regulation on class action comes as an addition to existing systems of joinder of claims.

In a European context, class action could be a powerful tool to give primarily consumers better access to court in cross-border disputes. A single market, where goods and services move irrespective of national borders, requires that the consumers buying goods and services can access their rights across borders. For fragmented rights distributed on hundreds, thousands or even hundreds of thousands of consumers, collective claims might be a good tool to provide real rights to consumers. National rules are often not sufficient to guarantee consumers their rights. Regulation of cross-border class actions is a natural step. In this field, Europeanization and introduction of the rules on a national level happen at least partly simultaneously, as many countries, including the Nordic, have only recently introduced class actions to their systems.²⁷

Introducing a new legal institution by transplantation from a foreign legal system usually gives rise to a number of problems. To start with, it is difficult to know exactly how to regulate a new field and to understand how different questions should optimally be regulated. Problems the legislator did not think of arise, yet in other areas the regulation might be too detailed or things work differently than thought. There is usually a need for changing and developing regulation after an initial period of trial and error, as the Polish example shows.²⁸

Good regulation is not the only requirement for effective use of class actions or any other kind of new development in the legal system. As with court-connected mediation, introducing class actions requires that advocates and judges learn how and when to use the new system. The legal profession has to embrace the idea and find ways to integrate it to their standard repertoire of choices to deal with legal disputes. Class actions require partly new skills from the judges deciding them. For instance, case management is different in class actions than in regular cases, and judges will need skills in structuring complex litigation. Eventually, for class actions to become widely used, court culture might need to change.²⁹

There is often initial resistance to using the new system, and usually a few “pilot” cases are needed for lawyers, judges and parties to start to use the system. However, in many countries, there is limited use of class actions so far. It is difficult to know if the reason is limited need for class actions or if limited knowledge and experience of class actions make the system seem risky. Limited knowledge and experience are possible to overcome over time. Limited need is more difficult to overcome, although limited need does not mean that the system is unnecessary. A further explanation for limited use might be that existing systems function properly and are therefore more attractive than a new, relatively unknown system that most lawyers have very little or practically no experience with. In the Nordic countries,

²⁷ See Chap. 17.

²⁸ Chapter 18.

²⁹ See Chaps. 14 and 18.

having many small district courts might be a problem, as many courts and judges will lack experience of class actions in many years, probably even a few decades. Therefore, class actions will probably be concentrated to a few of the largest courts and to a few specialized lawyers. Therefore, class actions might result in changes in the over-all court structure and discussion on the need for specialization of judges in the Nordic countries.

Class actions might be a solution to increased access to court, especially for consumers and small businesses, but it might not be the perfect solution for all cases. It might be difficult to gain information on how to start and join class actions, particularly in cross-border cases. Financing a class action is not easy and might require some kind of contingency fees. Contingency fees will not work in all cases. Getting the regulation right for the wide spectrum of different fragmented, collective claims is not an easy task. Therefore, getting precise legislation from the EU on cross-border class actions might take time and making it a tool in European lawyers' repertoire even longer.

20.3.3 Mediation, Class Actions and Access to Justice

Both court-connected mediation and class actions were introduced to increase access to justice. Both institutions were initially applauded by the legal community at large, although some critical views were also expressed before they were enacted. However, a successful introduction of court-connected mediation and class actions requires raising the awareness in the general population: class action and mediation should be perceived as adequate possibilities to reach access to justice. They also require that advocates and judges acquire new knowledge and skills to efficiently handle the new tools and to feel comfortable using them. In addition to skills and knowledge, mediation and class actions require changes in the practices in preparing for trial and in the courtroom during the preparatory stages and the main hearing. In other words, a shift in the court culture is the consequence of the legal community embracing mediation and class actions. Cultural change takes time; therefore, it will take some time before court-connected mediation and class actions will have established positions in the Nordic legal systems.

Achieving a visible position in the litigation system is not a guarantee: the newly introduced institutions might remain on the side line and be little used. Therefore, both court-connected mediation and class actions run the risk of withering away in the long run. In such a scenario, they will not fulfill their initial task of providing increased access to justice. However, achieving a strong position is not a guarantee for increased access to justice either. Court-connected mediation is sometimes practiced in a way that is almost identical to a trial or an arbitration, giving citizens mostly a way to have an abbreviated trial or arbitration, not extending dispute resolution to new kinds of disputes, to new dispute resolutions processes or to new outcomes. Class actions might replace existing ways of solving multiparty,

fragmented, collective claims rather than providing an additional, more appropriate way to solving those claims.

20.4 Access to Court and Access to Justice in the Nordic Countries

20.4.1 Costs, Time, Publicity and Expertise Hindering Access to Court

Access to court and access to justice are important elements in a democratic society based on the rule of law. Access to court refers to the barrier going to court, usually costs and delay associated with civil litigation, whereas access to justice takes a broader approach, including other barriers such as lack of information. The goal of access to justice is wider: the question is whether one can successfully pursue one's legal rights or find another balanced, practical and just solution to one's (legal) problems. Access to justice therefore can be reached by many different means, among others, litigation, arbitration, mediation, dispute boards and ombudsmen. Although both access to court and access to justice have been a focus in the Nordic countries for decades, there are still many barriers on the citizen's way to court and real rights.

Foremost, cost and fees are cited as a major problem. Data from Finland show that litigation costs, especially the fees for advocates, are an important barrier for citizens and small and medium businesses. The problem is threefold. First, the fees for advocates have increased in the past years as a consequence of many factors, including the general increase in prices especially for hiring highly qualified experts, changes in the civil litigation system making litigation more time consuming and a decision to abolish recommended prices for legal services. Second, the terms for legal insurance have been weakened for consumers lowering the limit for maximum payment and excluding the fees for the opposing party from coverage. Third, the rules for distributing the costs on the parties may not properly reflect the need of contemporary society. While the functioning of the civil procedure and the rules on cost distribution could be solved by changing the law, other developments are more difficult to manage. The new rules on cost distribution making more exceptions from the English rule, the loser pays it all, might work against itself. More exceptions mean more uncertainty about how much litigation will cost.³⁰

The development in Denmark seems to be similar, as the losing party is only obliged to pay the reasonable fees of the winning party. Because there is no good way to predict what amount will be considered reasonable, the winning party risks

³⁰ See Chap. 12.

paying some of his or her own expenses for litigation. The cost of litigation is therefore unpredictable for the parties.³¹

Due to an exceptional economic downturn in 2008, Iceland seems to go the opposite way of Finland. In Iceland, court fees have been drastically increased to increase state income and to direct the resources of the courts to handle the cases in the aftermath of the economic meltdown. For citizens and small and medium-sized businesses, the increased court fees have resulted in less access to justice. For low- and mid-income families, the reduction of legal aid has become a problem. At the same time, the fees for advocates have decreased. These fees are generally considered the biggest problem of the cost of litigation. However, when general income across the line has decreased, decreased fees for advocates are not enough to compensate for increased court fees and decreased legal aid.³²

Although legal aid is available in the Nordic countries, services have been weakened in the last few years. The maximum amount paid per hour to the lawyers participating in the scheme has been kept at level or even reduced, as the Danish and Iceland contributions show.³³ Participating in the legal aid scheme is therefore unattractive to lawyers, and many talented lawyers choose to work with fields of law where legal aid cases are seldom or do not exist at all, as these fields of law generate more income. In Denmark, the scheme seems not only to be economically disadvantageous for lawyers but also to be considered bureaucratic and thus quite unattractive. The new Danish structure for legal aid might reduce the accessibility of legal aid and direct the parties to specialized agencies. For many mid-income families and for small businesses, legal aid is not available, and therefore these groups might paradoxically have less access to court than low-income families. Mid-income families are often dependent on having enough bargaining power, good insurances and *pro bono* services offered by volunteer lawyers.³⁴ The Nordic welfare state, which is known for offering universal services for free or at an affordable price, seems to fail at least partially in providing access to court. In addition, legal aid is mostly offered in conjunction with civil litigation, but not before preparing the summons to receive general advice on different ways to solve the dispute, including help to negotiate a solution or help to use any of the alternative ways of dispute resolution, including many boards for solving special kinds of disputes or complaint mechanisms. Therefore, access to justice is reduced.³⁵

In both Finland and Iceland, the citizens face decreased access to court due to increasing costs for litigation. The question is how citizens and small and medium-sized businesses solve their disputes when litigation is not an option. In many cases, the parties can negotiate a solution or turn to alternative dispute resolution outside the court system, to use the readily available system of dispute resolution boards or

³¹ See Chap. 14.

³² See Chap. 15.

³³ See Chaps. 14 and 15.

³⁴ Chapter 14.

³⁵ See Chaps. 12, 14 and 15.

mediation services outside the court system. Although the decisions or other outcomes from these systems are not directly enforceable, the parties usually comply with them reducing the need for courts. Thus, in many cases, the parties will find an appropriate, cheap and swift way of solving the dispute. However, in other cases, the weaker party has to yield for the more powerful party and walk away from his or her rights. In other cases, parties might use their power in other ways, by demonstrating power, in some extreme cases, with the use of threats or physical power. Therefore, rights might become illusory, as the stronger party can force his or her will on the weaker party.³⁶

On a societal scale, the long-term effect might be less trust in the court system and civil litigation. The courtroom becomes an exception for many types of cases. It will no longer be a main avenue to access to justice but a small path reserved for a minority of cases, mostly employment, insolvency and family law cases. The function of civil litigation of enforcing rules and clarifying, even developing, the law will wither away as there are so few cases. Case law becomes special knowledge for the few specialist lawyers as readily available, publicly announced case law from courts becomes rare in most fields of law.

In Iceland, the average duration of civil litigation has increased, whereas it has mostly decreased in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, at least in the district courts. The Icelandic exception can be explained by the exceptional economic situation in the aftermath of the economic meltdown. Notwithstanding Iceland, Finland seems to be the true exception in a Nordic context, as it is the only country that has repeatedly been convicted by the ECtHR for not satisfying the requirement of a trial within a reasonable time. The Finnish legislator has taken measures, but some of them are not to provide shorter trials but to offer a monetary compensation to the parties. Compared to Sweden, Finland uses clearly less money on courts, and as the courts also have the task to provide a way to enforce uncontested pecuniary claims, the Finnish courts must provide more services for less money.³⁷

It is interesting to compare Finland and Iceland since both have serious issues with court costs, and yet they are very different. Iceland has far more cases going to court each year per 100,000 inhabitants than Finland. There are also far more lawyers, especially lawyers working as advocates in Iceland. Iceland is the most “Americanized” of the Nordic civil procedure systems, whereas modern oral trials were only introduced in 1993 in Finland.

Finland is interesting also because it lacks a small claim procedure, which is in place in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Experiences from the other three countries show that small claim procedure can be an avenue to access to justice in small cases, as the process is cheaper and swifter than in regular cases. The process is more flexible, and the judge can give information, although not advice, to self-represented parties. However, small claim procedures can also result in *reduced* access to justice if the cheap and swift procedure is not able to produce good and

³⁶ For examples of dispute resolution board, ombudsmen, etc, see Chaps. 7 and 14.

³⁷ See Chap. 13.

correct results. If the parties are, for instance, excluded from having oral evidence or oral hearings are generally not conducted, the process might result in poor justice for the poor. The Danish, Norwegian and Swedish legislators and courts seem to have found a way to strike a balance between reducing the time and resources used in the process and using enough resources to provide efficient, real access to justice.

Although most focus has been on the problems of access to court for citizens and small businesses, large companies can also feel their access to court is limited. In Finland, there are a few cases involving large companies because there is a widespread belief that the courts cannot handle large commercial cases. The belief becomes self-perpetuating and finally true, as companies prefer alternative dispute resolution, primarily arbitration, to solve their disputes. The courts get few commercial cases; therefore, the judges do not get the expertise to manage and decide these cases.³⁸

For large companies, the additional costs incurring from arbitration clauses are outweighed by shorter duration of the process, a more flexible process and the presence of experts in the field to decide the case. The arbitrators are experts in their field of law and gain expertise in managing large disputes. In addition, arbitration, and alternative dispute resolution in general, is confidential, which is important for the companies involved.³⁹ Sweden might shortly go down the same road, as it seems difficult to recruit judges.⁴⁰ This is contrary to almost every other country in the world, as these positions are considered very attractive and have a high social status.

Finland seems to be exceptional in the sense that the number of cases going to civil litigation is very low. Many areas of law are almost nonexistent in the courts. Almost no commercial cases are decided by courts. Consequently, the Finnish courts seem to become increasingly marginalized and are therefore not able to fulfil their functions of giving “flesh on the bones” of legal rules by giving examples, interpreting and applying rules in real cases. Much of the knowledge of working of private law and commercial law, in particular, becomes privatized, as there are no public judgments publicly stating what the law is. Courts lose competence in some areas of law and lose some of their function and role in society.⁴¹

While some countries try to restrict the number of cases filed in civil courts, the Finnish government should ask how to increase the number of cases and how to diversify the court dockets. How can Finnish courts become more attractive to small and large businesses alike, and to private parties? One answer might be increased specialization of judges, although that goes against the Nordic goal of judges as general practitioners within the field of law. Another solution might be a

³⁸ See Chap. 11.

³⁹ See Chap. 11.

⁴⁰ See Chap. 13.

⁴¹ See Chaps. 11 and 12.

system where the court can appoint specialist judges for certain cases. Reducing the publicity of civil litigation is not advisable or possible without hurting the very core of the system.

One important conclusion in this project is that comparing the Nordic countries is sometimes very difficult. For instance, the number of cases and the duration of trials are difficult to compare as the numbers are based on very different methods of calculating, and small differences in the systems can result in a major impact. For instance, as the Finnish numbers often include uncontested claims, whereas the Swedish numbers do not, the Finnish system seems far more efficient. However, when the uncontested claims are removed, the picture changes dramatically. More research is needed to make the numbers comparable and to understand the differences between the Nordic systems.

20.4.2 Alternative Dispute Resolution as a Partial Solution

Alternative dispute resolution has often been presented as a solution for increasing access to court and access to justice. In terms of providing better access to justice, the conclusion has been that facilitative interest-based mediation can provide superior solutions by offering more precise justice. ADR offers not just reparative or distributive justice of the legal system, which offers almost exclusively monetary compensation to a narrow set of claims. ADR systems generally function efficiently and give the parties a possibility to participate in dispute resolution, to form the process and the outcomes according to their wishes and needs. Hence, the parties can have more predictable and, from their own point of view, more “correct” solutions.

However, ADR can also be used to restrict access to justice by restricting access to court. When the parties are “forced”, pressured or persuaded into using ADR, they might face a hurdle on the way to court. Passing the hurdle requires time and money, and in the process many parties yield to the pressure of settling the case. Settlement is chosen not because it offers a superior solution or because it offers a “sound” solution but because it drains the parties of resources and the parties feel threatened to accept an inferior solution in the face of fear of losing more money, time, and business opportunities or because going on with the dispute process requires too much psychologically. The pressure to settle might actually be used by intention by the legislator, but the intention is veiled as an opportunity for early settlement. So far, there is no research showing court-connected ADR actually decreasing the cost of parties or the courts.

Another reason for ADR failing to provide better access to justice is that ADR requires much from the system. It requires that lawyers and judges alike gain new knowledge, skills and attitudes, that the disputing culture and the court culture changes. It also requires that a range of ADR mechanisms are offered to cater better for new types of cases and that the ADR mechanisms are offered in a logical

system. Creating a good ADR system requires dispute resolution system design and in-depth understanding of ADR.⁴²

The Nordic countries already have ADR in place in many fields by offering specialized boards for, among other things, consumer cases, certain types of employment cases, attorney fees, banking issues, etc. Some government agencies provide dispute resolution services through mechanisms providing for “appeal” or mediation services, although they are not formal courts, or by means of the ombudsmen. There are also a number of (public or publicly funded) offices providing information and guidance, thus reducing the need for third party dispute resolution processes. The services offered by boards, ombudsmen and other agencies provide a wide range of dispute resolution services easily available to citizens, reducing the need for civil litigation. The public awareness of these services is perhaps not as good as it should be, nor is there a system for giving a comprehensive picture of all dispute resolution services available. Efficiency and better access to justice could be provided by a comprehensive analysis of the system and by improving the interaction and cworking of the different dispute resolution mechanisms and services provided.

So far, the Nordic countries lack knowledge of ADR mechanisms and dispute resolution system design in general. Court-connected mediation is still quite marginal and sometimes practiced like mini-arbitration or mini-trials or like traditional settlement activities of judges. The potential of ADR as a tool for increased access to justice has therefore not been unleashed.

20.5 Concluding Remarks on the Future of Nordic Civil Litigation

Nordic civil litigation is in a period of change in terms of legislation, legal thinking and court culture. Many of the changes are a direct consequence of societal changes, as a reaction to an increasingly complex society where individualism is an important value but interest is often collective, fragmented and diffuse. Through Europeanization and judification of society, the legal system has become increasingly polycentric, opaque and complex. The courts are perceived gradually more as a public service offering dispute resolution. Simultaneously, they have become a battle place for interpreting new legislation penetrating every corner of society. At the same time, the state needs to cut its expenditures on the adjudicative functions, making a need to streamline civil litigation to save time and money. All these changes have led to reforms in the Nordic civil procedure systems and to court culture.

Europeanization has had less direct top-down impact so far than thought. Most impact has been through the case law from the ECtHR. Case law from the ECJ and

⁴² See Chap. 16.

regulation from the EU have so far received little attention. The impact on a deeper cultural level and through bottom-up mechanisms has been much larger. Together with the societal changes, the impact from Europeanization has great potential to fundamentally change Nordic civil litigation. The changes might turn out to be so massive, that we are in fact watching the dawn of a new era in Nordic civil procedure culture and legal thinking.

Access to justice seems still a partial problem in the Nordic countries. Despite legal aid and efforts to reduce costs of litigation, for many groups, especially weaker groups in society, cannot afford a lawyer before litigation and during ADR processes. The distribution of costs and low insurance coverage are a problem for many mid-income families. Although Nordic courts do not have excessive problems with a backlog of cases and court congestion, the average duration of the civil process from filing to decision is almost a year in most places. For businesses, the lack of expertise in commercial law in the Finnish courts seems to be a problem. There is no comparable study from the other Nordic countries, but the same phenomenon can be expected to exist in them as well, albeit to a lesser extent. Public proceedings are a problem for some businesses, but as publicity is a cornerstone of any civil litigation system, the problem is not easily solved.

Court-connected mediation and class or group actions have been introduced as a way to provide better access to justice. Experience from the Nordic countries show that these institutions have not been an unequivocal success. After initial enthusiasm, the use of neither court-connected mediation nor class actions has increased significantly. On the contrary, there seems to be increased scepticism especially towards court-connected mediation. They require new knowledge, skills and mindset from both judges and lawyers. Acquiring those takes a long time. As legal transplants, the rooting of these institutions will probably take time and they might go through a metamorphosis during the rooting process. The rooting process of a transplant might result in changes of the system it is transplanted into. Finally, acquiring the knowledge and skills needed might change court culture and civil procedure thinking fundamentally. The question remains if court-connected mediation and class actions can provide increased access to justice or if they will be marginalized.

Nordic civil litigation is without doubt in a period of transformation. One can even argue that it is entering a new era, including new hierarchies, new roles of civil courts in society, new concepts and structures, new methods and new ideas of justice. At this point of rapid change, it is however difficult to predict what the outcome might be. Despite some differences between the East Nordic countries Finland and Sweden and the West Nordic countries Denmark, Iceland and Norway, the changes seem to go predominantly in the same direction. Therefore, regardless of the differences, one can still conclude that there is a distinctly Nordic culture of civil litigation.

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Index

A

Access to court(s), 5, 216, 226, 243–245, 421
Access to justice, 133, 150, 216, 326, 334, 342, 421, 427
 as rare commodity, 87
Action, 166–173, 183, 376, 378, 404–405
Adjudication, 384
Alternative dispute resolution (ADR), 37, 38, 99, 103, 117, 122, 133, 140, 149, 328, 333, 334, 425
 dispute resolution system design, 329, 335, 337, 341
 informal processes, 330, 339
 multiparty processes, 332, 335, 340
Appeal, 26, 104, 124, 208, 213, 294, 313, 369, 411
Arbitration, 19, 34, 140, 214, 217, 225, 227, 252, 348, 364, 406, 415
Article 92 *Grundgesetz*, 90
Auxiliary mediator, 127

B

Bargaining in the shadow of law, 133
Business dispute, 215

C

Certification of settlement, 128
Child custody, 123, 127
Class action, 3, 418–420
Collaborative law, 329, 340
Collective action, 378
Communication, 347, 361, 363, 378, 392

Compensation, 275, 276
Complaints boards and tribunals, 292–294
Compulsory legal representation, 370
Conciliation boards, 105, 109, 110, 113–117
Confidentiality, 107, 127, 128, 146, 154
Conflict resolution, 151, 328, 341
Consumer, 19, 122, 140, 242, 290, 293, 345, 347, 348, 360, 370, 377, 404
Consumer Disputes Board, 122
Corporate dispute resolution, 216, 226
Cost(s), 2, 80, 148–149, 231–246, 248, 285–287, 312, 372–373, 421–425
Court(s), 11–13, 20, 25–27, 39, 93, 104, 109, 111–113, 125, 137–154, 175, 180, 188, 213, 226, 252, 259–265, 287, 289, 297, 310–311, 315, 317, 320–322, 367, 411, 415, 424
 culture, 131–134, 359, 409
 fees, 234, 285
 as “mediation-free”-zones, 89
 not meeting expectations, 84
 system, 81, 307
Court-connected mediation, 106, 107, 111, 113, 116, 121–134, 139, 141, 157–183, 187, 199, 330, 412–414, 416–421, 426, 427
Crowded court dockets, 86
Culture, 41–48, 118, 357–379

D

Definition, 98–99, 162–163
 court/connected mediation, 128
Delays, 2, 249–279

Design of state functions, 91
 Dispute resolution, 122–124
 District courts, 371, 411, 423

E

Efficiency, 79, 161, 261, 308, 426
 Environmental mediation, 124
 Equality of arms, 24
 EU Directive on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters, 125
 EU directive on mediation, 143
 Europeanization, 31–33, 35–42, 45–47, 49, 50, 409, 411, 413–414, 419, 426
 bottom-up, 32, 40, 49
 top-down, 32, 35, 36, 39
 European payment order, 36
 Evaluation, 101, 107, 114, 192, 329, 331, 339
 Evaluative mediation, 127
 Expertise, 421–425

F

Facilitative mediation, 127
 Family mediation, 123
 Fee, 248
 Finland, v, 1–4, 6, 9, 25, 34, 35, 37, 39, 47, 48, 62, 64, 66–68, 70, 80, 81, 86, 102, 121–134, 185, 186, 188, 189, 193, 195, 197, 199, 206–208, 213–218, 225, 227, 231–237, 239–246, 249–279, 383, 386, 389, 390, 399, 403, 404, 410, 415, 417, 421–424, 427
 Free legal aid, 287–288, 302–303

G

Group action (s), 360, 375
Güterichter, 78, 83, 90, 93

H

Hybrid conflict resolution, 101

I

Iceland, 1–3, 5, 9, 34, 35, 42, 47, 48, 53–71, 186, 308, 309, 312–316, 319–322, 410, 414, 415, 422, 423, 427
 Impartiality, 117
 In-court models, 82
 Interaction, 47–48
 Interest, 66–69, 100, 112, 340

Internationalisation, 88
 International peace mediation, 124

J

Judges had the legitimate right to mediate, 90
 Judicial grass-roots movements, 83
 Judicial review, 410
 Judicial settlement activities, 4, 106, 110, 111, 113–115, 141, 144
 Judicial system, 307
 Judiciary
 as dispute decision, 91
 as neutral procedure, 92

L

Law of networks, 88
 Legal aid, 281–290
 Legal cost, 233–235, 267
 Legal culture, 41
 institutional level, 42, 47
 intellectual level, 43, 47
 Legal expenses insurance, 288–289
 Legal-insurances, 80
 Legal pluralism, 133
 Legal representation, 109, 286
 Length of proceedings, 274, 277, 321
 Level of reality of live, 86
 Level of rights and justice, 86
 Litigation, 5, 332–333, 343, 406, 409–427

M

Mediation, 2, 37, 38, 77–93, 97–117, 123, 124, 126, 127, 131, 140–149, 158–183, 185–207, 329–331, 338, 339, 392, 412, 416, 418, 420–421
 confidentiality, 143
 cost, 148, 154
 court-connected, 105, 110, 111, 114, 116, 124–127, 129–131, 145, 149, 330, 333
 definition, 3, 98, 139
 evaluative, 152
 facilitative, 99, 103, 109, 112, 114, 115, 117, 152, 329, 334
 Nordic model, 3
 out-of-court, 106
 regulation, 98, 103, 115, 116, 335, 338
 training, 115, 335
 Mediation application, 126
Mediationsförderungsgesetz, 82, 83, 90, 92
Mediationsgesetz, 78

Mediator, 147–149, 174, 196, 198, 201, 202
 appointment, 142

N

National Mediation Service, 97, 105, 108–110,
 113–117, 335, 337, 340, 342, 417
 Negotiation, 101, 220, 228
 Neutrality, 225
 New self-image of judges, 88
 Nordic civil procedure, 5, 22, 23, 31–33, 38,
 39, 41–43, 46–49, 327, 334, 409, 414,
 423, 426

O

Ombudsman, 242, 274, 275, 290, 291, 294,
 370, 404
 Ombudsmen, 122, 257, 274–275
 Online dispute resolution (ODR), 38
 Open minded, 83
 Orality, 405
 Outcome of mediation, 130
 Out-of-court mediation, 107, 108, 139, 189
 Over-legalisation, 85

P

Party satisfaction, 172
 Predictability, 45, 223
 Preliminary rulings, 39
 Principles, 27
 Privatisation of the law, 133, 134
 Procedural autonomy, 35, 42
 Procedural justice, 132, 134
 Process ideas, 394
 Promotion of settlement, 124, 128

R

Reasoned decision, 25
 Redirected from court, 82
 Reduction of complexity, 85
 Reform, 226, 308
 Regulation, 16, 19, 36–38, 98, 112, 165–166,
 198–199, 201, 259, 338–340, 348,
 354–355, 419

Responsibility of citizens, 87
 Right to be heard, 85

S

School mediation, 122
 Self-distribution, 79
 Separation of powers, 91
 Settlement, 97, 104, 107, 111, 114, 131,
 140–143, 165, 331–333, 425
 promotion of, 144
 proposal, 127
 Small claims, 335
 Small claims procedure, 37
 Social mediation, 122
 Standing, 294, 300, 301, 351, 369–370
 State as guarantor, 87
 Statistical analysis, 219
 Substantive law, 170
 Supreme Court, 70
 Survey, 225, 239
 Sweden, v, vi, 1–4, 6, 9, 10, 14–19, 21–27, 34,
 35, 37, 47, 48, 50, 61–64, 66–68, 81, 86,
 140, 143, 146, 148, 150, 186–189, 232,
 235, 249–279, 291, 294, 376, 383, 384,
 389, 391, 393, 403, 404, 410, 415, 416,
 423, 424, 427
 System design, 82

T

Time, 81, 149, 296–297, 421–425
 Top-down, 32
 Training, 174, 198, 201
 of mediators, 128
 Translation issues, 84
 Truth finding, 392–394

V

Victim-offender mediation, 122
 Voluntary, 125, 128

W

Workplace mediation, 123