

Good the contract.  
this essay will argue  
that

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Good faith was first mentioned by the judiciary in *Carter v Boehm*.<sup>1</sup> However, there is no clear definition of good faith. Bingham LJ, in *Interfoto v Stiletto*,<sup>2</sup> (saying that parties should act in good faith): 'This does not simply mean that they should not deceive each other...its effect is perhaps most aptly conveyed by such metaphorical colloquialisms as ... 'coming clean' or 'putting one's cards face up on the table.'<sup>3</sup> When interpreting contracts, the courts have a choice from two main approaches: the literal approach<sup>4</sup> or the purposive approach.

<sup>5</sup>The literal approach aims to achieve certainty by ensuring that the courts only consider the written wording of the contract, thereby minimising the courts' interference and upholding sanctity of contract. The purposive approach favours accuracy, with the courts considering the wording of the contract according to the wider context and background of the contract. This essay will argue that the courts have, due to prioritising different factors at different points in time, failed to take a consistent approach towards deciding whether to intervene in parties' contracts and this has led to a lack of clarity surrounding the law on both good faith and contractual interpretation. The essay develops, first, by considering the current approaches taken by the courts when interpreting contracts and will analyse the extent to which the courts only give effect to the written content of the contracts, or whether they should also consider the context of the contract.

It will be explained that the courts have made several conflicting decisions regarding contractual interpretation. Secondly, it considers how the law on good faith has changed over the past 30 years, and then the current state of the law. It suggests that the approach taken by the courts recently,

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particularly by Leggatt J, 6 is unsatisfactory. Finally, it will contemplate the actions of the courts in such cases and assess whether the courts have achieved consistency in their approach.

It will be suggested that, despite the adaptability of the law to different situations, the approach of the courts is inconsistent, due to the courts considering each case individually, and so effect is not always given to the written content of contracts. In *Investors Compensation Scheme v West Bromwich Building Society (ICS)*, 7 Lord Hoffman set out five principles of contractual interpretation. Although these principles recognised the importance of the wording of the contract, they primarily favoured the contextual approach. Principles 2, 3, 4 and 5, in particular, demonstrate the courts' willingness to interfere with the wording of contracts that parties have freely agreed to. This is due to the principles' breadth and because they allow the courts to 'depart from the natural and ordinary meaning of the words used by the parties', 8 which goes against the principles of party autonomy and sanctity of contract. An example of the extensiveness of these principles can be seen in the second principle, which says that the courts can include 'absolutely anything' from the matrix of fact when considering the background of an agreement. The vastness of this rule led to Sir Christopher Staughton describing it as being 'hard to imagine a ruling more calculated to perpetuate the vast cost of commercial litigation.'<sup>9</sup> He, instead, advocates that the background should include facts that 'the parties must have had in mind'.

10 Thesecond principle also encourages parties to write contracts in a morecomplicated manner, as there is more room for debate over any clauses, should adispute arise. 11 In addition to Principle 2, Principles 4 and 5 havealso been subject to disapproval from members of the judiciary, particularlyfrom Lord Sumption. 12He criticises Lord Hoffman’s ignorance of the language and his eagerness toconsider the background of the agreement, rather than focusing on the meaningof the actual language used. The language of the contract is the primaryevidence to consider when interpreting a contract, as it has been agreed to byboth parties and is, therefore, likely to be reflective of their intentions. In contrast to ICS, in Arnold v Britton, 13the courts focused on the importance of the words: they did not get distractedby their consequences. The Supreme Court took this approach, despite it leadingto the service charge payments being at extremely high levels at the end of thelease.

In this instance, the Supreme Court focused on upholding sanctity ofcontract, and refused to get the lessees out of a bad bargain. Lord Neuberger, particularlyin the third<sup>14</sup> and fourth<sup>15</sup>factors he explained in his judgment, emphasised that the clarity of thelanguage meant that there was no reason to depart from the language in thecontract, despite the commercially absurd outcome. This is due to his beliefthat ‘ Judges are not always the most commercially minded, let alone the mostcommercially experienced of people.’<sup>16</sup> Although the decision in Arnold helps with certainty, this comes at the expense ofcommercial common sense. If the courts interpret contracts according tocommercial common sense, this prevents the harsh or unfair consequences fromoccurring. Often, both parties put forward arguments

which could both be used, for ambiguous clauses, so the court must make their decision based on which interpretation would be commercially sensible, as they did in *Rainy Sky v Kookmin Bank*<sup>17</sup> and *Pink Floyd Music v EMI Records*.<sup>18</sup> However, the lack of consistency in the law can be seen in *Jackson v Dear*<sup>19</sup> where, just two years after *Pink Floyd*, the Court of Appeal said that courts should 'not elevate commercial common sense into an overriding criterion.'<sup>20</sup> Conversely, if the courts did decide to focus on commercial common sense, there is a risk that they will not just interpret the contract but will end up re-writing it: this is not their job.

Parties are likely to be better at judging what is commercially sensible than the courts, and it is clear to see what the parties thought was commercially sensible by looking at the contract. Judges are likely to help the weaker party to try to make the outcome fairer, simply because the other party negotiated a good bargain. This view has been echoed by Lord Sumption, who said that 'Parties enter into contracts in a spirit of competitive interest, with a view to serving their own interest.'

This is a contrast to Leggatt J's views, regarding good faith, who says that 'the essence of contracting is that the parties bind themselves ... to cooperate to their mutual benefit.'<sup>21</sup> From *ICS* to *Arnold*, it is clear to see that the courts failed to achieve consistency in their approach to giving effect to the written content of parties' contracts. In *ICS*, the context and background of the contract was the main focus of the court in their decision-making process whereas, in *Arnold*, the wording of the contract was the most important factor in reaching the decision. Considering this substantial change

in approach, it is noteworthy that even Lord Sumption has said that the Supreme Court retreated from ICS 'with muffled tones'<sup>22</sup> and did not overrule the decision from ICS. In *Wood v Capita*,<sup>23</sup> the Supreme Court, once again, reinstated the importance of context and suggested that the language of agreements should be looked at using either 'textualism' or 'contextualism'. Textualism prioritises the specific wording of the agreement, when interpreting it whereas contextualism prioritises the context of the agreement. The inconsistency of the courts can be seen by how, in *Arnold*, the court said that the starting point, for interpretation, was the language, whereas *Wood* says they can consider the context first and then look at the language. However, having considered the context, their view of the language may be tainted.

*Wood* allowed the court to revive the iterative approach to interpretation, which originated in *Ford v Beech*.<sup>24</sup> This process involves checking the potential meanings of a clause, against the contractual document as a whole, and then considering the commercial consequences of each interpretation. It is suggested that this should happen even if the wording of the disputed term is, in the abstract, clear.<sup>25</sup> Although using this approach may lead to the correct decision in individual cases, it will provide less certainty in the law, for contracting parties, as they cannot be certain whether the court will give effect to the specific wording of the contract. Having considered these cases, it is evident that, with regard to contractual interpretation, there is a lack of clarity and consistency.

The court has changed their approach from Arnold to Wood, and they had previously changed their approach from ICS to Arnold. The only thing that does appear to be clear is that 'no word or group of words has a fixed meaning.'<sup>26</sup> In Wood, it appears as if the courts have tried to find a mid-point between Arnold and ICS, by not favouring the language over the context, and vice versa. As Lord Carnwarth's dissenting judgment<sup>27</sup> in Arnold makes clear, it is key for the judiciary to perform a balancing act between commercial common sense and certainty: although both are important, a judgment should not be such that it completely ignores one of these in favour of the other. It was said that it is important to look at what happened when the matter got to the courts, rather than looking at it from the context of when it was made. This disagrees with Lord Neuberger's view, that the issue should be looked at from the perspective of when the agreement was made. The current position of English law is that it does not recognise a duty for parties to act in good faith. This position applies to both the performance of existing contractual obligations and also to pre-contractual negotiations, as established in *Walford v Miles*.

<sup>28</sup> In *Walford*, the House of Lords rejected the argument that the defendant was under an obligation to conduct negotiations in good faith. This conclusion was reached on the basis that such agreements, to negotiate in good faith, lack certainty and are fundamentally inconsistent with how a negotiation process is conducted: it is an adversarial process. Similarities can be drawn between this and Lord Hoffman's principle, in *ICS*, that pre-contractual negotiations are inadmissible as evidence of the parties' intentions, due to their uncertainty. The decision in *Walford* is further evidence of the courts

intervening in contracts, despite what the parties may have agreed to. In contrast to the position in *Walford*, the Court of Appeal, in *Petromec v Petroleo*,<sup>29</sup> was willing to uphold a promise to negotiate in good faith, where the promise was an express term in the contract. This was because it was felt that, if both parties have come to an agreement, it is not the job of the courts to get involved in this. This attitude is evident within Longmore LJ's judgment in *Petromec*: 'It would be a strong thing to declare unenforceable a clause into which the parties have deliberately and expressly entered.'

'The approach from *Petromec* was confirmed in *Emirates Trading v Prime Mineral Exports*.<sup>30</sup> In *Astor Management v Atalaya Mining*,<sup>31</sup> Leggatt J upheld a term requiring a party to use 'reasonable endeavours', in the context of entering an agreement with a third party. His Lordship, as he now is, followed the decisions from *Petromec* and *Emirates*, and disregarded Andrews J's judgment in *Dany Lions v Bristol Cars*.<sup>32</sup> The contrasting opinions of two judges, with both being first-instance decisions, demonstrate how there is still not clarity over the rules surrounding good faith. However, the *Astor* decision appears to reflect the prevailing attitude of the courts, due to the pragmatic approach it takes and its upholding of party autonomy: 'The role of the court in a commercial dispute is to give legal effect to what the parties have agreed.'<sup>33</sup> Taking such an approach shows that the courts are, sometimes, willing to give direct effect to the written content of parties' contracts and are not interfering with the contracts. This is similar to the approach taken in *Arnold*, where the express wording of the agreement was focused on. Recently, there has been a change in the approach that courts take toward implied terms.



This has primarily been due to the efforts of Leggatt J. In *Yam Seng v International Trade Corp*, 34 Leggatt J addressed whether there was an implied term that parties would deal with each other in good faith. He concluded that courts should presume that parties intended to have an implied term of good faith, i.

e. It should be implied in fact. 35 Leggatt J's judgment is unsatisfactory for several reasons. One of the fundamental characteristics of English contract and commercial law is that it is inherently adversarial, despite Leggatt J's belief to the contrary, 36 and implying good faith would restrict self-interest. Parties should not have to contract out of good faith; it is their choice as to what is in the contracts, not the courts'. When the contracts were drafted, it is likely that good faith was considered and so, unless there has been some form of misrepresentation, there is no need for the courts to interfere with the content of contracts.

To do so would increase judicial intervention to unwelcome levels. Lord Goff expressed similar views against implying terms, saying that 'a court should be reluctant to alter the terms of a contract and nor should it add to those terms...'<sup>37</sup>In this essay, it was found that the courts have failed to take a consistent approach with regard to whether they will give effect to the written content of parties' contracts or whether they will intervene. They are, effectively, dealing with issues on a case-by-case basis, as is evident with the constant changes in which factors will be prioritised, and this is leading to a lack of consistency and clarity. In the context of contractual

interpretation, it appears that the courts have taken the correct decision in Wood, regarding using textualism and contextualism.

It is not as black and white an issue as the courts appeared to believe it was with their decisions in ICS and Arnold. They should develop a consistent approach, which considers the language of the contract, but whilst not forgetting the wider context of the agreement, in order to 'ascertain the objective meaning of the language'<sup>38</sup> and ensure that that a commercially absurd outcome is not reached. With regard to good faith, it was found that, despite the general position of English law being that parties do not have a duty of good faith to each other, the law has developed significantly over recent years and is likely to do so in the future. This is due to the ascension of Leggatt J, to the Court of Appeal, where he will have further scope to reform the law. The approach taken by the courts is considerably more consistent than that taken when interpreting contracts.

If the position of good faith does change in the future, this could threaten English law's place as the leading law used for contracts around the world due to the uncertainty that would arise.