Court of Appeal File Nos.: C59377/C59379
Court of Appeal Motion File No.: M44123/M44126
Sup. Ct. J. File No.: CV-14-10518-00CL

COURT OF APPEAL FOR ONTARIO

IN THE MATTER OF THE *COMPANIES' CREDITORS ARRANGEMENT ACT,* R.S.C. 1985, c. C-36 AS AMENDED

AND IN THE MATTER OF A PLAN OF COMPROMISE OR ARRANGEMENT OF THE CASH STORE FINANCIAL SERVICES INC., THE CASH STORE INC., TCS CASH STORE INC., INSTALOANS INC., 7252331 CANADA INC., 5515433 MANITOBA INC., 1693926 ALBERTA LTD DOING BUSINESS AS "THE TITLE STORE"

Applicants

BOOK OF AUTHORITIES
(Responding to appeal by third party lenders ("TPLs"))

October 1, 2014

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Court-appointed representative counsel
to class action plaintiffs

TO: SERVICE LIST

SCHEDULE "A"

LIST OF AUTHORITIES

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1.	Endorsement of Regional Senior Justice Morawetz dated August 26, 2014, *Cash Store Financial Services (Re)*, 2014 ONSC 4567
2.	*The Director v. The Cash Store*, 2014 ONSC 980
3.	*Housen v. Nikolaisen,* [2002] 2 S.C.R. 235
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5.	*Sattva Capital Corp, v. Creston Moly Corp.* (2014), 2014 SCC 53
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7.	*Royal Bank of Canada v. Hejna* (2014), 2014 ONCA 306
8.	*Rajmohan v. Norman H. Solmon Family Trust* (2014), 2014 ONCA 352
9.	*Canadian Contractual Interpretation Law*, Geoff R. Hall, LexisNexis, 2012
10.	Donovan Waters, Mark Gillen & Lionel Smith, *Waters' Law of Trusts in Canada,* 4th ed. (Toronto: Thomson Reuters Canada Limited, 2012)
11.	*Henry v. Hammon,* [1913] 2 k.b. 515 at 521
12.	*GMAC Commercial Credit Corp. Canada v. TCT Logistics Inc.* (2005), 74 O.R. (3d) 382 (C.A.)

TAB 1

CITATION: Cash Store Financial Services (Re), 2014 ONSC 4567
COURT FILE NO.: CV-14-10518-00CL
DATE: 2014-08-26

SUPERIOR COURT OF JUSTICE - ONTARIO

RE: IN THE MATTER OF THE COMPANIES' CREDITORS ARRANGEMENT ACT, R.S.C. 1985, c. C-36 AS AMENDED

AND IN THE MATTER OF A PLAN OF COMPROMISE OR ARRANGEMENT OF THE CASH STORE FINANCIAL SERVICES, THE CASH STORE INC., TCS CASH STORE INC., INSTALOANS INC., 7252331 CANADA INC., 5515433 MANITOBA INC., 1693926 ALBERTA LTD. doing business as "THE TITLE STORE"

BEFORE: Regional Senior Justice Morawetz

COUNSEL: *Jeremy Dacks*, for the Chief Restructuring Officer of the Applicants

Heather Meredith, for the FTI Canada Consulting Canada Inc., Monitor

Robert W. Staley and *Raj S. Sahni* and *Jonathan Bell*, for 0678786 B.C. Ltd.

Alan Merskey and *Orestes Pasparakis*, for Coliseum Capital Partners LP, Coliseum Capital Partners II LP, Blackwell Partners LLC, Alta Fundamental Advisors Master LP and the Ad Hoc Committee of Cash Store Noteholders in their representative capacities as DIP Lenders, First Lien Noteholders and Holders of Senior Secured Notes

Brendan O'Neill, for the Ad Hoc Committee of Cash Store Noteholders

Andrew Hatnay, *James Harnum* and *Adrian Scotchmer*, for Tim Yeoman,

Brett Harrison, for Trimor Annuity Focus LP, No. 5

HEARD: June 16, 2014

ENDORSEMENT

[1] This motion was brought by Mr. Timothy Yeoman, Plaintiff in the class proceeding, *Timothy Yeoman* v. *The Cash Store Financial Services Inc. et al*, Court File No. 7908/12 CP (the "Class Action") for an order appointing him as representative (the "Class Representative") of the Class Members in this CCAA proceeding, and for an order appointing Harrison Pensa LLP as representative counsel to the class members, and Koskie Minsky LLP as agent to Harrison Pensa LLP ("Representative Counsel").

[2] Other than 0678786 B.C. Ltd. ("McCann") and Trimor Annuity Focus LP No. 5 ("Trimor"), no party opposed the motion.

[3] The Statement of Claim was filed on August 1, 2012 in London, Ontario. The Class Action is being managed by Grace J, who has scheduled a motion for certification on September 15, 2014.

[4] On April 14, 2014, Cash Store Financial Services Inc. and other entities obtained protection from their creditors under the *Companies' Creditors Arrangement Act* ("CCAA"). As a result, the Class Action and the certification motion have been stayed pending further order.

[5] The Class Action alleges, *inter alia,* that the Defendants' practice of charging fees for various financial products which are tied to their loan products, as well as interest on those fees, is unlawful and in contravention of the *Ontario Pay Day Loans Act* ("PLA").

[6] In the case of Mr. Yeoman, it is alleged that he engaged in a "Pay Day Loan" transaction offered by Cash Store for a loan of $400 and for a duration of 9 days. Mr. Yeoman claims that he was charged $68.60 in "fees and service charges" and was required to pay $78.72 in interest, for a total cost of borrowing of $147.32.

[7] The Class Action asserts the following causes of action against the Applicants:

a. breach of the PLA;

b. breach of the *Competition Act*;

c. conspiracy; and

d. unjust enrichment.

[8] Mr. Yeoman seeks to represent all customers of Cash Store who entered into similar loan transactions in Ontario. Mr. Yeoman estimates that there are thousands of individual borrowers in the Class. Counsel to Mr. Yeoman submit that damages for the Class Members are estimated at over $50 million, based on publicaly available information.

[9] Counsel for Mr. Yeoman referenced section 6(3) of the PLA which states that the consequence of a breach of the PLA by a lender is that borrowers are only required to repay the principal loan advanced to them and are not required to pay any additional costs of borrowing (i.e., interest and fees) charged by a pay day lender. Accordingly, they alleged that any collections in respect of interest and fees are unlawful under the PLA.

[10] McCann, supported by Trimor, take the position that the relief requested by Mr. Yeoman is a waste of the Court's resources and time. McCann and Trimor (collectively, "Third Party Lenders" and referenced as "TPLs") point out that Mr. Yeoman is an unsecured contingent creditor of the Applicants for an amount less than $150. They argue that Mr. Yeoman's motion is premature. Further, given the approximately $150 million of secured creditor claims that must be satisfied first, they submit these insolvency proceedings have not contemplated any recovery for unsecured creditors let alone unsecured contingent creditors and to permit Mr. Yeoman's motion would prejudice these proceedings and other parties, such as McCann and Trimor, through unnecessary costs, delay and diversion.

[11] The issue to be determined is whether the Court should appoint a representative for the members of the Class Action and Representative Counsel in the CCAA proceeding.

[12] Both parties agree that the Court has the authority to appoint representative counsel. The authority for such an appointment is found under Rules 10.01 and 12.07, as well as s. 11 of the CCAA (see: *Nortel Networks Corporation (Re)*, 2009 Carswell Ont. 3028).

[13] The factors that have been considered by Canadian Courts when issuing representative counsel orders in insolvency proceedings were summarized by Pepall J. (as she then was) in *Canwest Publishing Inc. (Re)*, 2010 Carswell Ont. 1344 (S.C.):

a. the vulnerability and resources of the group sought to be represented;

b. any benefit to the companies under CCAA protection;

c. any social benefit to be derived from representation of the group;

d. the facilitation of the administration of the proceedings and efficiencies;

e. the avoidance of a multiplicity of legal retainers;

f. the balance of convenience and whether it is fair and just, including to the creditors of the estate;

g. whether representative counsel has already been appointed for those who have similar interest to the group seeking representation and who is also prepared to act for the group seeking the order; and

h. the position of others stakeholders and the Monitor.

[14] Pepall J., in *Canwest*, held that it is preferable to grant a representation order early in CCAA proceedings, both for the parties to be represented and for the CCAA Applicants.

[15] Counsel to McCann responds that irrelevant facts, circumstances and equities indicate that the motion should be dismissed. Counsel submits that the representation order is premature, that the proposed Class Action is unlikely to be certified, that the intent of the motion is to protect Class Counsel fees not proposed Class Members and, finally, that the *Canwest* factors fail to support Mr. Yeoman.

[16] Turning first to the *Canwest* factors, I am satisfied that the Class Members are a vulnerable group who individually lack the financial resources to pursue litigation. I accept the argument of counsel to Mr. Yeoman that without a representation order, these individuals will likely not have representation in the CCAA proceeding. It is recognized that the Class Members are an economically vulnerable group. As pointed out by counsel to Mr. Yeoman, pay day lenders are typically used by people of low financial means and the Class Members in this case are thousands of individual who, according to counsel to Mr. Yeoman, have entered into pay day loan transactions with the Applicants and were charged unlawful cost of borrowing in contravention of the PLA. Individually, it is acknowledged that their claims are relatively small,

but collectively, the total of their claims is very significant. In my view, a consideration of the *Canwest* factors favours Mr. Yeoman's position.

[17] I accept the submission of counsel to Mr. Yeoman that it is not cost effective or practical for borrowers to engage in individual actions against the Applicants, which would likely involve a multiplicity of Small Claims Court actions. Counsel to Mr. Yeoman submits that the only practical recourse for such individuals to advance their claims for compensation is through a class proceeding with class counsel advancing their collective claims.

[18] Given the size of each individual claim, I accept the submission that without a representation order, the individual class members will not have representation in the CCAA proceedings.

[19] I also accept that the appointment of representative counsel will benefit the Applicants insofar as they will be able to deal with the adjudication of the Class Action in a consistent and streamlined manner.

[20] I am also satisfied that a representation order will facilitate the administration of the CCAA proceeding and enhance its efficiency. The appointment of representative counsel will avoid the need for the Applicants to deal with a potentially large number of individual unrepresented borrowers advancing individual and possibly inconsistent claims.

[21] Turning now to the arguments raised by counsel to McCann, I cannot accept that the making of a representation order is premature. The CCAA proceedings are ongoing. There is an ongoing sale and investment process being conducted by Rothschild. The sale and investment process will likely be followed by some sort of claims process and a distribution process. The adjudication of the Class Action may have an impact on the CCAA proceedings. In my view, there is no reason to delay the Class Action proceeding.

[22] Counsel to McCann submits that Mr. Yeoman has no legitimate role to play in these proceedings and further, that the appointment of Mr. Yeoman as legal representative of the Class would cause direct and tangible prejudice to these proceedings and interested parties. I have not been persuaded by these submissions. There is an administrative benefit to be realized if proceedings are coordinated and since there is no funding request for Representative Counsel at this time, I question the alleged prejudice. I also note that the Chief Restructuring Officer, the Applicants and the Monitor, the parties having a direct interest in the outcome of this motion, do not oppose the granting of the requested relief.

[23] With respect to the submission that the proposed class action is unlikely to be certified, this is an issue to be addressed by Grace J. in September 2014.

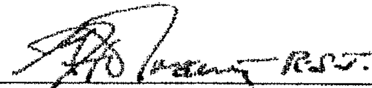
[24] With respect to the argument that the motion is to protect Class Counsel fees not proposed class members, this argument has to be considered with the statement that the moving party is not seeking funding for the cost of Representative Counsel at this time.

[25] Finally, it seems to me that motions of this type are very fact-specific. Counsel to McCann relies on *Muscletech Research and Development Inc. (Re)*, 2006 Carswell Ont. 4929; *Muscletech Research and Development Inc. (Re)*, 2006 Carswell Ont. 7877 and *Re Canadian*

Red Cross Society, 1999 Carswell Ont. 3234. Counsel submits that Mr. Yeoman has failed to cite a single reported decision where a CCAA court considered and granted a contested representation order, for a proposed uncertified class action.

[26] In my view, a complete response to the case law cited by counsel to McCann is contained in the Reply Factum filed by counsel for the Class Action Plaintiffs, at paragraphs 5 – 11. In this case is also important to note that the issue before this Court is whether to grant a representation order. It is not to make a determination as to whether the Class Action should be certified.

[27] In the result, I am satisfied that this is an appropriate matter in which to appoint a class representative and representative counsel. The motion is granted and an order shall issue appointment Mr. Yeoman as the Class Representative of the Class Members in the CCAA proceeding and an order appointing Harrison Pensa LLP as representative counsel to the Class Members and Koskie Minsky LLP as agent to Harrison Pensa LLP ("Representative Counsel").



Morawetz, R.S.J.

Date: August 26, 2014

TAB 2

CITATION: The Director v. The Cash Store, 2014 ONSC 980
COURT FILE NO.: CV-13-482242
DATE: 20140212

2014 ONSC 980 (CanLII)

ONTARIO

SUPERIOR COURT OF JUSTICE

BETWEEN:	
The Director designated under the Ministry of Consumer and Business Services Act	*William Manuel and Kevin Hille*, for the Applicant
Applicant	
– and –	
The Cash Store Financial Services Inc., The Cash Store Inc., and Instaloans Inc.	*Timothy Pinos and Jason Beitchman*, for the Respondents
Respondents	
	HEARD: November 29, 2013

MORGAN J.

I. The payday loan question

[1] Is it a line of credit or is it a payday loan? That is the difficult question of characterization posed in this Application.

[2] The Respondents are a group of related companies that offer loans to the public on a retail basis. They were previously licensed as a payday lender under the *Payday Loans Act, 2008*, SO 2008, c. 9 (the "*Act*"), but this license lapsed in July 2013. In 2013 the Respondents restructured their business in Ontario, and began offering a newly fashioned financial product called a "Basic Line of Credit" ("BLOC") to their customers.

[3] The Applicant is the public official who is authorized under section 54(1) of the *Act* to apply to this court for an order "if it appears to the Director that a person or entity is not complying with this Act or the regulations".

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[4] The Applicant alleges that the BLOC product is in name a line of credit but in substance a payday loan, and that as such it is subject to the numerous consumer protection provisions built into the provincial regulatory regime for payday loans. The Respondents contend that the BLOC product is a true line of credit that fills a market need since larger American subprime banks pulled out of Canada in the wake of the recent recession, and that as such it is outside the Applicant's jurisdiction under the *Act*.

[5] If the *Act* applies to the BLOC, the Respondents would need to be licensed under the *Act* in order to offer this product to the public in Ontario. Furthermore, the Respondents' business would be caught by Ontario Regulation 98/09, as recently amended by Ontario Regulation 316/11 (the "*Regulation*"). The *Regulation* includes the cost of goods and services (i.e. service fees) in the calculation of the maximum cost of borrowing, it restricts certain goods and services by means of its definition of prohibited loans, and it requires lenders to provide funds in cash to customers. These provisions would potentially impact on the Respondents' business practices and would require changes in the terms of the BLOC.

[6] The history and policy underlying the *Act* and the *Regulation*, along with the process of the *Regulation*'s enactment, have been thoroughly analyzed and upheld by the Divisional Court in *Cash Store Financial Services Inc. v Ontario (Minister of Consumer Services)*, 2013 ONSC 6440. As the Divisional Court put it at para 30, the *Act* was enacted in 2008 by Ontario as a package of consumer-oriented "legislative measures that protected the recipients of payday loans and ensured that the costs associated with these loans did not exceed certain limits."

[7] This Application is the latest in what appears to be a running battle between the parties. As indicated, the Respondents were at first licensed under the *Act*, but the introduction of the *Regulation* impacted in a way that the Respondents found onerous. They then challenged the Regulation in Divisional Court on the grounds, *inter alia*, that the government had not adequately consulted with them as a business affected by the *Regulation*. The Court, as indicated, upheld the *Regulation*. At the same time as seeking judicial review of the *Regulation*, the Respondents re-designed their products and gave up their license on the view that the new BLOC offering did not fall within the *Act*'s ambit.

[8] The question now is whether the product offered to the public by the Respondents has been designed in such a way that it is outside the terms of the *Act* and avoids the impact of the *Regulation*. The Respondents accuse the Applicant of pursuing it relentlessly and of attempting to regulate it even after it changed its business model from payday loans to something altogether different. The Applicant, for its part, insists that it has caught the Respondents offering the same old product in deceptively new wrapping.

[9] For the reasons that follow, I agree with the Applicant that the BLOC amounts to a "payday loan" under subsection 1(1) of the *Act*. Although the contest is a close one, it is evident to me that this time the persistent regulatory cat has caught the clever business mouse.

II. The BLOC product

[10] As described by Respondents' counsel, a consumer applying for the BLOC provides: a) photo ID; b) confirmation of a bank account; c) confirmation of income; d) a telephone number; and e) an email address. The Respondents, in turn, provide the customer with: a) a Broker Disclosure Statement; b) an agreement and Disclosure Statement (setting out interest rate, maximum credit limit, initial draw, brokerage fee, minimum payment, payment schedule and statement of other fees); c) a Recurring Pre-Authorized Debit Agreement; d) a credit assessment summary; and e) a draw receipt for the initial draw.

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[11] The Respondents are the broker, not the lender, under the BLOC. They earn a fee of 21% payable on the initial draw. The lender, who is a separate entity, earns interest at the rate of 59.9% per annum.

[12] The loan Agreement signed by the customer is, as indicated above, accompanied by a Recurring Pre-Authorized Debit Agreement. The Agreement requires repayment of 50% of the outstanding balance in every repayment period. As initially designed, the BLOC required repayment of 90% of the outstanding balance before another draw could be obtained, but the amount was changed to 50% when the Applicant challenged that arrangement.

[13] The affidavit materials indicate that BLOC customers are entitled to select their own repayment period. The Respondents' affiant deposes that most borrowers choose to repay their draw biweekly if they are paid biweekly, or monthly if they are paid monthly, in an effort to minimize interest payments. On the Respondents' website, maximum borrowing under the BLOC is promoted as a percentage of the customer's salary: "Borrow up to 60% of your net income".

[14] The Applicant submits that the BLOC product is readily comparable to the payday loans that the Respondents offered customers when it was licensed under the *Act*. As with the BLOC, a customer applying for a payday loan was required to provide bank account information, proof of income, a telephone number, and an email address. Likewise, the affidavit evidence indicates that the Respondents' now discontinued payday loans, much like the BLOC, offered an advance of up to 60% of the customer's net income for the upcoming pay period.

[15] The affidavit material also indicates that the BLOC targets roughly the same consumer market as the former payday loans – i.e. the economic tier of Canadians who, while employed, lack access to traditional credit.

III. The legislative framework

[16] The *Act* is limited in its application. Section 2(1) provides that it applies "in respect of all payday loans if the borrower, lender or loan broker is located in Ontario when the loan is made or to be made". Under s. 1(1), a "payday loan" is defined as follows:

> …an advancement of money in exchange for a post-dated cheque, a pre-authorized debit or a future payment of a similar nature but not for any guarantee,

> suretyship, overdraft protection or security on property and not through a margin loan, pawnbroking, a line of credit or a credit card.

[17] A line of credit is specifically referenced as being outside the "payday loan" definition, although the term "line of credit" is not itself defined in the legislation.

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[18] The definition of "payday loan" in the *Act* was copied verbatim from the definition of that term found in section 347(2) of the *Criminal Code*. Section 347 of the *Criminal Code* creates both an indictable and a summary conviction offense for the lending of money at a criminal rate of interest. The "criminal rate" is defined, effectively, as 60% per annum. Since the BLOC lender earns interest at the annual rate of 59.9%, it is evident that the product has been designed to be outside the regulatory provisions of the *Act* and just shy of the prohibition in the *Criminal Code*.

[19] The Ontario legislation was enacted in coordination with the federal legislation. Section 347.1(2) of the *Criminal Code* provides that the offence in section 347(1) and applicable provisions of the *Interest Act*, RSC 1985, c. I-15 do not apply if… "(c) the province is designated under subsection (3)." That subsection, in turn, provides:

> (3) The Governor in Council shall, by order and at the request of the lieutenant governor in council of a province, designate the province for the purposes of this section if the province has legislative measures that protect recipients of payday loans and that provide for limits on the total cost of borrowing under the agreements.

[20] Under section 91(19) of the *Constitution Act, 1867*, it is the federal government that has legislative power over interest rates. The delegation of this power to designated provinces with respect to payday loans in section 347.1(c)(3) of the *Criminal Code* was narrowly targeted at the regulation of a specific type of product. The federal Minister of Justice, in introducing the exemption for designated provinces in section 347.1 of the *Criminal Code* in 2007, made this clear:

> While [the statutory definition of payday loans] might seem like a mouthful, it is an extremely important aspect of the proposed amendments. Laws and legal systems are meant to provide a certain degree of precision, clearly defining the limits of the behaviour which they purport to regulate.
>
> By defining a payday loan in this fashion, the proposed amendments provide the precision necessary to ensure that the exemption will not capture other types of lending arrangements where the policy considerations at play are very different. These amendments are targeted in scope.

[21] Similarly, as counsel for the Respondents points out, the fact that the *Act* filled a specific opening delivered to the province by the federal government was recognized in the Ontario legislature upon its enactment:

> Mr. Bill Mauro (Thunder Bay-Atikokan): 'I was quite pleased yesterday to see that the Payday loans Act passed third reading here in the Legislature... It is also extremely important that I point out that for the first time in the history of this Legislature, our government has stepped into an area that heretofore was not regulated.'
>
> Ontario Debates, Session 39.1, June 10, 2008.

[22] The *Act* therefore does not apply to any financial product offered by the Respondents that does not meet the statutory definition of a "payday loan". Indeed, given the province's constitutional limitations, it *could not* apply to anything but a payday loan since the regulation of any other lending instrument and applicable interest rates is within the authority of the federal government.

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IV. Burden of proof

[23] The Applicant submits that it has proved that the BLOC is *prima facie* a payday loan as on its face it so resembles a payday loan. Citing *Peel Law Association v Pieters* (2013), 116 OR (3d) 81 (Ont CA), Applicant's counsel contends that the Respondents are seeking to fall within a specific statutory exlusion – i.e a line of credit – and that the burden of proof therefore shifts to the Respondents to establish that the BLOC falls within the exclusion. The Applicant puts the point as it was put by Cronk J.A. in *Stellarbridge Management Inc. v Magna International (Canada) Inc.* (2004), 71 OR (3d) 263, at para 60 (Ont CA): "he who asserts must prove...[but] he who relies on an exception to the general rule must prove that he comes within the exception."

[24] I am not convinced that this kind of midstream shift in burden applies in establishing the Applicant's jurisdiction under the *Act*. The Applicant has regulatory authority over "payday loans", and the onus is on the Applicant to establish that the financial product that it is targeting fits that definition.

[25] The *Act*'s negative reference to "line of credit" in the definition section – along with "any guarantee, suretyship, overdraft protection or security on property and not through a margin loan, pawnbroking, ...or a credit card" – does not carve out an exception to the definition of payday loans. If that were the case, a line of credit, along with a guarantee, suretyship, credit card, pawnbroking, etc., would have to be a subset of payday loans to which that term would apply but for the exception.

[26] The various types of transactions listed with a line of credit as not being payday loans are just that – *not* payday loans; they are not transactions that have the characteristics of payday loans but that are for policy reasons being excluded from the statutory definition. To take just one example from the list, it cannot be seriously contended that pawnbroking – whose unique characterizing feature involves the bailment of personal property, which has nothing to do with any other feature of payday loans – is in fact a payday loan that was specifically carved out as a statutory exception to that term.

[27] The Supreme Court of Canada provided the general rationale for placing and shifting the burden of proof in *Snell v Farrell*, [1990] 2 SCR 311, at para 29, where it stated that "all evidence is to be weighed according to the proof which it was in the power of one side to have produced, and in the power of the other to have contradicted." That reason for shifting the burden of proof from its ordinary position on the Applicant does not apply in the present circumstances.

[28] The Respondents are in no better a position to establish that the BLOC is a line of credit rather than a payday loan than is the Applicant in establishing that the BLOC is a payday loan rather than a line of credit. Although the Applicant complains that it has not had sufficient access to the Respondents' business records to be able to satisfy the entire evidentiary burden, the evidence issue is a distraction from the substantive question posed in the Application. There is certainly enough evidence in the record to understand the specific terms of the BLOC product, which after all are designed for the consumer and are not overly complicated. What remains to be established is the characterization question of whether that product is distinct from, or fits squarely within, the statutory definition of a payday loan.

[29] The syntax of the *Act*'s definition of "payday loan" suggests that the list of items of which line of credit forms a part is provided as a contrast to payday loans. Saying that the *Act* applies to payday loans but not to lines of credit is like saying that a rule of privilege applies to lawyers but not to accountants. See *Tower v MNR*, 2003 DTC 5540, at para 38 (Fed CA). The latter category is not a narrow exception to the more general former category; accountants are not an exception to the rules governing solicitors any more than a line of credit is an exception to the rules governing payday loans. The contrast to something *not* included in the regulation helps to carefully define what *is* included.

[30] Accordingly, the burden of proof does not shift. The onus is on the Applicant to establish that the BLOC is a payday loan and that the Applicant therefore has jurisdiction under the *Act*.

V. Payday loan or line of credit?

[31] Guidance as to the proper approach to interpreting the *Act* is contained in section 4 of the *Act* itself, as follows:

> 4. In determining whether this Act applies to a person, entity, agreement or transaction, a court or other tribunal shall consider the real substance of the person, entity, agreement or transaction and in so doing may disregard the outward form.

[32] As indicated above and as summarized by Respondents' counsel in their factum, the statutory definition sets out several characteristics of a payday loan:

1) An advancement of money;

2) In exchange for a post-dated cheque, pre-authorized debit or a future payment of a similar nature;

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3) Not in exchange for any guarantee, suretyship, overdraft protection or security on property; and

4) Not provided through a margin loan, pawnbroking, a line of credit or a credit card.

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[33] Respondents' counsel goes on to submit that there are two distinctions between the payday loan definition and the BLOC. The second of these is easily ignored; the Respondents contend that the *Act*'s explicit contrasting of "line of credit" from the categories of transactions that could comprise a payday loan provides a distinguishing point for the BLOC product. This is a textbook illustration of a circular argument. One needs to know whether the BLOC is a true line of credit in order to determine whether or not it is outside the statutory definition as being a "line of credit".

[34] The first distinction identified by Respondents' counsel, on the other hand, is more to the point. They submit that characteristics 1) and 2) above "define payday loans as single transactions: i.e., the taking out of a loan to carry one over until one's next payday, at which point the loan will be paid off." They go on to observe that in the defining features of a payday loan, "[t]here is no mention of 'advancements' of money, or critically, advancements of credit. There is no mention of post-dated cheques, ongoing accounts or repayment schedules, but only one cheque, one debit, or one future payment."

[35] The latter group of features appear to be more form than substance. Whether or not the *Act* speaks of "advancements" that may or may not be obtained, or requires post-dated cheques that may or may not be used, or provides ongoing accounts or repayment schedules that may or may not be applied, is a matter of the mechanics of the loan. Those features do not define its essential character. This court indicated in *Parker v Yundt*, 2012 ONSC 244, at paras 25-26, that in a characterization question of this nature, one "may disregard the outward form of a transaction and may have regard to the pattern of activity."

[36] The question that goes to the heart of the issue is Respondents' counsel's first one: whether the BLOC is an ongoing, multi-faceted transaction, or a series of single, discreet transactions. As Susan Abbott, the Respondents' expert witness, explained in her affidavit, there three distinguishing features of a line of credit:

1. You apply once. As long as you comply with the terms, you have access to the approved credit line.

2. You are charged only based on the funds you actually borrow.

3. You can redraw up to the approved limit.

[37] The Respondents do their utmost to demonstrate that the BLOC is indeed the same as any line of credit. As their affiant describes it, interest on the loan starts running when the borrower takes the first draw, just like with any line of credit. Moreover, there is an overall credit limit,

and each advance of funds is labelled as a draw toward the overall credit amount, as with any line of credit. The facility is open for a year, and the borrower may repay it at any time without penalty, just like with a traditional rolling line of credit.

[38] As further described by the Respondents, the borrowers can draw down the loan in stages up to the credit limit. After the initial advance, they have a right to make subsequent draws on the loan subject only to a credit check and to the minimum repayment requirements.

[39] In order to visualize how the transaction will work, it must be recalled that the Respondents' evidence is that customers typically opt for a biweekly repayment schedule to coincide with their employment pay cycle. The customer passes a credit check, takes out a "Basic Line of Credit" up to a maximum amount, and then takes part of that maximum as an initial draw. As long as the minimum repayment of 50% is made by the repayment date (typically two weeks later), the customer can then take another draw, subject to passing another credit check.

[40] That process can be compared to a series of payday loans. Customers pass a credit check and then take out a loan payable in two weeks, to coincide with their employment pay cycle. As long as repayment is made by the due date two weeks later, the customer can then take out another payday loan, subject to passing another credit check.

[41] The Respondents argue that for a payday loan one would have to re-apply for each subsequent loan while for a BLOC no re-application is necessary for each subsequent draw. That, however, is a distinction that makes little substantive difference. The essence of any loan application is the credit check, which has to be done whether a new payday loan is being obtained or a new draw on the BLOC is being obtained. Whether or not a borrower has to also fill out the rest of the application form each time is a matter of mechanics.

[42] If the Respondents had stayed with their initial proposal and required 90% repayment for each draw before a new one is obtained, the identity between a payday loan (or series of payday loans) and a BLOC would have been virtually complete. Having reduced the repayment requirement to 50%, there is a slight difference between the two arrangements. This difference, however, is more theoretical than real.

[43] Given the extremely high rate of interest charged in a BLOC, it is unlikely that any borrower could accumulate more than one or two draws without fully repaying them and still pass a credit check for another one. The reality of such high interest loans – especially given the Respondents' professed target market of borrowers who cannot obtain traditional loans at standard banks rates – is that repayment is necessary before a new draw is obtained.

[44] With this reality in mind, one can describe the two types of transactions in remarkably similar terms:

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a) A payday loan customer can take out twenty-six discreet loans during the course of a year, repaying the loans and passing a credit check for a new loan on a biweekly basis.

b) A BLOC customer can take twenty-six draws on a line of credit for a year, repaying the draws and passing a credit check for a new draw on a biweekly basis.

[45] The two arrangements may be different in concept, but their differences are impossible to perceive with the naked eye. One is a white pony with black stripes, and the other is a black pony with white stripes. For all practical and regulatory purposes, they both add up to the same creature – a payday loan.

VI. Disposition

[46] The Applicant shall have a declaration that the Respondents' BLOC product constitutes a "payday loan" under subsection 1(1) of the *Act*. The BLOC is subject to: (i) the *Act*, its General Regulation 98/09, as amended, and any applicable administrative penalties where the amount of the loan is $1,500 or less and the term of the agreement is 62 days or less, and (ii) section 347 of the *Criminal Code*, section 2 of the *Interest Act*, the *Act* and its General Regulation 98/09, as amended, and any applicable administrative penalties where the amount of the loan is more than $1,500 or the term of the agreement is more than 62 days.

[47] The Respondents are prohibited from acting as a loan broker of the BLOC without a loan broker's license under the *Act*.

[48] After the hearing counsel advised me by letter that they have agreed on $50,000 as costs to whichever party is successful in the Application. The Respondents shall therefore pay the Applicant costs in the all-inclusive amount of $50,000.

Morgan J.

Released: February 12, 2014

2014 ONSC 980 (CanLII)

CITATION: The Director v. The Cash Store, 2014 ONSC 980
COURT FILE NO.: CV-13-482242
DATE: 20140212

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ONTARIO

SUPERIOR COURT OF JUSTICE

BETWEEN:

The Director designated under the Ministry of Consumer and Business Services Act

Applicant

– and –

The Cash Store Financial Services Inc., The Cash Store Inc., and Instaloans Inc.

Respondents

REASONS FOR JUDGMENT

E.M. Morgan J.

Released: February 12, 2014

TAB 3

Paul Housen *Appellant*

v.

Rural Municipality of Shellbrook No. 493 *Respondent*

INDEXED AS: HOUSEN v. NIKOLAISEN

Neutral citation: 2002 SCC 33.

File No.: 27826.

2001: October 2; 2002: March 28.

Present: McLachlin C.J. and L'Heureux-Dubé, Gonthier, Iacobucci, Major, Bastarache, Binnie, Arbour and LeBel JJ.

ON APPEAL FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL FOR SASKATCHEWAN

Torts — Motor vehicles — Highways — Negligence — Liability of rural municipality for failing to post warning signs on local access road — Passenger sustaining injuries in motor vehicle accident on rural road — Trial judge apportioning part of liability to rural municipality — Whether Court of Appeal properly overturning trial judge's finding of negligence — The Rural Municipality Act, 1989, S.S. 1989-90, c. R-26.1, s. 192.

Municipal law — Negligence — Liability of rural municipality for failing to post warning signs on local access road — Passenger sustaining injuries in motor vehicle accident on rural road — Trial judge apportioning part of liability to rural municipality — Whether Court of Appeal properly overturning trial judge's finding of negligence — The Rural Municipality Act, 1989, S.S. 1989-90, c. R-26.1, s. 192.

Appeals — Courts — Standard of appellate review — Whether Court of Appeal properly overturning trial judge's finding of negligence — Standard of review for questions of mixed fact and law.

The appellant was a passenger in a vehicle operated by N on a rural road in the respondent municipality. N

Paul Housen *Appelant*

c.

Municipalité rurale de Shellbrook nº 493 *Intimée*

RÉPERTORIÉ : HOUSEN c. NIKOLAISEN

Référence neutre : 2002 CSC 33.

Nº du greffe : 27826.

2001 : 2 octobre; 2002 : 28 mars.

Présents : Le juge en chef McLachlin et les juges L'Heureux-Dubé, Gonthier, Iacobucci, Major, Bastarache, Binnie, Arbour et LeBel.

EN APPEL DE LA COUR D'APPEL DE LA SASKATCHEWAN

Délits civils — Véhicules automobiles — Routes — Négligence — Responsabilité d'une municipalité rurale qui omet d'installer des panneaux d'avertissement le long d'une voie d'accès locale — Blessures subies par un passager dans un accident automobile sur une route rurale — Responsabilité imputée en partie à la municipalité rurale par la juge de première instance — La Cour d'appel a-t-elle eu raison d'infirmer la décision de la juge de première instance concluant à la négligence de la municipalité rurale? — The Rural Municipality Act, 1989, S.S. 1989-90, ch. R-26.1, art. 192.

Droit municipal — Négligence — Responsabilité d'une municipalité rurale qui omet d'installer des panneaux d'avertissement le long d'une voie d'accès locale — Blessures subies par un passager dans un accident automobile sur une route rurale — Responsabilité imputée en partie à la municipalité rurale par la juge de première instance — La Cour d'appel a-t-elle eu raison d'infirmer la décision de la juge de première instance concluant à la négligence de la municipalité rurale? — The Rural Municipality Act, 1989, S.S. 1989-90, ch. R-26.1, art. 192.

Appels — Tribunaux judiciaires — Norme de contrôle applicable en appel — La Cour d'appel a-t-elle eu raison d'infirmer la décision de la juge de première instance concluant à la négligence de la municipalité rurale? — Norme de contrôle applicable à l'égard des questions mixtes de fait et de droit.

L'appelant était passager dans le véhicule conduit par N sur une route rurale située sur le territoire de la

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failed to negotiate a sharp curve on the road and lost control of his vehicle. The appellant was rendered a quadriplegic as a result of the injuries he sustained in the accident. Damages were agreed upon prior to trial in the amount of $2.5 million, but at issue were the respective liabilities, if any, of the municipality, N and the appellant. On the day before the accident, N had attended a party at the T residence not far from the scene of the accident. He continued drinking through the night at another party where he met up with the appellant. The two men drove back to the T residence in the morning where N continued drinking until a couple of hours before he and the appellant drove off in N's truck. N was unfamiliar with the road, but had travelled on it three times in the 24 hours preceding the accident, on his way to and from the T residence. Visibility approaching the area of the accident was limited due to the radius of the curve and the uncleared brush growing up to the edge of the road. A light rain was falling as N turned onto the road from the T property. The truck fishtailed a few times before approaching the sharp curve where the accident occurred. Expert testimony revealed that N was travelling at a speed of between 53 and 65 km/hr when the vehicle entered the curved portion of the road, slightly above the speed at which the curve could be safely negotiated under the conditions prevalent at the time of the accident.

The road was maintained by the municipality and was categorized as a non-designated local access road. On such non-designated roads, the municipality makes the decision to post signs if it becomes aware of a hazard, or if there are several accidents at one spot. The municipality had not posted signs on any portion of the road. Between 1978 and 1987, three other accidents were reported in the area to the east of the site of the appellant's accident. The trial judge held that the appellant was 15 percent contributorily negligent in failing to take reasonable precautions for his own safety in accepting a ride from N, and apportioned the remaining joint and several liability 50 percent to N and 35 percent to the municipality. The Court of Appeal overturned the trial judge's finding that the municipality was negligent.

Held (Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie and LeBel JJ. dissenting): The appeal should be allowed and the judgment of the trial judge restored.

municipalité intimée. N a été incapable de prendre un virage serré et il a perdu la maîtrise de son véhicule. L'appelant est devenu quadriplégique à la suite des blessures subies dans l'accident. Les parties ont convenu avant le procès du montant des dommages-intérêts, qui ont été fixés à 2,5 millions de dollars. La question en litige était celle de savoir si la municipalité, N et l'appelant étaient responsables et, dans l'affirmative, dans quelles proportions. Le jour qui a précédé l'accident, N avait assisté à une fête à la résidence des T, non loin de la scène de l'accident. Durant la nuit, il a continué de boire à une autre fête, où il a rencontré l'appelant. Le matin, les deux hommes sont retournés en automobile à la résidence des T, où N a continué de boire, cessant de le faire quelques heures avant de prendre la route dans sa camionnette en compagnie de l'appelant. N n'était pas familier avec le chemin en question, mais il l'avait emprunté à trois reprises au cours des 24 heures qui avaient précédé l'accident pour aller et venir de la résidence des T. À l'approche de l'endroit de l'accident, la distance de visibilité était réduite en raison du rayon de courbure du virage et de la présence de broussailles poussant jusqu'au bord du chemin Une faible pluie tombait lorsque N s'est engagé sur le chemin en quittant la résidence des T. L'arrière de la camionnette a zigzagué à plusieurs reprises avant que le véhicule n'arrive aux abords du virage serré où l'accident est survenu. Selon le témoignage d'un expert, N roulait à une vitesse se situant entre 53 et 65 km/h lorsque le véhicule s'est engagé dans la courbe, soit une vitesse légèrement supérieure à celle à laquelle le virage pouvait être pris en sécurité eu égard aux conditions qui existaient au moment de l'accident.

Le chemin, qui était entretenu par la municipalité, appartenait à la catégorie des voies d'accès locales non désignées. La municipalité installe des panneaux de signalisation sur ces chemins si elle constate l'existence d'un danger ou si plusieurs accidents se produisent au même endroit. Elle n'avait installé aucune signalisation le long de cette portion du chemin. On a signalé trois autres accidents survenus de 1978 à 1987 à l'est du lieu de l'accident dont a été victime l'appelant. La juge de première instance a estimé que l'appelant était responsable de négligence concourante dans une proportion de 15 p. 100, du fait qu'il avait omis de prendre des précautions raisonnables pour assurer sa propre sécurité en acceptant de monter à bord du véhicule de N, et elle a réparti le reste de la responsabilité solidairement entre N (50 p. 100) et la municipalité (35 p. 100). La Cour d'appel a infirmé la conclusion de la juge de première instance selon laquelle la municipalité avait été négligente.

Arrêt (les juges Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie et LeBel sont dissidents) : Le pourvoi est accueilli et la décision de la juge de première instance est rétablie.

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Per McLachlin C.J. and L'Heureux-Dubé, Iacobucci, Major and Arbour JJ.: Since an appeal is not a re-trial of a case, consideration must be given to the standard of review applicable to questions that arise on appeal. The standard of review on pure questions of law is one of correctness, and an appellate court is thus free to replace the opinion of the trial judge with its own. Appellate courts require a broad scope of review with respect to matters of law because their primary role is to delineate and refine legal rules and ensure their universal application.

The standard of review for findings of fact is such that they cannot be reversed unless the trial judge has made a "palpable and overriding error". A palpable error is one that is plainly seen. The reasons for deferring to a trial judge's findings of fact can be grouped into three basic principles. First, given the scarcity of judicial resources, setting limits on the scope of judicial review in turn limits the number, length and cost of appeals. Secondly, the principle of deference promotes the autonomy and integrity of the trial proceedings. Finally, this principle recognizes the expertise of trial judges and their advantageous position to make factual findings, owing to their extensive exposure to the evidence and the benefit of hearing the testimony *viva voce*. The same degree of deference must be paid to inferences of fact, since many of the reasons for showing deference to the factual findings of the trial judge apply equally to all factual conclusions. The standard of review for inferences of fact is not to verify that the inference can reasonably be supported by the findings of fact of the trial judge, but whether the trial judge made a palpable and overriding error in coming to a factual conclusion based on accepted facts, a stricter standard. Making a factual conclusion of any kind is inextricably linked with assigning weight to evidence, and thus attracts a deferential standard of review. If there is no palpable and overriding error with respect to the underlying facts that the trial judge relies on to draw the inference, then it is only where the inference-drawing process itself is palpably in error that an appellate court can interfere with the factual conclusion.

Le juge en chef McLachlin et les juges L'Heureux-Dubé, Iacobucci, Major et Arbour : Étant donné que l'appel ne constitue pas un nouveau procès, il faut se demander quelle est la norme de contrôle applicable en appel à l'égard des diverses questions que soulève le pourvoi. La norme de contrôle applicable aux pures questions de droit est celle de la décision correcte et, en conséquence, il est loisible aux cours d'appel de substituer leur opinion à celle des juges de première instance. Les cours d'appel ont besoin d'un large pouvoir de contrôle à l'égard des questions de droit pour être en mesure de s'acquitter de leur rôle premier, qui consiste à préciser et à raffiner les règles de droit et à veiller à leur application universelle.

Suivant la norme de contrôle applicable aux conclusions de fait, ces conclusions ne peuvent être infirmées que s'il est établi que le juge de première instance a commis une « erreur manifeste et dominante ». Une erreur manifeste est une erreur qui est évidente. Les diverses raisons justifiant la retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait du juge de première instance peuvent être regroupées sous trois principes de base. Premièrement, vu la rareté des ressources dont disposent les tribunaux, le fait de limiter la portée du contrôle judiciaire a pour effet de réduire le nombre, la durée et le coût des appels. Deuxièmement, le respect du principe de la retenue envers les conclusions favorise l'autonomie et l'intégrité du procès. Enfin, ce principe permet de reconnaître l'expertise du juge de première instance et la position avantageuse dans laquelle il se trouve pour tirer des conclusions de fait, étant donné qu'il a l'occasion d'examiner la preuve en profondeur et d'entendre les témoignages de vive voix. Il faut faire preuve du même degré de retenue envers les inférences de fait, car nombre de raisons justifiant de faire preuve de retenue à l'égard des constatations de fait du juge de première instance valent autant pour toutes ses conclusions factuelles. La norme de contrôle ne consiste pas à vérifier si l'inférence peut être raisonnablement étayée par les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance, mais plutôt si ce dernier a commis une erreur manifeste et dominante en tirant une conclusion factuelle sur la base de faits admis, ce qui suppose l'application d'une norme plus stricte. Une conclusion factuelle — quelle que soit sa nature — exige nécessairement qu'on attribue un certain poids à un élément de preuve et, de ce fait, commande l'application d'une norme de contrôle empreinte de retenue. Si aucune erreur manifeste et dominante n'est décelée en ce qui concerne les faits sur lesquels repose l'inférence du juge de première instance, ce n'est que lorsque le processus inférentiel lui-même est manifestement erroné que la cour d'appel peut modifier la conclusion factuelle.

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Questions of mixed fact and law involve the application of a legal standard to a set of facts. Where the question of mixed fact and law at issue is a finding of negligence, it should be deferred to by appellate courts, in the absence of a legal or palpable and overriding error. Requiring a standard of "palpable and overriding error" for findings of negligence made by either a trial judge or a jury reinforces the proper relationship between the appellate and trial court levels and accords with the established standard of review applicable to a finding of negligence by a jury. Where the issue on appeal involves the trial judge's interpretation of the evidence as a whole, it should not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error. A determination of whether or not the standard of care was met by the defendant involves the application of a legal standard to a set of facts, a question of mixed fact and law, and is thus subject to a standard of palpable and overriding error, unless it is clear that the trial judge made some extricable error in principle with respect to the characterization of the standard or its application, in which case the error may amount to an error of law, subject to a standard of correctness.

Les questions mixtes de fait et de droit supposent l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits. Lorsque la question mixte de fait et de droit en litige est une conclusion de négligence, il y a lieu de faire preuve de retenue à l'égard de cette conclusion en l'absence d'erreur de droit ou d'erreur manifeste et dominante. Le fait d'exiger l'application de la norme de l'« erreur manifeste et dominante » aux fins de contrôle d'une conclusion de négligence tirée par un juge ou un jury consolide les rapports qui doivent exister entre les juridictions d'appel et celles de première instance et respecte la norme de contrôle bien établie qui s'applique aux conclusions de négligence tirées par les jurys. Si la question litigieuse en appel soulève l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve par le juge de première instance, cette interprétation ne doit pas être infirmée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante. La question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté la norme de diligence suppose l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits, ce qui en fait une question mixte de fait et de droit. Cette question est alors assujettie à la norme de l'erreur manifeste et dominante, à moins que le juge de première instance n'ait clairement commis une erreur de principe en déterminant la norme applicable ou en appliquant cette norme, auquel cas l'erreur peut constituer une erreur de droit, qui est assujettie à la norme de la décision correcte.

Here, the municipality's standard of care was to maintain the road in such a reasonable state of repair that those requiring to use it could, exercising ordinary care, travel upon it with safety. The trial judge applied the correct test in determining that the municipality did not meet this standard of care, and her decision should not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error. The trial judge kept the conduct of the ordinary motorist in mind because she stated the correct test at the outset, and discussed implicitly and explicitly the conduct of a reasonable motorist approaching the curve. Further, her apportionment of negligence indicates that she assessed N's conduct against the standard of the ordinary driver as does her use of the term "hidden hazard" and her consideration of the speed at which motorists should have approached the curve.

En l'espèce, la norme de diligence à laquelle devait se conformer la municipalité consistait à tenir le chemin dans un état raisonnable d'entretien, de façon que ceux qui devaient l'emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité. La juge de première instance a appliqué le bon critère juridique en concluant que la municipalité n'avait pas respecté cette norme et sa décision ne devrait pas être infirmée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante. La juge de première instance a eu à l'esprit la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen puisqu'elle a commencé son examen de la norme de diligence en formulant dès le départ le critère approprié, puis elle s'est interrogée, tant explicitement qu'implicitement, sur la façon dont conduirait l'automobiliste raisonnable en s'approchant du virage. De plus, le fait qu'elle a imputé une partie de la responsabilité à N indique qu'elle a évalué sa conduite au regard du critère du conducteur moyen, tout comme l'indique le fait qu'elle a utilisé l'expression « danger caché » et qu'elle s'est demandé à quelle vitesse les automobilistes auraient dû approcher du virage.

The Court of Appeal's finding of a palpable and overriding error by the trial judge was based on the erroneous presumption that she accepted 80km/h as the speed at which an ordinary motorist would approach the curve, when in fact she found that a motorist exercising

La conclusion de la Cour d'appel portant que la juge de première instance avait commis une erreur manifeste et dominante reposait sur la présomption erronée selon laquelle la juge aurait accepté que l'automobiliste moyen approcherait du virage à 80 km/h, alors que dans les faits

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ordinary care could approach the curve at greater than the speed at which it would be safe to negotiate it. This finding was based on the trial judge's reasonable and practical assessment of the evidence as a whole, and is far from reaching the level of palpable and overriding error.

elle a estimé qu'il était possible qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales s'approche du virage à une vitesse supérieure à la vitesse sécuritaire pour effectuer la manœuvre. Loin de constituer une erreur manifeste et dominante, cette conclusion découlait d'une évaluation raisonnable et réaliste de l'ensemble de la preuve par la juge de première instance.

The trial judge did not err in finding that the municipality knew or ought to have known of the disrepair of the road. Because the hazard in this case was a permanent feature of the road, it was open to the trial judge to draw the inference that a prudent municipal councillor ought to be aware of it. Once this inference has been drawn, then unless the municipality can rebut the inference by showing that it took reasonable steps to prevent such a hazard from continuing, the inference will be left undisturbed. Prior accidents on the road do not provide a direct basis for finding that the municipality had knowledge of the particular hazard, but this factor, together with knowledge of the type of drivers using this road, should have caused the municipality to investigate the road which would have resulted in actual knowledge. To require the plaintiff to provide concrete proof of the municipality's knowledge of the state of disrepair of its roads is to set an impossibly high burden on the plaintiff. Such information was within the particular sphere of knowledge of the municipality, and it was reasonable for the trial judge to draw an inference of knowledge from her finding that there was an ongoing state of disrepair.

La juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur en concluant que la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin. Étant donné que, en l'espèce, le danger était une caractéristique permanente du chemin, il était loisible à la juge de première instance d'inférer que le conseiller municipal prudent aurait dû être au fait du danger. Dès l'instant où une telle inférence est tirée, elle demeure inchangée à moins que la municipalité ne puisse la réfuter en démontrant qu'elle a pris des mesures raisonnables pour faire cesser le danger. Les accidents survenus antérieurement sur le chemin ne constituent pas une preuve directe permettant de conclure que la municipalité connaissait l'existence du danger particulier en cause, mais ce facteur, conjugué à la connaissance du type de conducteurs utilisant le chemin, aurait dû inciter la municipalité à faire enquête à l'égard du chemin en question, ce qui lui aurait permis de prendre connaissance concrètement de l'existence du danger. Exiger du demandeur qu'il apporte la preuve concrète de la connaissance par la municipalité du mauvais état d'entretien de ses chemins revient à imposer à ce dernier un fardeau inacceptablement lourd. Il s'agit d'information relevant du domaine de connaissance de la municipalité et, selon nous, il était raisonnable que la juge de première instance infère de sa conclusion relative au mauvais état d'entretien persistant du chemin que la municipalité possédait la connaissance requise.

The trial judge's conclusion on the cause of the accident was a finding of fact subject to the palpable and overriding error standard of review. The abstract nature of the inquiry as to whether N would have seen a sign had one been posted before the curve supports deference to the factual findings of the trial judge. The trial judge's factual findings on causation were reasonable and thus should not have been interfered with by the Court of Appeal.

La conclusion de la juge de première instance quant à la cause de l'accident était une conclusion de fait assujettie à la norme de contrôle de l'« erreur manifeste et dominante ». Le caractère théorique de l'analyse de la question de savoir si N aurait aperçu un panneau de signalisation installé avant la courbe justifie de faire montre de retenue à l'égard des conclusions factuelles de la juge de première instance. Les constatations factuelles de cette dernière relativement à la causalité étaient raisonnables et la Cour d'appel n'aurait donc pas dû les modifier.

Per Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie and LeBel JJ. (dissenting): A trial judge's findings of fact will not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error principally in recognition that only the trial judge observes witnesses and hears testimony first hand and is therefore better able to choose between competing versions of events. The process of fact-finding involves

Les juges Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie et LeBel (dissidents) : Les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance ne sont pas modifiées en l'absence d'erreur manifeste ou dominante, principalement parce qu'il est le seul à avoir l'occasion d'observer les témoins et d'entendre les témoignages de vive voix, et qu'il est, de ce fait, plus à même de choisir entre deux versions

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not only the determination of the factual nexus of the case but also requires the judge to draw inferences from facts. Although the standard of review is identical for both findings of fact and inferences of fact, an analytical distinction must be drawn between the two. Inferences can be rejected for reasons other than that the inference-drawing process is deficient. An inference can be clearly wrong where the factual basis upon which it relies is deficient or where the legal standard to which the facts are applied is misconstrued. The question of whether the conduct of the defendant has met the appropriate standard of care in the law of negligence is a question of mixed fact and law. Once the facts have been established, the determination of whether or not the standard of care was met will in most cases be reviewable on a standard of correctness since the trial judge must appreciate the facts within the context of the appropriate standard of care, a question of law within the purview of both the trial and appellate courts.

A question of mixed fact and law in this case was whether the municipality knew or should have known of the alleged danger. The trial judge must approach this question having regard to the duties of the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor. Even if the trial judge correctly identifies this as the applicable legal standard, he or she may still err in assessing the facts through the lens of that legal standard, a process which invokes a policy-making component. For example, the trial judge must consider whether the fact that accidents had previously occurred on different portions of the road would alert the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor to the existence of a hazard. The trial judge must also consider whether the councillor would have been alerted to the previous accident by an accident-reporting system, a normative issue reviewable on a standard of correctness. Not all matters of mixed fact and law are reviewable according to the standard of correctness, but neither should they be accorded deference in every case.

Section 192 of the *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, requires the trial judge to examine whether the portion of the road on which the accident occurred posed a hazard to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. Here, the trial judge failed to ask whether a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have been able to safely drive the portion of the road on which the accident

divergentes d'un même événement. Le processus de constatation des faits exige non seulement du juge qu'il dégage le nœud factuel de l'affaire, mais également qu'il tire des inférences des faits. Bien que la norme de contrôle soit la même et pour les conclusions de fait et pour les inférences de fait, il importe néanmoins de faire une distinction analytique entre les deux. Des inférences peuvent être rejetées pour d'autres raisons que le fait que le processus qui les a produites est lui-même déficient. Une inférence peut être manifestement erronée si ses assises factuelles présentent des lacunes ou si la norme juridique appliquée aux faits est mal interprétée. Dans le contexte du droit relatif à la négligence, la question de savoir si la conduite du défendeur est conforme à la norme de diligence appropriée est une question mixte de fait et de droit. Une fois les faits établis, la décision touchant la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté ou non la norme de diligence est, dans la plupart des cas, contrôlable selon la norme de la décision correcte, puisque le juge de première instance doit apprécier les faits au regard de la norme de diligence appropriée, question de droit qui relève autant des cours de première instance que des cours d'appel.

En l'espèce, la question de savoir si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le danger dont on alléguait l'existence était une question mixte de fait et de droit. Le juge de première instance doit examiner cette question eu égard aux obligations qui incombent au conseiller municipal moyen, raisonnable et prudent. Même en supposant que le juge de première instance détermine correctement la norme juridique applicable, il lui est encore possible de commettre une erreur lorsqu'il apprécie les faits à la lumière de cette norme juridique, processus qui implique notamment l'établissement de politiques d'intérêt général. Par exemple, il doit se demander si le fait que des accidents se soient déjà produits à d'autres endroits du chemin alerterait le conseiller municipal moyen, raisonnable et prudent de l'existence d'un danger. Il doit également se demander si ce conseiller aurait appris l'existence de l'accident antérieur par un système d'information sur les accidents, question normative qui est contrôlable selon la norme de la décision correcte. Les questions mixtes de fait et de droit ne sont pas toutes contrôlables suivant cette norme, mais elles ne commandent pas systématiquement une attitude empreinte de retenue.

Suivant la norme de diligence énoncée à l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, la juge de première instance devait se demander si le tronçon du chemin sur lequel s'est produit l'accident constituait un danger pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. En l'espèce, la juge de première instance a omis de se demander si un tel conducteur aurait pu rouler

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occurred. This amounted to an error of law. The duty of the municipality is to keep the road in such a reasonable state of repair that those required to use it may, exercising ordinary care, travel upon it with safety. The duty is a limited one as the municipality is not an insurer of travellers using its streets. Although the trial judge found that the portion of the road where the accident occurred presented drivers with a hidden hazard, there is nothing to indicate that she considered whether or not that portion of the road would pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. Where an error of law has been found, the appellate court has jurisdiction to take the factual findings of the trial judge as they are and to reassess these findings in the context of the appropriate legal test. Here, the portion of the road on which the accident occurred did not pose a risk to a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care because the condition of the road in general signalled to the reasonable driver that caution was needed.

en sécurité sur le tronçon en question. Il s'agissait d'une erreur de droit. Les municipalités ont l'obligation de tenir les chemins dans un état raisonnable d'entretien de façon que ceux qui doivent les emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité. Il s'agit d'une obligation de portée limitée, car les municipalités ne sont pas les assureurs des automobilistes qui roulent dans leurs rues. Bien que la juge de première instance ait conclu que la portion du chemin où s'est produit l'accident exposait les conducteurs à un danger caché, il n'y a rien qui indique qu'elle s'est demandé si cette portion du chemin présentait un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. La cour d'appel qui décèle une erreur de droit a compétence pour reprendre telles quelles les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance et les réévaluer au regard du critère juridique approprié. En l'espèce, la portion du chemin où s'est produit l'accident ne présentait pas de risque pour un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales, car l'état de ce chemin en général avertissait l'automobiliste raisonnable que la prudence s'imposait.

The trial judge made both errors of law and palpable and overriding errors of fact in determining that the municipality should have known of the alleged state of disrepair. She made no finding that the municipality had actual knowledge of the alleged state of disrepair, but rather imputed knowledge to it on the basis that it should have known of the danger. As a matter of law, the trial judge must approach the question of whether knowledge should be imputed to the municipality with regard to the duties of the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor. The question is then answered through the trial judge's assessment of the facts of the case. The trial judge erred in law by approaching the question of knowledge from the perspective of an expert rather than from that of a prudent municipal councillor and by failing to appreciate that the onus of proving that the municipality knew or should have known of the disrepair remained on the plaintiff throughout. She made palpable and overriding errors in fact by drawing the unreasonable inference that the municipality should have known that the portion of the road on which the accident occurred was dangerous from evidence that accidents had occurred on other parts of the road. As the municipality had not received any complaints from motorists respecting the absence of signs on the road, the lack of super-elevation on the curves, or the presence of vegetation along the sides of the road, it had no particular reason to inspect that segment of the road for the presence of hazards. The question of the municipality's knowledge is inextricably linked to the standard of care. A municipality can only be expected to have knowledge of those hazards which pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care, since these are the only hazards for which there is

La juge de première instance a commis et des erreurs de droit et des erreurs de fait manifestes et dominantes en statuant que la municipalité intimée aurait dû connaître le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétendait-on, le chemin. La juge de première instance n'a pas conclu que la municipalité intimée connaissait concrètement le prétendu mauvais état du chemin, mais elle lui a plutôt prêté cette connaissance pour le motif qu'elle aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger. Sur le plan juridique, le juge de première instance doit se demander s'il y a lieu de présumer que la municipalité connaissait ce fait, eu égard aux obligations qui incombent au conseiller municipal moyen, raisonnable et prudent. Il répond ensuite à cette question en appréciant les faits de l'espèce dont il est saisi. Dans la présente affaire, la juge de première instance a fait erreur en droit en examinant la question de la connaissance requise du point de vue du spécialiste plutôt que du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent et en ne reconnaissant pas que le fardeau de prouver que la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin ne cessait jamais d'incomber au demandeur. La juge de première instance a commis une erreur de fait manifeste et dominante en inférant déraisonnablement que la municipalité intimée aurait dû savoir que la partie du chemin où l'accident s'est produit était dangereuse, compte tenu de la preuve que des accidents avaient eu lieu ailleurs sur ce chemin. La municipalité n'avait aucune raison particulière d'aller inspecter cette portion du chemin pour voir s'il y existait des dangers, puisqu'elle n'avait reçu aucune plainte d'automobilistes relativement à l'absence de signalisation, à l'absence de surélévation des courbes ou à la présence d'arbres et de végétation en bordure du

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a duty to repair. Here, the municipality cannot have been expected to have knowledge of the hazard that existed at the site of the accident, since the hazard did not pose a risk to the reasonable driver. Implicit in the trial judge's reasons was the expectation that the municipality should have known about the accidents through an accident reporting system, a palpable error, absent any evidence of what might have been a reasonable system.

chemin. La question de la connaissance de l'intimée est intimement liée à celle de la norme de diligence. Une municipalité est uniquement censée avoir connaissance des dangers qui présentent un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales, puisqu'il s'agit des seuls dangers à l'égard desquels existe une obligation d'entretien. En l'espèce, on ne pouvait attendre de l'intimée qu'elle connaisse le danger qui existait à l'endroit où l'accident est survenu, puisque ce danger ne présentait tout simplement pas de risque pour le conducteur raisonnable. Il ressort implicitement des motifs de la juge de première instance que la municipalité aurait censément dû connaître l'existence des accidents grâce à un système d'information en la matière, erreur manifeste en l'absence de quelque élément de preuve indiquant ce qui aurait pu constituer un système raisonnable.

With respect to her conclusions on causation, which are conclusions on matters of fact, the trial judge ignored evidence that N had swerved on the first curve he negotiated prior to the accident, and that he had driven on the road three times in the 18 to 20 hours preceding the accident. She further ignored the significance of the testimony of the forensic alcohol specialist which pointed overwhelmingly to alcohol as the causal factor which led to the accident, and erroneously relied on one statement by him to support her conclusion that a driver at N's level of impairment would have reacted to a warning sign. The finding that the outcome would have been different had N been forewarned of the curve ignores the fact that he already knew the curve was there. The fact that the trial judge referred to some evidence to support her findings on causation does not insulate them from review by this Court. An appellate court is entitled to assess whether or not it was clearly wrong for the trial judge to rely on some evidence when other evidence points overwhelmingly to the opposite conclusion.

Relativement aux conclusions de la juge de première instance sur le lien de causalité, qui sont des conclusions de fait, celle-ci a fait abstraction de la preuve que le véhicule de N avait fait une embardée dans la première courbe et que ce dernier avait roulé à trois reprises sur le chemin en question au cours des 18 à 20 heures ayant précédé l'accident. La juge de première instance a également omis de tenir compte de l'importance du témoignage du spécialiste judiciaire en matière d'alcool, qui menait irrésistiblement à la conclusion que l'alcool avait été le facteur causal de l'accident, et elle a erronément invoqué une déclaration de celui-ci au soutien de sa conclusion que N aurait réagi à un panneau de signalisation. La conclusion que le résultat aurait été différent si N avait été prévenu de l'existence de la courbe ne tient pas compte du fait qu'il savait déjà qu'elle existait. Le fait que la juge de première instance ait mentionné certains éléments de preuve au soutien de ses conclusions sur le lien de causalité n'a pas pour effet de soustraire ces conclusions au pouvoir de contrôle de notre Cour. Le tribunal d'appel est habilité à se demander si le juge de première instance a clairement fait erreur en décidant comme il l'a fait sur le fondement de certains éléments de preuve alors que d'autres éléments mènent irrésistiblement à la conclusion inverse.

Whatever the approach to the issue of the duty of care, it is only reasonable to expect a municipality to foresee accidents which occur as a result of the conditions of the road, and not, as in this case, as a result of the condition of the driver. To expand the repair obligation of municipalities to require them to take into account the actions of unreasonable or careless drivers when discharging this duty would signify a drastic and unworkable change to the current standard.

Indépendamment de l'approche choisie à l'égard de la question de l'obligation de diligence, il n'est que raisonnable d'attendre d'une municipalité qu'elle prévoit les accidents qui surviennent en raison de l'état du chemin, et non, comme en l'espèce, ceux qui résultent de l'état du conducteur. Élargir l'obligation d'entretien des municipalités en exigeant qu'elles tiennent compte, dans l'exécution de cette obligation, des actes des conducteurs déraisonnables ou imprudents, entraînerait une modification radicale et irréalisable de la norme actuelle.

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Gary D. Young, Q.C., *Denis I. Quon* and *M. Kim Anderson*, for the appellant.

Michael Morris and *G. L. Gerrand, Q.C.*, for the respondent.

The judgment of McLachlin C.J. and L'Heureux-Dubé, Iacobucci, Major and Arbour JJ. was delivered by

IACOBUCCI AND MAJOR JJ. —

I. Introduction

1 A proposition that should be unnecessary to state is that a court of appeal should not interfere with a trial judge's reasons unless there is a palpable and overriding error. The same proposition is sometimes stated as prohibiting an appellate court from reviewing a trial judge's decision if there was some evidence upon which he or she could have relied to reach that conclusion.

2 Authority for this abounds particularly in appellate courts in Canada and abroad (see *Gottardo Properties (Dome) Inc. v. Toronto (City)* (1998), 162 D.L.R. (4th) 574 (Ont. C.A.); *Schwartz v. Canada*, [1996] 1 S.C.R. 254; *Toneguzzo-Norvell (Guardian ad litem of) v. Burnaby Hospital*, [1994] 1 S.C.R. 114; *Van de Perre v. Edwards*, [2001] 2 S.C.R. 1014, 2001 SCC 60). In addition scholars, national and international, endorse it (see C. A. Wright in "The Doubtful Omniscience of Appellate Courts" (1957), 41 *Minn. L. Rev.* 751, at p. 780; and the Honourable R. P. Kerans in *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994); and American Bar Association, Judicial Administration Division, *Standards Relating to Appellate Courts* (1995), at pp. 24-25).

3 The role of the appellate court was aptly defined in *Underwood v. Ocean City Realty Ltd.* (1987), 12 B.C.L.R. (2d) 199 (C.A.), at p. 204, where it was stated:

> The appellate court must not retry a case and must not substitute its views for the views of the trial judge according to what the appellate court thinks the evidence establishes on its view of the balance of probabilities.

Gary D. Young, c.r., *Denis I. Quon* et *M. Kim Anderson*, pour l'appelant.

Michael Morris et *G. L. Gerrand, c.r.*, pour l'intimée.

Version française du jugement du juge en chef McLachlin et des juges L'Heureux-Dubé, Iacobucci, Major et Arbour rendu par

LES JUGES IACOBUCCI ET MAJOR —

I. Introduction

Il va sans dire qu'une cour d'appel ne devrait modifier les conclusions d'un juge de première instance qu'en cas d'erreur manifeste et dominante. On reformule parfois cette proposition en disant qu'une cour d'appel ne peut réviser la décision du juge de première instance dans les cas où il existait des éléments de preuve qui pouvaient étayer cette décision.

Il existe une abondante jurisprudence étayant cette proposition, particulièrement des décisions émanant de cours d'appel, tant au Canada qu'à l'étranger (voir *Gottardo Properties (Dome) Inc. c. Toronto (City)* (1998), 162 D.L.R. (4th) 574 (C.A. Ont.); *Schwartz c. Canada*, [1996] 1 R.C.S. 254; *Toneguzzo-Norvell (Tutrice à l'instance de) c. Burnaby Hospital*, [1994] 1 R.C.S. 114; *Van de Perre c. Edwards*, [2001] 2 R.C.S. 1014, 2001 CSC 60). En outre, des auteurs, tant à l'échelle nationale qu'internationale, y souscrivent (voir C. A. Wright, « The Doubtful Omniscience of Appellate Courts » (1957), 41 *Minn. L. Rev.* 751, p. 780; l'honorable R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994); et American Bar Association, Judicial Administration Division, *Standards Relating to Appellate Courts* (1995), p. 24-25).

Le rôle des tribunaux d'appel a été défini de manière judicieuse dans l'arrêt *Underwood c. Ocean City Realty Ltd.* (1987), 12 B.C.L.R. (2d) 199 (C.A.), p. 204, où la cour a dit ceci :

> [TRADUCTION] La cour d'appel ne doit pas juger l'affaire de nouveau, ni substituer son opinion à celle du juge de première instance en fonction de ce qu'elle pense que la preuve démontre, selon son opinion de la prépondérance des probabilités.

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4 While the theory has acceptance, consistency in its application is missing. The foundation of the principle is as sound today as 100 years ago. It is premised on the notion that finality is an important aim of litigation. There is no suggestion that appellate court judges are somehow smarter and thus capable of reaching a better result. Their role is not to write better judgments but to review the reasons in light of the arguments of the parties and the relevant evidence, and then to uphold the decision unless a palpable error leading to a wrong result has been made by the trial judge.

Quoique cette théorie soit généralement acceptée, elle n'est pas appliquée de manière systématique. Le fondement de cette théorie est aussi valide aujourd'hui qu'il l'était il y a 100 ans. Cette théorie repose sur l'idée que le caractère définitif des déci sions est un aspect important du processus judiciaire. Personne ne prétend que les juges des cours d'appel seraient, d'une manière ou d'une autre, plus intelligents que les autres et donc capables d'arriver à un meilleur résultat. Leur rôle n'est pas de rédiger de meilleurs jugements, mais de contrôler les motifs à la lumière des arguments des parties et de la preuve pertinente, puis de confirmer la décision à moins que le juge de première instance n'ait commis une erreur manifeste ayant conduit à un résultat erroné.

5 What is palpable error? The *New Oxford Dictionary of English* (1998) defines "palpable" as "clear to the mind or plain to see" (p. 1337). The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (1996) describes it as "so obvious that it can easily be seen or known" (p. 1020). The *Random House Dictionary of the English Language* (2nd ed. 1987) defines it as "readily or plainly seen" (p. 1399).

Qu'est-ce qu'une erreur manifeste? Le *Trésor de la langue française* (1985) définit ainsi le mot « manifeste » : « . . . Qui est tout à fait évident, qui ne peut être contesté dans sa nature ou son existence. [. . .] *erreur manifeste* » (p. 317). *Le Grand Robert de la langue française* (2e éd. 2001) définit ce mot ainsi : « Dont l'existence ou la nature est évidente. [. . .] Qui est clairement, évidemment tel. [. . .] *Erreur, injustice manifeste* » (p. 1139). Enfin, le *Grand Larousse de la langue française* (1975) donne la définition suivante de « manifeste » : « . . . Se dit d'une chose que l'on ne peut contester, qui est tout à fait évidente : *Une erreur manifeste* » (p. 3213).

6 The common element in each of these definitions is that palpable is plainly seen. Applying that to this appeal, in order for the Saskatchewan Court of Appeal to reverse the trial judge the "palpable and overriding" error of fact found by Cameron J.A. must be plainly seen. As we will discuss, we do not think that test has been met.

L'élément commun de ces définitions est qu'une chose « manifeste » est une chose qui est « évidente ». Si l'on applique ce critère au présent pourvoi, il faut que l'« erreur manifeste et dominante » décelée par le juge Cameron soit évidente pour que la Cour d'appel de la Saskatchewan puisse infirmer la décision de la juge de première instance. Comme nous le verrons plus loin, nous ne croyons pas qu'on a satisfait à ce critère en l'espèce.

II. The Role of the Appellate Court in the Case at Bar

II. Le rôle de la Cour d'appel en l'espèce

7 Given that an appeal is not a retrial of a case, consideration must be given to the applicable standard of review of an appellate court on the various issues which arise on this appeal. We therefore find it helpful to discuss briefly the standards of review relevant

Étant donné que l'appel ne constitue pas un nouveau procès, il faut se demander quelle est la norme de contrôle applicable en appel à l'égard des diverses questions que soulève le présent pourvoi. Nous estimons donc utile d'examiner brièvement

to the following types of questions: (1) questions of law; (2) questions of fact; (3) inferences of fact; and (4) questions of mixed fact and law.

les normes de contrôle se rapportant à chacune des catégories de questions suivantes : (1) les questions de droit; (2) les questions de fait; (3) les inférences de fait; (4) les questions mixtes de fait et de droit.

A. *Standard of Review for Questions of Law*

A. *La norme de contrôle applicable aux questions de droit*

On a pure question of law, the basic rule with respect to the review of a trial judge's findings is that an appellate court is free to replace the opinion of the trial judge with its own. Thus the standard of review on a question of law is that of correctness: Kerans, *supra*, at p. 90.

8 Dans le cas des pures questions de droit, la règle fondamentale applicable en matière de contrôle des conclusions du juge de première instance est que les cours d'appel ont toute latitude pour substituer leur opinion à celle des juges de première instance. La norme de contrôle applicable à une question de droit est donc celle de la décision correcte : Kerans, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

There are at least two underlying reasons for employing a correctness standard to matters of law. First, the principle of universality requires appellate courts to ensure that the same legal rules are applied in similar situations. The importance of this principle was recognized by this Court in *Woods Manufacturing Co. v. The King*, [1951] S.C.R. 504, at p. 515:

> It is fundamental to the due administration of justice that the authority of decisions be scrupulously respected by all courts upon which they are binding. Without this uniform and consistent adherence the administration of justice becomes disordered, the law becomes uncertain, and the confidence of the public in it undermined. Nothing is more important than that the law as pronounced . . . should be accepted and applied as our tradition requires; and even at the risk of that fallibility to which all judges are liable, we must maintain the complete integrity of relationship between the courts.

A second and related reason for applying a correctness standard to matters of law is the recognized law-making role of appellate courts which is pointed out by Kerans, *supra*, at p. 5:

> The call for universality, and the law-settling role it imposes, makes a considerable demand on a reviewing court. It expects from that authority a measure of expertise about the art of just and practical rule-making, an expertise that is not so critical for the first court. Reviewing courts, in cases where the law requires settlement, make law for future cases as well as the case under review.

9 Au moins deux raisons justifient l'application de la norme de la décision correcte aux questions de droit. Premièrement, le principe de l'universalité impose aux cours d'appel le devoir de veiller à ce que les mêmes règles de droit soient appliquées dans des situations similaires. Notre Cour a reconnu l'importance de ce principe dans *Woods Manufacturing Co. c. The King*, [1951] R.C.S. 504, p. 515 :

> [TRADUCTION] Il est fondamental, pour assurer la bonne administration de la justice, que l'autorité des décisions soit scrupuleusement respectée par tous les tribunaux qui sont liées par elles. Sans cette adhésion générale et constante, l'administration de la justice sera désordonnée, le droit deviendra incertain et la confiance dans celui-ci sera ébranlée. Il importe plus que tout que le droit, tel qu'il a été énoncé, [. . .] soit accepté et appliqué comme l'exige notre tradition; et même au risque de nous tromper, tous les juges étant faillibles, nous devons préserver totalement l'intégrité des rapports entre les tribunaux.

Une deuxième raison, connexe, d'appliquer la norme de la décision correcte aux questions de droit tient au rôle qu'on reconnaît aux cours d'appel en matière de création du droit et qu'a souligné Kerans, *op. cit.*, p. 5 :

> [TRADUCTION] Le principe de l'universalité — et le rôle de création du droit qu'il emporte — exige beaucoup du tribunal de révision. Il exige de ce tribunal qu'il fasse preuve d'un certain degré d'expertise dans l'art d'élaborer une règle de droit juste et pratique, expertise qui ne revêt pas une importance aussi cruciale pour le premier tribunal. Dans les affaires où le droit n'est pas fixé, le tribunal de révision élabore des règles de droit applicables tout autant à d'éventuelles affaires qu'à celle dont il est saisi.

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Thus, while the primary role of trial courts is to resolve individual disputes based on the facts before them and settled law, the primary role of appellate courts is to delineate and refine legal rules and ensure their universal application. In order to fulfill the above functions, appellate courts require a broad scope of review with respect to matters of law.

Ainsi, alors que le rôle premier des tribunaux de première instance consiste à résoudre des litiges sur la base des faits dont ils disposent et du droit établi, celui des cours d'appel est de préciser et de raffiner les règles de droit et de veiller à leur application universelle. Pour s'acquitter de ces rôles, les cours d'appel ont besoin d'un large pouvoir de contrôle à l'égard des questions de droit.

B. *Standard of Review for Findings of Fact*

B. *La norme de contrôle applicable aux questions de fait*

10 The standard of review for findings of fact is that such findings are not to be reversed unless it can be established that the trial judge made a "palpable and overriding error": *Stein v. The Ship "Kathy K"*, [1976] 2 S.C.R. 802, at p. 808; *Ingles v. Tutkaluk Construction Ltd.*, [2000] 1 S.C.R. 298, 2000 SCC 12, at para. 42; *Ryan v. Victoria (City)*, [1999] 1 S.C.R. 201, at para. 57. While this standard is often cited, the principles underlying this high degree of deference rarely receive mention. We find it useful, for the purposes of this appeal, to review briefly the various policy reasons for employing a high level of appellate deference to findings of fact.

Suivant la norme de contrôle applicable aux conclusions de fait, ces conclusions ne peuvent être infirmées que s'il est établi que le juge de première instance a commis une « erreur manifeste et dominante » : *Stein c. Le navire « Kathy K »*, [1976] 2 R.C.S. 802, p. 808; *Ingles c. Tutkaluk Construction Ltd.*, [2000] 1 R.C.S. 298, 2000 CSC 12, par. 42; *Ryan c. Victoria (Ville)*, [1999] 1 R.C.S. 201, par. 57. On cite souvent cette norme, mais rarement les principes justifiant ce degré élevé de retenue. Pour les besoins du présent pourvoi, nous estimons qu'il est utile d'examiner brièvement les diverses considérations de principe qui incitent les cours d'appel à faire preuve d'un degré élevé de retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait.

11 A fundamental reason for general deference to the trial judge is the presumption of fitness — a presumption that trial judges are just as competent as appellate judges to ensure that disputes are resolved justly. Kerans, *supra*, at pp. 10-11, states that:

> If we have confidence in these systems for the resolution of disputes, we should assume that those decisions are just. The appeal process is part of the decisional process, then, only because we recognize that, despite all effort, errors occur. An appeal should be the exception rather than the rule, as indeed it is in Canada.

L'une des raisons fondamentales de cette retenue générale à l'égard des conclusions des juges de première instance tient à la présomption d'aptitude à juger — présomption selon laquelle les juges de première instance sont tout aussi aptes que les juges d'appel à apporter des solutions justes aux litiges. Kerans, *op. cit.*, dit ceci aux p. 10-11 :

> [TRADUCTION] Si nous nous fions à ces systèmes pour régler les différends, il nous faut présumer que les décisions qu'ils produisent sont justes. La procédure d'appel ne fait en conséquence partie du processus décisionnel que parce que nous reconnaissons que, malgré tous les efforts déployés, des erreurs se produisent. L'appel devrait être l'exception plutôt que la règle, ce qui est d'ailleurs le cas au Canada.

12 With respect to findings of fact in particular, in *Gottardo Properties*, *supra*, Laskin J.A. summarized the purposes underlying a deferential stance as follows (at para. 48):

Pour ce qui est des conclusions de fait en particulier, dans *Gottardo Properties*, précité, le juge Laskin de la Cour d'appel de l'Ontario a résumé ainsi les objectifs qui sous-tendent le principe de la retenue judiciaire (au par. 48) :

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Deference is desirable for several reasons: to limit the number and length of appeals, to promote the autonomy and integrity of the trial or motion court proceedings on which substantial resources have been expended, to preserve the confidence of litigants in those proceedings, to recognize the competence of the trial judge or motion judge and to reduce needless duplication of judicial effort with no corresponding improvement in the quality of justice.

Similar concerns were expressed by La Forest J. in *Schwartz, supra*, at para. 32:

It has long been settled that appellate courts must treat a trial judge's findings of fact with great deference. The rule is principally based on the assumption that the trier of fact is in a privileged position to assess the credibility of witnesses' testimony at trial. . . . Others have also pointed out additional judicial policy concerns to justify the rule. Unlimited intervention by appellate courts would greatly increase the number and the length of appeals generally. Substantial resources are allocated to trial courts to go through the process of assessing facts. The autonomy and integrity of the trial process must be preserved by exercising deference towards the trial courts' findings of fact; see R. D. Gibbens, "Appellate Review of Findings of Fact" (1992), 13 *Adv. Q.* 445, at pp. 445-48; *Fletcher v. Manitoba Public Insurance Co.*, [1990] 3 S.C.R. 191, at p. 204.

See also in the context of patent litigation, *Consolboard Inc. v. MacMillan Bloedel (Saskatchewan) Ltd.*, [1981] 1 S.C.R. 504, at p. 537.

In *Anderson v. Bessemer City*, 470 U.S. 564 (1985), at pp. 574-75, the United States Supreme Court also listed numerous reasons for deferring to the factual findings of the trial judge:

The rationale for deference to the original finder of fact is not limited to the superiority of the trial judge's position to make determinations of credibility. The trial judge's major role is the determination of fact, and with experience in fulfilling that role comes expertise. Duplication of the trial judge's efforts in the court of appeals would very likely contribute only negligibly to the accuracy of fact determination at a huge cost in diversion of judicial resources. In addition, the parties to a case on appeal have already been forced to concentrate

[TRADUCTION] La retenue est souhaitable pour diverses raisons : pour limiter le nombre et la durée des appels, pour promouvoir l'autonomie et l'intégrité des procédures devant le tribunal de première instance ou la cour des requêtes auxquelles de nombreuses ressources ont été consacrées, pour maintenir la confiance des plaideurs, pour reconnaître la compétence du juge de première instance ou du juge des requêtes, et pour réduire la multiplication inutile des procédures qui n'entraînent aucune amélioration correspondante de la qualité de la justice.

Le juge La Forest a exprimé des préoccupations semblables dans l'arrêt *Schwartz*, précité, par. 32 :

Il est établi depuis longtemps que les cours d'appel doivent faire preuve d'une grande retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait d'un juge de première instance. La règle se justifie principalement par la situation avantageuse dont bénéficie le juge des faits pour ce qui est d'évaluer la crédibilité des témoignages entendus au procès. [. . .] D'autres préoccupations liées à la politique judiciaire ont par ailleurs été invoquées pour justifier la règle. Une intervention illimitée des cours d'appel ferait augmenter considérablement le nombre et la durée des appels en général. D'importantes ressources sont mises à la disposition des tribunaux de première instance pour qu'ils puissent évaluer les faits. Il faut préserver l'autonomie et l'intégrité du procès en faisant preuve de retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait des tribunaux de première instance; voir R. D. Gibbens, « Appellate Review of Findings of Fact » (1992), 13 *Adv. Q.* 445, aux pp. 445 à 448; *Fletcher c. Société d'assurance publique du Manitoba*, [1990] 3 R.C.S. 191, à la p. 204.

Voir aussi, dans le contexte d'une poursuite touchant un brevet, *Consolboard Inc. c. MacMillan Bloedel (Saskatchewan) Ltd.*, [1981] 1 R.C.S. 504, p. 537.

13

Dans *Anderson c. Bessemer City*, 470 U.S. 564 (1985), p. 574-575, la Cour suprême des États-Unis a aussi dressé une liste de raisons qui justifient de faire preuve de retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait des juges de première instance :

[TRADUCTION] La raison d'être de la retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait du juge de première instance ne se limite pas au fait que ce dernier est mieux placé pour statuer sur la crédibilité. Le rôle principal du juge de première instance est de constater les faits, et l'expérience qu'il acquiert en s'acquittant de ce rôle lui confère son expertise à cet égard. Si les cours d'appel refaisaient le travail du juge de première instance, il est fort possible que ces efforts n'amélioreraient que marginalement l'exactitude des conclusions de fait, malgré

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their energies and resources on persuading the trial judge that their account of the facts is the correct one; requiring them to persuade three more judges at the appellate level is requiring too much. As the Court has stated in a different context, the trial on the merits should be "the 'main event' . . . rather than a 'tryout on the road.'" . . . For these reasons, review of factual findings under the clearly-erroneous standard — with its deference to the trier of fact — is the rule, not the exception.

les ressources judiciaires considérables qui devraient être réaffectées à cette fin. En outre, les parties à un appel ont déjà dû consacrer énergies et ressources à convaincre le juge de première instance de la justesse de leur version des faits; ce serait abuser que de leur demander de convaincre trois autres juges en appel. Comme l'a dit notre Cour dans un contexte différent, le procès sur le fond devrait être considéré comme « "l'épreuve principale" [. . .] plutôt que comme un "banc d'essai" ». [. . .] Pour ces motifs, le contrôle des décisions de fait selon la norme de la décision manifestement erronée — et la retenue envers le juge de première instance qu'elle suppose — est la règle, et non l'exception.

14 Further comments regarding the advantages possessed by the trial judge have been made by R. D. Gibbens in "Appellate Review of Findings of Fact" (1991-92), 13 *Advocates' Q.* 445, at p. 446:

> The trial judge is said to have an expertise in assessing and weighing the facts developed at trial. Similarly, the trial judge has also been exposed to the entire case. The trial judge has sat through the entire case and his ultimate judgment reflects this total familiarity with the evidence. The insight gained by the trial judge who has lived with the case for several days, weeks or even months may be far deeper than that of the Court of Appeal whose view of the case is much more limited and narrow, often being shaped and distorted by the various orders or rulings being challenged.

The corollary to this recognized advantage of trial courts and judges is that appellate courts are <u>not</u> in a favourable position to assess and determine factual matters. Appellate court judges are restricted to reviewing written transcripts of testimony. As well, appeals are unsuited to reviewing voluminous amounts of evidence. Finally, appeals are telescopic in nature, focussing narrowly on particular issues as opposed to viewing the case as a whole.

D'autres observations sur les avantages dont disposent le juge de première instance ont été formulées par R. D. Gibbens dans « Appellate Review of Findings of Fact » (1991-92), 13 *Advocates' Q.* 445, p. 446 :

> [TRADUCTION] On dit que le juge de première instance possède de l'expertise dans l'évaluation et l'appréciation des faits présentés au procès. Il a également entendu l'affaire au complet. Il a assisté à toute la cause et son jugement final reflète cette connaissance intime de la preuve. Cette connaissance, acquise par le juge au fil des jours, des semaines voire des mois qu'a durés l'affaire, peut se révéler beaucoup plus profonde que celle de la cour d'appel, dont la perception est beaucoup plus limitée et étroite, et souvent déterminée et déformée par les diverses ordonnances et décisions qui sont contestées.

Cet avantage reconnu des tribunaux et des juges de première instance a pour corollaire que les cours d'appel <u>ne</u> sont <u>pas</u> dans une position favorable pour évaluer et apprécier les questions de fait. Les juges des cours d'appel n'examinent que la transcription des témoignages. De plus, les appels ne se prêtent pas à l'examen de dossiers volumineux. Enfin, les appels ont un caractère « focalisateur », en ce qu'ils s'attachent à des questions particulières plutôt qu'à l'ensemble de l'affaire.

15 In our view, the numerous bases for deferring to the findings of fact of the trial judge which are discussed in the above authorities can be grouped into the following three basic principles.

À notre avis, ces diverses raisons justifiant la retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait du juge de première instance peuvent être regroupées sous les trois principes de base suivants.

(1) <u>Limiting the Number, Length and Cost of Appeals</u>

(1) <u>Réduire le nombre, la durée et le coût des appels</u>

16 Given the scarcity of judicial resources, setting limits on the scope of judicial review is to be

Vu la rareté des ressources dont disposent les tribunaux, il faut encourager l'établissement

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encouraged. Deferring to a trial judge's findings of fact not only serves this end, but does so on a principled basis. Substantial resources are allocated to trial courts for the purpose of assessing facts. To allow for wide-ranging review of the trial judge's factual findings results in needless duplication of judicial proceedings with little, if any improvement in the result. In addition, lengthy appeals prejudice litigants with fewer resources, and frustrate the goal of providing an efficient and effective remedy for the parties.

de limites à la portée du contrôle judiciaire. La retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait du juge de première instance sert cet objectif d'une manière rationnelle. D'importantes ressources sont allouées aux tribunaux de première instance aux fins d'évaluation des faits. Permettre un large contrôle des conclusions factuelles des juges de première instance entraîne une inutile répétition de procédures judiciaires, tout en n'améliorant que peu ou pas le résultat. En outre, de longs appels causent préjudice aux plaideurs moins bien nantis et compromettent l'objectif qui consiste à mettre à leur disposition des recours efficients et efficaces.

(2) Promoting the Autonomy and Integrity of Trial Proceedings

17

The presumption underlying the structure of our court system is that a trial judge is competent to decide the case before him or her, and that a just and fair outcome will result from the trial process. Frequent and unlimited appeals would undermine this presumption and weaken public confidence in the trial process. An appeal is the exception rather than the rule.

(2) Favoriser l'autonomie du procès et son intégrité

L'organisation de notre système judiciaire repose sur la présomption que le juge de première instance est qualifié pour trancher l'affaire dont il est saisi et qu'une solution juste et équitable résultera du procès. Des appels fréquents et illimités affaibliraient cette présomption et saperait la confiance du public dans le processus judiciaire. L'appel est l'exception, non la règle.

(3) Recognizing the Expertise of the Trial Judge and His or Her Advantageous Position

18

The trial judge is better situated to make factual findings owing to his or her extensive exposure to the evidence, the advantage of hearing testimony *viva voce*, and the judge's familiarity with the case as a whole. Because the primary role of the trial judge is to weigh and assess voluminous quantities of evidence, the expertise and insight of the trial judge in this area should be respected.

(3) Reconnaître l'expertise du juge de première instance et sa position avantageuse

Le juge de première instance est celui qui est le mieux placé pour tirer des conclusions de fait, parce qu'il a l'occasion d'examiner la preuve en profondeur, d'entendre les témoignages de vive voix et de se familiariser avec l'affaire dans son ensemble. Étant donné que le rôle principal du juge de première instance est d'apprécier et de soupeser d'abondantes quantités d'éléments de preuve, son expertise dans ce domaine et sa connaissance intime du dossier doivent être respectées.

C. *Standard of Review for Inferences of Fact*

19

We find it necessary to address the appropriate standard of review for factual inferences because the reasons of our colleague suggest that a lower standard of review may be applied to the inferences of fact drawn by a trial judge. With respect, it is our

C. *La norme de contrôle applicable aux inférences de fait*

Nous estimons nécessaire de nous pencher sur la question de la norme de contrôle appropriée quant aux inférences de fait des juges de première instance, parce que les motifs de notre collègue suggèrent qu'une norme de contrôle moins exigeante peut

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view, that to apply a lower standard of review to inferences of fact would be to depart from established jurisprudence of this Court, and would be contrary to the principles supporting a deferential stance to matters of fact.

être appliquée à cet égard. En toute déférence, nous sommes d'avis que l'application d'une telle norme de contrôle romprait avec la jurisprudence établie de notre Cour en la matière et serait contraire aux principes justifiant le respect d'une attitude empreinte de retenue à l'égard des constatations de fait.

20 Our colleague acknowledges that, in *Geffen v. Goodman Estate*, [1991] 2 S.C.R. 353, this Court determined that a trial judge's inferences of fact and findings of fact should be accorded a similar degree of deference. The relevant passage from *Geffen* is the following (*per* Wilson J., at pp. 388-89):

Notre collègue reconnaît que dans l'arrêt *Geffen c. Succession Goodman*, [1991] 2 R.C.S. 353, notre Cour a jugé qu'il fallait faire preuve du même degré de retenue à l'égard des inférences de fait du juge de première instance qu'à l'égard de ses constatations de fait. Voici le passage pertinent des motifs de madame le juge Wilson (aux p. 388-389) :

> It is by now well established that findings of fact made at trial based on the credibility of witnesses are not to be reversed on appeal unless it is established that the trial judge made some palpable and overriding error which affected his assessment of the facts . . . . Even where a finding of fact is not contingent upon credibility, this Court has maintained a non-interventionist approach to the review of trial court findings. . . .
>
> And even in those cases where a finding of fact is neither inextricably linked to the credibility of the testifying witness nor based on a misapprehension of the evidence, the rule remains that appellate review should be limited to those instances where a manifest error has been made. Hence, in *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. v. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 78, this Court refused to overturn a trial judge's finding that certain goods were defective, stating at pp. 84-85 that it is wrong for an appellate court to set aside a trial judgment where the only point at issue is the interpretation of the evidence as a whole (citing *Métivier v. Cadorette*, [1977] 1 S.C.R. 371).

> C'est maintenant un principe bien établi que les constatations de fait d'un juge de première instance, fondées sur la crédibilité des témoins, ne doivent pas être infirmées en appel à moins qu'il ne soit prouvé que le juge de première instance a commis une erreur manifeste et dominante qui a faussé son appréciation des faits [. . .] Même si une constatation de fait ne dépend pas de la crédibilité, notre Cour a pour principe de ne pas intervenir pour réviser les constatations des tribunaux de première instance . . .
>
> Et même dans les cas où une constatation de fait n'est ni liée inextricablement à la crédibilité du témoin ni fondée sur une mauvaise compréhension de la preuve, la règle reste la même : l'examen en appel devrait se limiter aux cas où une erreur manifeste a été commise. C'est pourquoi, dans l'arrêt *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. c. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 R.C.S. 78, notre Cour a refusé d'infirmer la conclusion du juge de première instance que certaines marchandises étaient défectueuses, disant, aux pp. 84 et 85, qu'une cour d'appel ne peut à bon droit infirmer une décision de première instance lorsque la seule question en litige porte sur l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve (citant *Métivier c. Cadorette*, [1977] 1 R.C.S. 371).

This view has been reiterated by this Court on numerous occasions: see *Palsky v. Humphrey*, [1964] S.C.R. 580, at p. 583; *Schwartz*, *supra*, at para. 32; *Hodgkinson v. Simms*, [1994] 3 S.C.R. 377, at p. 426, *per* La Forest J.; *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, *supra*. The United States Supreme Court has taken a similar position: see *Anderson*, *supra*, at p. 577.

Notre Cour a réitéré cette opinion à maintes reprises : voir *Palsky c. Humphrey*, [1964] R.C.S. 580, p. 583; *Schwartz*, précité, par. 32; *Hodgkinson c. Simms*, [1994] 3 R.C.S. 377, p. 426, le juge La Forest; *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité. La Cour suprême des États-Unis a adopté une position semblable : voir *Anderson*, précité, p. 577.

21 In discussing the standard of review of the trial judge's inferences of fact, our colleague states, at para. 103, that:

Dans son examen de la norme de contrôle applicable aux inférences de fait du juge de première instance, notre collègue dit ce qui suit, au par. 103 :

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In reviewing the making of an inference, the appeal court will verify whether it can reasonably be supported by the findings of fact that the trial judge reached and whether the judge proceeded on proper legal principles. . . . While the standard of review is identical for both findings of fact and inferences of fact, it is nonetheless important to draw an analytical distinction between the two. If the reviewing court were to review only for errors of fact, then the decision of the trial judge would necessarily be upheld in every case where evidence existed to support his or her factual findings. In my view, this Court is entitled to conclude that inferences made by the trial judge were clearly wrong, just as it is entitled to reach this conclusion in respect to findings of fact. [Emphasis added.]

La cour d'appel qui contrôle la validité d'une inférence se demande si celle-ci peut raisonnablement être étayée par les conclusions de fait tirées par le juge de première instance et si celui-ci a appliqué les principes juridiques appropriés. [. . .] Bien que la norme de contrôle soit la même et pour les conclusions de fait et pour les inférences de fait, il importe néanmoins de faire une distinction analytique entre les deux. Si le tribunal de révision ne faisait que vérifier s'il y a des erreurs de fait, la décision du juge de première instance serait alors nécessairement confirmée dans tous les cas où il existe des éléments de preuve étayant les conclusions de fait de ce dernier. Selon moi, notre Cour a le droit de conclure que les inférences du juge de première instance étaient manifestement erronées, tout comme elle peut le faire à l'égard des conclusions de fait. [Nous soulignons.]

With respect, we find two problems with this passage. First, in our view, the standard of review is not to verify that the inference can be reasonably supported by the findings of fact of the trial judge, but whether the trial judge made a palpable and overriding error in coming to a factual conclusion based on accepted facts, which implies a stricter standard.

En toute déférence, nous estimons que ce passage comporte deux erreurs. Premièrement, selon nous, la norme de contrôle ne consiste pas à vérifier si l'inférence peut être raisonnablement étayée par les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance, mais plutôt si ce dernier a commis une erreur manifeste et dominante en tirant une conclusion factuelle sur la base de faits admis, ce qui suppose l'application d'une norme plus stricte.

22

Second, with respect, we find that by drawing an analytical distinction between factual findings and factual inferences, the above passage may lead appellate courts to involve themselves in an unjustified reweighing of the evidence. Although we agree that it is open to an appellate court to find that an inference of fact made by the trial judge is clearly wrong, we would add the caution that where evidence exists to support this inference, an appellate court will be hard pressed to find a palpable and overriding error. As stated above, trial courts are in an advantageous position when it comes to assessing and weighing vast quantities of evidence. In making a factual inference, the trial judge must sift through the relevant facts, decide on their weight, and draw a factual conclusion. Thus, where evidence exists which supports this conclusion, interference with this conclusion entails interference with the weight assigned by the trial judge to the pieces of evidence.

Deuxièmement, nous croyons en toute déférence qu'en faisant une distinction analytique entre les conclusions factuelles et les inférences factuelles, le passage précité pourrait amener les cours d'appel à soupeser la preuve à nouveau et sans raison. Bien que nous partagions l'opinion selon laquelle il est loisible à une cour d'appel de conclure qu'une inférence de fait tirée par le juge de première instance est manifestement erronée, nous tenons toutefois à faire la mise en garde suivante : lorsque des éléments de preuve étayent cette inférence, il sera difficile à une cour d'appel de conclure à l'existence d'une erreur manifeste et dominante. Comme nous l'avons dit précédemment, les tribunaux de première instance sont dans une position avantageuse pour apprécier et soupeser de vastes quantités d'éléments de preuve. Pour tirer une inférence factuelle, le juge de première instance doit passer les faits pertinents au crible, en apprécier la valeur probante et tirer une conclusion factuelle. En conséquence, lorsque cette conclusion est étayée par des éléments de preuve, modifier cette conclusion équivaut à modifier le poids accordé à ces éléments par le juge de première instance.

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23

We reiterate that it is not the role of appellate courts to second-guess the weight to be assigned to the various items of evidence. If there is no palpable and overriding error with respect to the underlying facts that the trial judge relies on to draw the inference, then it is only where the inference-drawing process itself is palpably in error that an appellate court can interfere with the factual conclusion. The appellate court is not free to interfere with a factual conclusion that it disagrees with where such disagreement stems from a difference of opinion over the weight to be assigned to the underlying facts. As we discuss below, it is our respectful view that our colleague's finding that the trial judge erred by imputing knowledge of the hazard to the municipality in this case is an example of this type of impermissible interference with the factual inference drawn by the trial judge.

Nous rappelons qu'il n'appartient pas aux cours d'appel de remettre en question le poids attribué aux différents éléments de preuve. Si aucune erreur manifeste et dominante n'est décelée en ce qui concerne les faits sur lesquels repose l'inférence du juge de première instance, ce n'est que lorsque le processus inférentiel lui-même est manifestement erroné que la cour d'appel peut modifier la conclusion factuelle. La cour d'appel n'est pas habilitée à modifier une conclusion factuelle avec laquelle elle n'est pas d'accord, lorsque ce désaccord résulte d'une divergence d'opinion sur le poids à attribuer aux faits à la base de la conclusion. Comme nous le verrons plus loin, nous estimons en toute déférence que constitue un exemple de ce genre d'intervention inadmissible à l'égard d'une inférence de fait la conclusion de notre collègue selon laquelle la juge de première instance a commis une erreur en prêtant à la municipalité la connaissance du danger dans la présente affaire.

24

In addition, in distinguishing inferences of fact from findings of fact, our colleague states, at para. 102, that deference to findings of fact is "principally grounded in the recognition that only the trial judge enjoys the opportunity to observe witnesses and to hear testimony first-hand", a rationale which does not bear on factual inferences. With respect, we disagree with this view. As we state above, there are numerous reasons for showing deference to the factual findings of a trial judge, many of which are equally applicable to all factual conclusions of the trial judge. This was pointed out in *Schwartz, supra*. After listing numerous policy concerns justifying a deferential approach to findings of fact, at para. 32 La Forest J. goes on to state:

> This explains why the rule [that appellate courts must treat a trial judge's findings of fact with great deference] applies not only when the credibility of witnesses is at issue, although in such a case it may be more strictly applied, but also to all conclusions of fact made by the trial judge. [Emphasis added.]

De plus, en établissant une distinction entre les inférences de fait et les conclusions de fait, notre collègue dit, au par. 102, que la retenue à l'égard des secondes « repose principalement sur le fait que, puisqu'il [le juge de première instance] est le seul à avoir l'occasion d'observer les témoins et d'entendre les témoignages de vive voix », justification non pertinente dans le cas des inférences de fait. En toute déférence, nous ne partageons pas cette opinion. Comme nous l'avons dit plus tôt, il existe de nombreuses raisons de faire preuve de retenue à l'égard des constatations de fait du juge de première instance, dont plusieurs valent autant pour toutes ses conclusions factuelles. Cette observation a été faite dans l'arrêt *Schwartz*, précité. Après avoir énuméré les nombreuses considérations de politique judiciaire invoquées pour justifier la règle de la retenue à l'égard des constatations de fait, le juge La Forest, au par. 32, ajoute :

> Cela explique pourquoi la règle [selon laquelle les cours d'appel doivent faire preuve d'une grande retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait des juges de première instance] s'applique non seulement lorsque la crédibilité des témoins est en cause, quoiqu'elle puisse alors s'appliquer plus strictement, mais également à toutes les conclusions de fait tirées par le juge de première instance. [Nous soulignons.]

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Recent support for deferring to all factual conclusions of the trial judge is found in *Toneguzzo-Norvell, supra.* McLachlin J. (as she then was) for a unanimous Court stated, at pp. 121-22:

> A Court of Appeal is clearly not entitled to interfere merely because it takes a different view of the evidence. The finding of facts and the drawing of evidentiary conclusions from facts is the province of the trial judge, not the Court of Appeal.
>
> . . .
>
> I agree that the principle of non-intervention of a Court of Appeal in a trial judge's findings of facts does not apply with the same force to inferences drawn from conflicting testimony of expert witnesses where the credibility of these witnesses is not in issue. This does not however change the fact that the weight to be assigned to the various pieces of evidence is under our trial system essentially the province of the trier of fact, in this case the trial judge. [Emphasis added.]

We take the above comments of McLachlin J. to mean that, although the same high standard of deference applies to the entire range of factual determinations made by the trial judge, where a factual finding is grounded in an assessment of credibility of a witness, the overwhelming advantage of the trial judge in this area must be acknowledged. This does not, however, imply that there is a lower standard of review where witness credibility is not in issue, or that there are not numerous policy reasons supporting deference to all factual conclusions of the trial judge. In our view, this is made clear by the underlined portion of the above passage. The essential point is that making a factual conclusion, of any kind, is inextricably linked with assigning weight to evidence, and thus attracts a deferential standard of review.

25 Although the trial judge will always be in a distinctly privileged position when it comes to

Notre Cour a récemment donné son appui à la règle de la retenue judiciaire à l'égard de l'ensemble des conclusions factuelles du juge de première instance dans l'arrêt *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité. Madame le juge McLachlin (maintenant Juge en chef), qui a rédigé le jugement unanime de notre Cour, a dit ceci, aux p. 121-122 :

> Une cour d'appel n'est manifestement pas autorisée à intervenir pour le simple motif qu'elle perçoit la preuve différemment. Il appartient au juge de première instance, et non à la cour d'appel, de tirer des conclusions de fait en matière de preuve.
>
> . . .
>
> Je reconnais que le principe de non-intervention d'une cour d'appel dans les conclusions de fait d'un juge de première instance ne s'applique pas avec la même vigueur aux conclusions tirées de témoignages d'expert contradictoires lorsque la crédibilité de ces derniers n'est pas en cause. Il n'en demeure pas moins que, selon notre système de procès, il appartient essentiellement au juge des faits, en l'espèce le juge de première instance, d'attribuer un poids aux différents éléments de preuve. [Nous soulignons.]

Nous considérons que ces propos du juge McLachlin signifient que, bien que le même degré élevé de retenue s'applique à l'ensemble des décisions factuelles du juge de première instance, lorsqu'une telle conclusion factuelle repose sur l'appréciation de la crédibilité d'un témoin, il faut reconnaître l'énorme avantage dont jouit le juge de première instance à cet égard. Cela ne veut toutefois pas dire qu'une norme de contrôle moins rigoureuse s'applique lorsque la question en jeu ne porte pas sur la crédibilité d'un témoin, ni qu'il n'existe pas de nombreuses considérations de principe justifiant de faire montre de retenue à l'égard de toutes les conclusions factuelles. À notre avis, cela ressort clairement du passage souligné dans l'extrait précité. Le point essentiel est qu'une conclusion factuelle — quelle que soit sa nature — exige nécessairement qu'on attribue un certain poids à un élément de preuve et, de ce fait, commande l'application d'une norme de contrôle empreinte de retenue.

Bien que le juge de première instance soit toujours dans une position privilégiée pour apprécier

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assessing the credibility of witnesses, this is not the only area where the trial judge has an advantage over appellate judges. Advantages enjoyed by the trial judge with respect to the drawing of factual inferences include the trial judge's relative expertise with respect to the weighing and assessing of evidence, and the trial judge's inimitable familiarity with the often vast quantities of evidence. This extensive exposure to the entire factual nexus of a case will be of invaluable assistance when it comes to drawing factual conclusions. In addition, concerns with respect to cost, number and length of appeals apply equally to inferences of fact and findings of fact, and support a deferential approach towards both. As such, we respectfully disagree with our colleague's view that the principal rationale for showing deference to findings of fact is the opportunity to observe witnesses first-hand. It is our view that the trial judge enjoys numerous advantages over appellate judges which bear on all conclusions of fact, and, even in the absence of these advantages, there are other compelling policy reasons supporting a deferential approach to inferences of fact. We conclude, therefore, by emphasizing that there is one, and only one, standard of review applicable to all factual conclusions made by the trial judge — that of palpable and overriding error.

la crédibilité des témoins, ce n'est pas là le seul domaine où il bénéficie d'un avantage sur les juges des cours d'appel. Parmi les avantages dont jouit le juge de première instance sur le plan des inférences factuelles, mentionnons son expertise relative en matière d'appréciation et d'évaluation de la preuve, de même que la connaissance unique qu'il possède de la preuve souvent abondante produite par les parties. Cette familiarité avec toute la trame factuelle lui est d'une grande utilité lorsque vient le moment de tirer des conclusions de fait. En outre, les considérations relatives au coût, au nombre et à la durée des appels sont tout aussi pertinentes pour ce qui est des inférences de fait que pour ce qui est des conclusions de fait, et justifient l'application aux unes comme aux autres d'une norme empreinte de retenue. En conséquence, nous ne partageons pas l'opinion de notre collègue selon laquelle la raison principale justifiant de faire montre de retenue à l'égard des conclusions de fait est la possibilité qu'a le juge de première instance d'observer les témoins directement. Nous sommes d'avis que le juge de première instance jouit, par rapport aux juges d'appel, de nombreux avantages qui influent sur toutes les conclusions de fait et que, même si ces avantages n'existaient pas, d'autres considérations impérieuses justifient de faire montre de retenue à l'égard des inférences de fait. Par conséquent, nous concluons en soulignant qu'il n'y a qu'une seule et unique norme de contrôle applicable à toutes les conclusions factuelles tirées par le juge de première instance, soit celle de l'erreur manifeste et dominante.

D. *Standard of Review for Questions of Mixed Fact and Law*

26 At the outset, it is important to distinguish questions of mixed fact and law from factual findings (whether direct findings or inferences). Questions of mixed fact and law involve applying a legal standard to a set of facts: *Canada (Director of Investigation and Research) v. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 748, at para. 35. On the other hand, factual findings or inferences require making a conclusion of fact based on a set of facts. Both mixed fact and law and fact findings often involve drawing inferences; the difference lies in whether the inference drawn is legal

D. *La norme de contrôle applicable aux questions mixtes de fait et de droit*

D'entrée de jeu, il importe de distinguer les questions mixtes de fait et de droit des conclusions factuelles (qu'il s'agisse de conclusions directes ou d'inférences). Les questions mixtes de fait et de droit supposent l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits : *Canada (Directeur des enquêtes et des recherches) c. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 R.C.S. 748, par. 35. Par contre, les conclusions ou les inférences de fait exigent que soit tirée une conclusion factuelle d'un ensemble de faits. Tant les questions mixtes de fait et de droit que les questions

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or factual. Because of this similarity, the two types of questions are sometimes confounded. This confusion was pointed out by A. L. Goodhart in "Appeals on Questions of Fact" (1955), 71 *L.Q.R.* 402, at p. 405:

> The distinction between [the perception of facts and the evaluation of facts] tends to be obfuscated because we use such a phrase as "the judge found as a fact that the defendant had been negligent," when what we mean to say is that "the judge found as a fact that the defendant had done acts A and B, and as a matter of opinion he reached the conclusion that it was not reasonable for the defendant to have acted in that way."

In the case at bar, there are examples of both types of questions. The issue of whether the municipality ought to have known of the hazard in the road involves weighing the underlying facts and making factual findings as to the knowledge of the municipality. It also involves applying a legal standard, which in this case is provided by s. 192(3) of the *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, S.S. 1989-90, c. R-26.1, to these factual findings. Similarly, the finding of negligence involves weighing the underlying facts, making factual conclusions therefrom, and drawing an inference as to whether or not the municipality failed to exercise the legal standard of reasonable care and therefore was negligent.

27 Once it has been determined that a matter being reviewed involves the application of a legal standard to a set of facts, and is thus a question of mixed fact and law, then the appropriate standard of review must be determined and applied. Given the different standards of review applicable to questions of law and questions of fact, it is often difficult to determine what the applicable standard of review is. In *Southam*, *supra*, at para. 39, this Court illustrated how an error on a question of mixed fact and law can amount to a pure error of law subject to the correctness standard:

> . . . if a decision-maker says that the correct test requires him or her to consider A, B, C, and D, but in fact the

de fait exigent souvent du tribunal qu'il tire des inférences; la différence réside dans le caractère — juridique ou factuel — de ces inférences. En raison de cette similitude, on confond parfois les deux catégories de questions. Cette confusion a été soulignée par A. L. Goodhart dans « Appeals on Questions of Fact » (1955), 71 *L.Q.R.* 402, p. 405 :

> [TRADUCTION] La distinction entre [la perception des faits et l'appréciation de ceux-ci] a tendance à être embrouillée parce que nous utilisons la formule « le juge a conclu au fait que le défendeur avait été négligent », alors que ce que nous voulons dire, c'est que « le juge a constaté le fait que le défendeur a commis les actes A et B et, suivant son opinion, il a conclu qu'il n'était pas raisonnable pour ce dernier d'avoir agi ainsi ».

L'affaire qui nous occupe présente des exemples des deux catégories de questions. Pour répondre à la question de savoir si la municipalité aurait dû connaître le danger présenté par le chemin, il faut apprécier les faits à l'origine de l'affaire et tirer des conclusions factuelles relativement à la connaissance de la municipalité. Il faut appliquer à ces conclusions factuelles une norme juridique qui, en l'occurrence, est énoncée au par. 192(3) de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, S.S. 1989-90, ch. R-26.1. De même, pour pouvoir conclure à la négligence, il faut apprécier les faits essentiels, en tirer des conclusions factuelles puis en dégager une inférence, c'est-à-dire se demander si la municipalité a oui ou non omis de respecter la norme de diligence raisonnable et si elle a, par conséquent, été négligente ou non.

Une fois établi que la question examinée exige l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits et qu'il s'agit donc d'une question mixte de fait et de droit, il faut alors déterminer quelle est la norme de contrôle appropriée et l'appliquer. Vu les diverses normes de contrôle qui s'appliquent aux questions de droit et aux questions de fait, il est souvent difficile de déterminer celle qui s'applique. Dans l'arrêt *Southam*, précité, par. 39, notre Cour a expliqué comment une erreur touchant une question mixte de fait et de droit peut constituer une pure erreur de droit, assujettie à la norme de la décision correcte :

> . . . si un décideur dit que, en vertu du critère applicable, il lui faut tenir compte de A, B, C et D, mais que, dans les

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decision-maker considers only A, B, and C, then the outcome is as if he or she had applied a law that required consideration of only A, B, and C. If the correct test requires him or her to consider D as well, then the decision-maker has in effect applied the wrong law, and so has made an error of law.

Therefore, what appears to be a question of mixed fact and law, upon further reflection, can actually be an error of pure law.

28 However, where the error does not amount to an error of law, a higher standard is mandated. Where the trier of fact has considered all the evidence that the law requires him or her to consider and still comes to the wrong conclusion, then this amounts to an error of mixed law and fact and is subject to a more stringent standard of review: *Southam*, *supra*, at paras. 41 and 45. While easy to state, this distinction can be difficult in practice because matters of mixed law and fact fall along a spectrum of particularity. This difficulty was pointed out in *Southam*, at para. 37:

> . . . the matrices of facts at issue in some cases are so particular, indeed so unique, that decisions about whether they satisfy legal tests do not have any great precedential value. If a court were to decide that driving at a certain speed on a certain road under certain conditions was negligent, its decision would not have any great value as a precedent. In short, as the level of generality of the challenged proposition approaches utter particularity, the matter approaches pure application, and hence draws nigh to being an unqualified question of mixed law and fact. See R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994), at pp. 103-108. Of course, it is not easy to say precisely where the line should be drawn; though in most cases it should be sufficiently clear whether the dispute is over a general proposition that might qualify as a principle of law or over a very particular set of circumstances that is not apt to be of much interest to judges and lawyers in the future.

29 When the question of mixed fact and law at issue is a finding of negligence, this Court has held that

faits, il ne prend en considération que A, B, et C, alors le résultat est le même que s'il avait appliqué une règle de droit lui dictant de ne tenir compte que de A, B et C. Si le bon critère lui commandait de tenir compte aussi de D, il a en fait appliqué la mauvaise règle de droit et commis, de ce fait, une erreur de droit.

Par conséquent, ce qui peut paraître une question mixte de fait et de droit peut, après plus ample examen, se révéler en réalité une pure erreur de droit.

Cependant, lorsque l'erreur ne constitue pas une erreur de droit, une norme de contrôle plus exigeante s'impose. Dans les cas où le juge des faits examine tous les éléments de preuve que le droit lui commande de prendre en considération mais en tire néanmoins une conclusion erronée, il commet alors une erreur mixte de fait et de droit, qui est assujettie à une norme de contrôle plus rigoureuse : *Southam*, précité, par. 41 et 45. Bien que facile à énoncer, cette distinction peut s'avérer difficile à établir en pratique parce que les questions mixtes de fait et de droit s'étalent le long d'un spectre comportant des degrés variables de particularité. Cette difficulté a été soulignée dans l'arrêt *Southam*, par. 37 :

> . . . il arrive que les faits dans certaines affaires soient si particuliers, de fait qu'ils soient si uniques, que les décisions concernant la question de savoir s'ils satisfont aux critères juridiques n'ont pas une grande valeur comme précédents. Si une cour décidait que le fait d'avoir conduit à une certaine vitesse, sur une route donnée et dans des conditions particulières constituait de la négligence, sa décision aurait peu de valeur comme précédent. Bref, plus le niveau de généralité de la proposition contestée se rapproche de la particularité absolue, plus l'affaire prend le caractère d'une question d'application pure, et s'approche donc d'une question de droit et de fait parfaite. Voir R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994), aux pp. 103 à 108. Il va de soi qu'il n'est pas facile de dire avec précision où doit être tracée la ligne de démarcation; quoique, dans la plupart des cas, la situation soit suffisamment claire pour permettre de déterminer si le litige porte sur une proposition générale qui peut être qualifiée de principe de droit ou sur un ensemble très particulier de circonstances qui n'est pas susceptible de présenter beaucoup d'intérêt pour les juges et les avocats dans l'avenir.

Lorsque la question mixte de fait et de droit en litige est une conclusion de négligence, notre

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a finding of negligence by the trial judge should be deferred to by appellate courts. In *Jaegli Enterprises Ltd. v. Taylor*, [1981] 2 S.C.R. 2, at p. 4, Dickson J. (as he then was) set aside the holding of the British Columbia Court of Appeal that the trial judge had erred in his finding of negligence on the basis that "it is wrong for an appellate court to set aside a trial judgment where there is not palpable and overriding error, and the only point at issue is the interpretation of the evidence as a whole" (see also *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. v. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 78, at p. 84).

This more stringent standard of review for findings of negligence is appropriate, given that findings of negligence at the trial level can also be made by juries. If the standard were instead correctness, this would result in the appellate court assessing even jury findings of negligence on a correctness standard. At present, absent misdirection on law by the trial judge, such review is not available. The general rule is that courts accord great deference to a jury's findings in civil negligence proceedings:

> The principle has been laid down in many judgments of this Court to this effect, that the verdict of a jury will not be set aside as against the weight of evidence unless it is so plainly unreasonable and unjust as to satisfy the Court that no jury reviewing the evidence as a whole and acting judicially could have reached it.

(*McCannell v. McLean*, [1937] S.C.R. 341, at p. 343)

See also *Dube v. Labar*, [1986] 1 S.C.R. 649, at p. 662, and *C.N.R. v. Muller*, [1934] 1 D.L.R. 768 (S.C.C.). To adopt a correctness standard would change the law and undermine the traditional function of the jury. Therefore, requiring a standard of "palpable and overriding error" for findings of negligence made by either a trial judge or a jury rein-

Cour a jugé que les cours d'appel devaient faire preuve de retenue à l'égard de la conclusion du juge de première instance. Dans l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises Ltd. c. Taylor*, [1981] 2 R.C.S. 2, p. 4, le juge Dickson (plus tard Juge en chef) a infirmé la décision de la Cour d'appel de la Colombie-Britannique portant que le juge de première instance avait erronément conclu à la négligence, pour le motif qu'« une cour d'appel commet une erreur lorsqu'elle infirme un jugement de première instance s'il n'y a pas une erreur manifeste et dominante, et si l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve est le seul point en litige » (voir aussi l'arrêt *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. c. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 R.C.S. 78, p. 84).

30

Il convient d'appliquer cette norme de contrôle plus exigeante aux conclusions de négligence, étant donné que de telles conclusions peuvent également être tirées par des jurys en première instance. Si la norme applicable était celle de la décision correcte, il s'ensuivrait que les cours d'appel appliqueraient cette norme pour contrôler même des conclusions de négligence tirées par jurys. Actuellement, il n'y a ouverture à un tel contrôle que si le juge du procès a donné des directives erronées au jury sur le droit applicable. Suivant la règle générale, les tribunaux font montre d'une grande retenue envers les conclusions des jurys dans les procès civils pour négligence :

> [TRADUCTION] Le principe pertinent a été énoncé dans bon nombre d'arrêts de notre Cour, à savoir qu'il n'y a pas lieu d'écarter le verdict d'un jury parce qu'il va à l'encontre du poids de la preuve, à moins que le verdict en question ne soit nettement déraisonnable et injuste au point de convaincre le tribunal qu'aucun jury examinant la preuve dans son ensemble et agissant de façon judiciaire n'aurait pu le prononcer.

(*McCannell c. McLean*, [1937] R.C.S. 341, p. 343)

Voir également *Dube c. Labar*, [1986] 1 R.C.S. 649, p. 662, et *C.N.R. c. Muller*, [1934] 1 D.L.R. 768 (C.S.C.). Adopter la norme de la décision correcte aurait pour effet de modifier le droit et de porter atteinte au rôle traditionnel du jury. Par conséquent, le fait d'exiger l'application de la norme de l'« erreur manifeste et dominante » aux

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forces the proper relationship between the appellate and trial court levels and accords with the established standard of review applicable to a finding of negligence by a jury.

fins de contrôle d'une conclusion de négligence tirée par un juge ou un jury consolide les rapports qui doivent exister entre les juridictions d'appel et celles de première instance et respecte la norme de contrôle bien établie qui s'applique aux conclusions de négligence tirées par les jurys.

31 Where, however, the erroneous finding of negligence of the trial judge rests on an incorrect statement of the legal standard, this can amount to an error of law. This distinction was pointed out by Cory J. in *Galaske v. O'Donnell*, [1994] 1 S.C.R 670, at pp. 690-91:

> The definition of the standard of care is a mixed question of law and fact. It will usually be for the trial judge to determine, in light of the circumstances of the case, what would constitute reasonable conduct on the part of the legendary reasonable man placed in the same circumstances. In some situations a simple reminder may suffice while in others, for example when a very young child is the passenger, the driver may have to put the seat belt on the child himself. In this case, however, the driver took no steps whatsoever to ensure that the child passenger wore a seat belt. It follows that the trial judge's decision on the issue amounted to a finding that there was no duty at all resting upon the driver. This was an error of law.

Galaske, *supra*, is an illustration of the point made in *Southam*, *supra*, of the potential to extricate a purely legal question from what appears to be a question of mixed fact and law. However, in the absence of a legal error or a palpable and overriding error, a finding of negligence by a trial judge should not be interfered with.

Toutefois, lorsque le juge du procès conclut erronément à la négligence par suite d'une formulation incorrecte de la norme juridique, cela peut constituer une erreur de droit. Cette distinction a été faite par le juge Cory dans l'arrêt *Galaske c. O'Donnell*, [1994] 1 R.C.S. 670, p. 690-691 :

> La définition de la norme de diligence est une question mixte de droit et de fait. Il incombera habituellement au juge du procès de déterminer, compte tenu des circonstances de l'espèce, ce qui constituerait une conduite raisonnable de la part de la personne raisonnable légendaire placée dans la même situation. Dans certains cas, un simple rappel suffira, tandis que dans d'autres, par exemple lorsqu'un très jeune enfant est passager, le conducteur peut avoir à attacher lui-même la ceinture de sécurité de l'enfant. Cependant, en l'espèce, le conducteur n'a pris aucune mesure pour veiller à ce que l'enfant porte sa ceinture de sécurité. Il s'ensuit que la décision du juge du procès sur la question équivalait à une conclusion qu'aucune obligation n'incombait au conducteur, ce qui constituait une erreur de droit.

L'arrêt *Galaske*, précité, illustre bien l'idée exposée dans l'arrêt *Southam*, précité, selon laquelle il est possible de dégager une pure question de droit de ce qui paraît être une question mixte de fait et de droit. Toutefois, en l'absence d'erreur de droit ou d'une erreur manifeste et dominante, la conclusion de négligence tirée par un juge de première instance ne doit pas être modifiée.

32 We are supported in our conclusion by the analogy which can be drawn between inferences of fact and questions of mixed fact and law. As stated above, both involve drawing inferences from underlying facts. The difference lies in whether the inference drawn relates to a legal standard or not. Because both processes are intertwined with the weight assigned to the evidence, the numerous policy reasons which support a deferential stance to the trial judge's inferences of fact, also, to a certain extent, support showing

L'analogie qui peut être établie entre les inférences de fait et les questions mixtes de fait et de droit étaye notre conclusion. Comme nous l'avons dit précédemment, dans les deux cas des inférences doivent être tirées des faits à l'origine de l'affaire. La différence dépend de la question de savoir si l'inférence se rapporte à une norme juridique ou non. Parce que le résultat des deux processus est tributaire du poids accordé à la preuve, les diverses considérations de principe justifiant de faire montre de retenue à l'égard des inférences de

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deference to the trial judge's inferences of mixed fact and law.

33 Where, however, an erroneous finding of the trial judge can be traced to an error in his or her characterization of the legal standard, then this encroaches on the law-making role of an appellate court, and less deference is required, consistent with a "correctness" standard of review. This nuance was recognized by this Court in *St-Jean v. Mercier*, [2002] 1 S.C.R. 491, 2002 SCC 15, at paras. 48-49:

> A question "about whether the facts satisfy the legal tests" is one of mixed law and fact. Stated differently, "whether the defendant satisfied the appropriate standard of care is a question of mixed law and fact" (*Southam*, at para. 35).
>
> Generally, such a question, once the facts have been established without overriding and palpable error, is to be reviewed on a standard of correctness since the standard of care is normative and is a question of law within the normal purview of both the trial and appellate courts. [Emphasis added.]

34 A good example of this subtle principle can be found in *Rhône (The) v. Peter A.B. Widener (The)*, [1993] 1 S.C.R. 497, at pp. 515-16. In that case the issue was the identification of certain individuals within a corporate structure as directing minds. This is a mixed question of law and fact. However, the erroneous finding of the courts below was easily traceable to an error of law which could be extricated from the mixed question of law and fact. The extricable question of law was the issue of the functions which are required in order to be properly identified as a "directing mind" within a corporate structure (pp. 515-16). In the opinion of Iacobucci J. for the majority of the Court (at p. 526):

> With respect, I think that the courts below overemphasized the significance of sub-delegation in this case. The key factor which distinguishes directing minds from normal employees is the capacity to exercise decision-making authority on matters of corporate policy, rather than merely to give effect to such policy on an

fait du juge de première instance justifient également, dans une certaine mesure, de faire de même à l'égard de ses inférences mixtes de fait et de droit.

Par contre, lorsqu'il peut être établi que la conclusion erronée du juge de première instance découle d'une erreur quant à la norme juridique à appliquer, ce facteur touche au rôle de création du droit de la cour d'appel, et une retenue moins élevée s'impose, conformément à la norme de la décision « correcte ». Notre Cour a apporté cette nuance dans l'arrêt *St-Jean c. Mercier*, [2002] 1 R.C.S. 491, 2002 CSC 15, par. 48-49 :

> La question qui consiste « à déterminer si les faits satisfont au critère juridique » est une question mixte de droit et de fait ou, en d'autres termes, « la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté la norme de diligence appropriée est une question de droit et de fait » (*Southam*, par. 35).
>
> Une fois les faits établis sans erreur manifeste et dominante, cette question doit généralement être révisée suivant la norme de la décision correcte puisque la norme de diligence est normative et constitue une question de droit qui relève de la compétence habituelle des tribunaux de première instance et d'appel. [Nous soulignons.]

Un bon exemple de ce principe subtil est l'arrêt *Rhône (Le) c. Peter A.B. Widener (Le)*, [1993] 1 R.C.S. 497, p. 515-516. La question en litige dans cette affaire consistait à déterminer si certaines personnes faisaient partie des âmes dirigeantes d'une société. Il s'agit d'une question mixte de droit et de fait. Toutefois, la conclusion erronée des juridictions inférieures était facilement imputable à une erreur de droit qui pouvait être dégagée de la question mixte de droit et de fait. La question de droit ainsi isolable était celle des fonctions que devait remplir une personne pour qu'on puisse à bon droit la considérer comme une « âme dirigeante » de la société (p. 515-516). Le juge Iacobucci s'est exprimé ainsi au nom des juges de la majorité, à la p. 526 :

> En toute déférence, je crois que les juridictions inférieures ont trop insisté sur l'importance de la subdélégation en l'espèce. Le facteur clé qui permet de distinguer les âmes dirigeantes des employés ordinaires est la capacité d'exercer un pouvoir décisionnel sur les questions de politique générale de la personne morale, plutôt que

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operational basis, whether at head office or across the sea.

35 Stated differently, the lower courts committed an error in law by finding that sub-delegation was a factor identifying a person who is part of the "directing mind" of a company, when the correct legal factor characterizing a "directing mind" is in fact "the capacity to exercise decision-making authority on matters of corporate policy". This mischaracterization of the proper legal test (the legal requirements to be a "directing mind") infected or tainted the lower courts' factual conclusion that Captain Kelch was part of the directing mind. As this erroneous finding can be traced to an error in law, less deference was required and the applicable standard was one of correctness.

36 To summarize, a finding of negligence by a trial judge involves applying a legal standard to a set of facts, and thus is a question of mixed fact and law. Matters of mixed fact and law lie along a spectrum. Where, for instance, an error with respect to a finding of negligence can be attributed to the application of an incorrect standard, a failure to consider a required element of a legal test, or similar error in principle, such an error can be characterized as an error of law, subject to a standard of correctness. Appellate courts must be cautious, however, in finding that a trial judge erred in law in his or her determination of negligence, as it is often difficult to extricate the legal questions from the factual. It is for this reason that these matters are referred to as questions of "mixed law and fact". Where the legal principle is not readily extricable, then the matter is one of "mixed law and fact" and is subject to a more stringent standard. The general rule, as stated in *Jaegli Enterprises*, *supra*, is that, where the issue on appeal involves the trial judge's interpretation of the evidence as a whole, it should not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error.

le simple fait de mettre en œuvre ces politiques dans un cadre opérationnel, que ce soit au siège social ou en mer.

En d'autres termes, les juridictions inférieures ont commis une erreur de droit en concluant que la subdélégation était un facteur permettant de qualifier une personne d'« âme dirigeante » d'une société, alors que le facteur juridique applicable à cet égard est en fait « la capacité d'exercer un pouvoir décisionnel sur les questions de politique générale de la personne morale ». Cette formulation erronée du critère juridique approprié (les conditions juridiques requises pour être une « âme dirigeante ») a entaché ou vicié la conclusion factuelle des juridictions inférieures selon laquelle le capitaine Kelch était une âme dirigeante de la société. Comme cette conclusion erronée était imputable à une erreur de droit, un degré moindre de retenue s'imposait et la norme applicable était celle de la décision correcte.

En résumé, la conclusion de négligence que tire le juge de première instance suppose l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits et constitue donc une question mixte de fait et de droit. Les questions mixtes de fait et de droit s'étalent le long d'un spectre. Lorsque, par exemple, la conclusion de négligence est entachée d'une erreur imputable à l'application d'une norme incorrecte, à l'omission de tenir compte d'un élément essentiel d'un critère juridique ou à une autre erreur de principe semblable, une telle erreur peut être qualifiée d'erreur de droit et elle est contrôlée suivant la norme de la décision correcte. Les cours d'appel doivent cependant faire preuve de prudence avant de juger que le juge de première instance a commis une erreur de droit lorsqu'il a conclu à la négligence, puisqu'il est souvent difficile de départager les questions de droit et les questions de fait. Voilà pourquoi on appelle certaines questions des questions « mixtes de fait et de droit ». Si le principe juridique n'est pas facilement isolable, il s'agit alors d'une « question mixte de fait et de droit », assujettie à une norme de contrôle plus rigoureuse. Selon la règle générale énoncée dans l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises*, précité, si la question litigieuse en appel soulève l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve par le juge de première instance, cette interprétation ne doit pas être infirmée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante.

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37

In this regard, we respectfully disagree with our colleague when he states at para. 106 that "[o]nce the facts have been established, the determination of whether or not the standard of care was met by the defendant will in most cases be reviewable on a standard of correctness since the trial judge must appreciate the facts within the context of the appropriate standard of care. In many cases, viewing the facts through the legal lens of the standard of care gives rise to a policy-making or law-setting function that is the purview of both the trial and appellate courts". In our view, it is settled law that the determination of whether or not the standard of care was met by the defendant involves the application of a legal standard to a set of facts, a question of mixed fact and law. This question is subject to a standard of palpable and overriding error unless it is clear that the trial judge made some extricable error in principle with respect to the characterization of the standard or its application, in which case the error may amount to an error of law.

À cet égard, nous ne pouvons en toute déférence pas souscrire à l'opinion de notre collègue lorsqu'il affirme, au par. 106, qu'« [u]ne fois les faits établis, la décision touchant la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté ou non la norme de diligence est, dans la plupart des cas, contrôlable selon la norme de la décision correcte, puisque le juge de première instance doit apprécier les faits au regard de la norme de diligence appropriée. Dans bien des cas, l'examen des faits à travers le prisme juridique de la norme de diligence implique l'établissement de politiques d'intérêt général ou la création de règles de droit, rôle qui relève autant des cours de première instance que des cours d'appel ». À notre avis, il est bien établi en droit que la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté la norme de diligence suppose l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble de faits, ce qui en fait une question mixte de fait et de droit. Cette question est assujettie à la norme de l'erreur manifeste et dominante, à moins que le juge de première instance n'ait clairement commis une erreur de principe isolable en déterminant la norme applicable ou en appliquant cette norme, auquel cas l'erreur peut constituer une erreur de droit.

III. Application of the Foregoing Principles to this Case: Standard of Care of the Municipality

III. Application des principes qui précèdent à l'espèce : la norme de diligence applicable à la municipalité

A. *The Appropriate Standard of Review*

A. *La norme de contrôle appropriée*

38

We agree with our colleague that the correct statement of the municipality's standard of care is that found in *Partridge v. Rural Municipality of Langenburg*, [1929] 3 W.W.R. 555 (Sask. C.A.), *per* Martin J.A., at pp. 558-59:

> The extent of the statutory obligation placed upon municipal corporations to keep in repair the highways under their jurisdiction, has been variously stated in numerous reported cases. There is, however, a general rule which may be gathered from the decisions, and that is, that the road must be kept in such a reasonable state of repair that those requiring to use it may, exercising ordinary care, travel upon it with safety. What is a reasonable state of repair is a question of fact, depending upon all the surrounding circumstances; "repair" is a relative term, and hence the facts in one case afford no fixed rule

À l'instar de notre collègue, nous sommes d'avis que la norme de diligence applicable à la municipalité a été convenablement énoncée par le juge Martin dans l'arrêt *Partridge c. Rural Municipality of Langenburg*, [1929] 3 W.W.R. 555 (C.A. Sask.), p. 558-559 :

> [TRADUCTION] L'étendue de l'obligation légale d'entretien qui incombe aux corporations municipales à l'égard des routes qui se trouvent sur leur territoire a été énoncée de diverses façons dans nombre de décisions publiées. Il est toutefois possible de dégager la règle générale suivante de ces décisions : le chemin doit être tenu dans un état raisonnable d'entretien, de façon que ceux qui doivent l'emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité. La question de savoir en quoi consiste un état raisonnable d'entretien est une question de fait, qui est fonction de toutes

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by which to determine another case where the facts are different . . . .

les circonstances de l'espèce; le terme « entretien » est une notion relative et, par conséquent, les faits propres à une affaire donnée ne permettent pas de dégager de règle déterminée permettant de trancher une autre affaire présentant des circonstances différentes . . .

However, we differ from the views of our colleague in that we find that the trial judge applied the correct test in determining that the municipality did not meet its standard of care, and thus did not commit an error of law of the type mentioned in *Southam*, *supra*. The trial judge applied all the elements of the *Partridge* standard to the facts, and her conclusion that the respondent municipality failed to meet this standard should not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error.

Toutefois, contrairement à notre collègue, nous estimons que la juge de première instance a appliqué le bon critère juridique en concluant que la municipalité n'avait pas respecté la norme de diligence à laquelle elle était tenue, et que la juge n'a donc pas commis une erreur de droit du genre de celle décrite dans l'arrêt *Southam*, précité. La juge de première instance a appliqué aux faits de l'espèce tous les éléments du critère énoncé dans l'arrêt *Partridge*, et sa conclusion que la municipalité défenderesse n'a pas respecté ce critère ne devrait pas être infirmée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante.

B. *The Trial Judge Did Not Commit an Error of Law*

B. *La juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur de droit*

39

We note that our colleague bases his conclusion that the municipality met its standard of care on his finding that the trial judge neglected to consider the conduct of the ordinary motorist, and thus failed to apply the correct standard of care, an error of law, which justifies his reconsideration of the evidence (para. 114). As a starting point to the discussion of the ordinary or reasonable motorist, we emphasize that the failure to discuss a relevant factor in depth, or even at all, is not itself a sufficient basis for an appellate court to reconsider the evidence. This was made clear by the recent decision of *Van de Perre*, *supra*, where Bastarache J. says, at para. 15:

> . . . omissions in the reasons will not necessarily mean that the appellate court has jurisdiction to review the evidence heard at trial. As stated in *Van Mol (Guardian ad Litem of) v. Ashmore* (1999), 168 D.L.R. (4th) 637 (B.C.C.A.), leave to appeal refused [2000] 1 S.C.R. vi, an omission is only a material error if it gives rise to the reasoned belief that the trial judge must have forgotten, ignored or misconceived the evidence in a way that affected his conclusion. Without this reasoned belief, the appellate court cannot reconsider the evidence.

Nous soulignons que notre collègue fonde sa décision que la municipalité a respecté la norme de diligence sur sa conclusion que la juge de première instance a négligé de prendre en compte le comportement de l'automobiliste moyen et n'a donc pas appliqué la bonne norme de diligence, commettant ainsi une erreur de droit le justifiant de réexaminer la preuve (par. 114). Pour les besoins de l'analyse du critère de l'automobiliste moyen ou raisonnable, nous tenons au départ à signaler que l'omission d'examiner en profondeur un facteur pertinent, voire de ne pas l'examiner du tout, n'est pas en soi un fondement suffisant pour justifier une cour d'appel de réexaminer la preuve. Ce principe a été clairement énoncé dans l'arrêt récent *Van de Perre*, précité, où le juge Bastarache a dit ceci, au par. 15 :

> . . . des omissions dans les motifs ne signifieront pas nécessairement que la cour d'appel a compétence pour examiner la preuve entendue au procès. Comme le dit l'arrêt *Van Mol (Guardian ad Litem of) c. Ashmore* (1999), 168 D.L.R. (4th) 637 (C.A.C.-B.), autorisation d'appel refusée [2000] 1 R.C.S. vi, une omission ne constitue une erreur importante que si elle donne lieu à la conviction rationnelle que le juge de première instance doit avoir oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété la preuve de telle manière que sa conclusion en a été affectée. Faute d'une telle conviction rationnelle, la cour d'appel ne peut pas réexaminer la preuve.

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In our view, as we will now discuss, there can be no reasoned belief in this case that the trial judge forgot, ignored, or misconceived the question of the ordinary driver. It would thus be an error to engage in a re-assessment of the evidence on this issue.

À notre avis, comme nous allons le voir, la présente espèce ne peut faire naître la conviction rationnelle que la juge de première instance a oublié d'examiner la question du conducteur moyen, en a fait abstraction ou l'a mal interprétée. Il serait donc erroné de réexaminer la preuve relative à cette question.

40

The fact that the conduct of the ordinary motorist was in the mind of the trial judge from the outset is clear from the fact that she began her standard of care discussion by stating the correct test, quoting the above passage from *Partridge*, *supra*. Absent some clear sign that she subsequently varied her approach, this initial acknowledgment of the correct legal standard is a strong indication that this was the standard she applied. Not only is there no indication that she departed from the stated test, but there are further signs which support the conclusion that the trial judge applied the *Partridge* standard. The first such indication is that the trial judge did discuss, both explicitly and implicitly, the conduct of an ordinary or reasonable motorist approaching the curve. The second indication is that she referred to the evidence of the experts, Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, both of whom discussed the conduct of an ordinary motorist in this situation. Finally, the fact that the trial judge apportioned negligence to Mr. Nikolaisen indicates that she assessed his conduct against the standard of the ordinary driver, and thus considered the conduct of the latter.

Le fait que, dès le départ, la juge de première instance a eu à l'esprit la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen ressort clairement du fait qu'elle a commencé son examen de la norme de diligence en formulant le critère approprié, c'est-à-dire en citant le passage susmentionné de l'arrêt *Partridge*, précité. En l'absence d'indications claires qu'elle a subséquemment modifié sa méthode d'analyse, cette mention initiale de la norme juridique appropriée constitue un indice solide qu'il s'agit bien de la norme qu'elle a appliquée. Non seulement rien n'indique qu'elle s'est écartée du critère énoncé, mais d'autres indices étayent la conclusion qu'elle a appliqué le critère de l'arrêt *Partridge*. Le premier de ces indices est que la juge s'est bel et bien interrogée, tant explicitement qu'implicitement, sur la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen ou raisonnable s'approchant du virage. Le deuxième indice est qu'elle a fait état des témoignages des experts, MM. Anderson et Werner, qui ont tous deux analysé le comportement de l'automobiliste moyen se trouvant dans cette situation. Enfin, le fait que la juge de première instance ait imputé une partie de la responsabilité à M. Nikolaisen indique qu'elle a évalué sa conduite eu égard au critère du conducteur moyen, et qu'elle a donc pris en compte la conduite de ce dernier.

41

The discussion of the ordinary motorist is found in the passage from the trial judgment immediately following the statement of the requisite standard of care:

> Snake Hill Road is a low traffic road. It is however maintained by the R.M. so that it is passable year round. There are permanent residences on the road. It is used by farmers for access to their fields and cattle. Young people frequent Snake Hill Road for parties and as such the road is used by those who may not have the same degree of familiarity with it as do residents.

On trouve l'analyse relative à l'automobiliste moyen dans cet extrait du jugement de première instance qui suit immédiatement l'énoncé de la norme de diligence requise :

> [TRADUCTION] Le chemin Snake Hill est un chemin à faible débit de circulation. Il est néanmoins entretenu par la M.R. à longueur d'année afin de le garder carrossable. Des résidences permanentes sont situées en bordure de celui-ci. Les fermiers l'utilisent pour accéder à leurs champs et à leur bétail. Des jeunes gens empruntent le chemin Snake Hill pour se rendre à des fêtes, de sorte qu'il est utilisé par des conducteurs qui ne le connaissent pas toujours aussi bien que les résidents de l'endroit.

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There is a portion of Snake Hill Road that is a hazard to the public. In this regard I accept the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner. Further, it is a hazard that is not readily apparent to users of the road. It is a hidden hazard. The location of the Nikolaisen rollover is the most dangerous segment of Snake Hill Road. Approaching the location of the Nikolaisen rollover, limited sight distance, created by uncleared bush, precludes a motorist from being forewarned of an impending sharp right turn immediately followed by a left turn. While there were differing opinions on the *maximum* speed at which this curve can be negotiated, I am satisfied that when limited sight distance is combined with the tight radius of the curve and lack of superelevation, this curve cannot be *safely* negotiated at speeds greater than 60 kilometres per hour when conditions are favourable, or 50 kilometres per hour when wet.

. . . where the existence of that bush obstructs the ability of a motorist to be forewarned of a hazard such as that on Snake Hill Road, it is reasonable to expect the R.M. to erect and maintain a warning or regulatory sign so that a motorist, using ordinary care, may be forewarned, adjust speed and take corrective action in advance of entering a dangerous situation. [Underlining added; italics in original.]

([1998] 5 W.W.R. 523, at paras. 84-86)

42 In our view, this passage indicates that the trial judge did consider how a motorist exercising ordinary care would approach the curve in question. The implication of labelling the curve a "hidden hazard" which is "not readily apparent to users of the road", is that the danger is of the type that cannot be anticipated. This in turn implies that, even if the motorist exercises ordinary care, he or she will not be able to react to the curve. As well, the trial judge referred explicitly to the conduct of a motorist exercising ordinary care: "it is reasonable to expect the R.M. to erect and maintain a warning or regulatory sign so that a motorist, using ordinary care, may be forewarned, adjust speed and take corrective action in advance of entering a dangerous situation" (para. 86 (emphasis added)).

Il y a, sur le chemin Snake Hill, un tronçon qui présente un danger pour le public. À cet égard, je retiens les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner. En outre, il s'agit d'un danger qui n'est pas facilement décelable par les usagers du chemin. Il s'agit d'un danger caché. L'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau est situé sur le tronçon le plus dangereux du chemin Snake Hill. À l'approche de cet endroit, des broussailles réduisent la distance de visibilité de l'automobiliste et l'empêchent de voir l'imminence d'un virage à droite serré, qui est immédiatement suivi d'un virage à gauche. Bien que des opinions divergentes aient été émises quant à la vitesse *maximale* à laquelle ce virage peut être pris, je suis d'avis que, vu la distance de visibilité réduite, l'existence d'une courbe serrée et l'absence de surélévation du chemin, ce virage ne peut être pris *en sécurité* à une vitesse supérieure à 60 kilomètres à l'heure dans des conditions favorables, ou 50 kilomètres à l'heure sur chaussée humide.

. . . à l'endroit où la présence des broussailles empêche les automobilistes de voir venir un danger comme celui qui existe sur le chemin Snake Hill, il est raisonnable de s'attendre à ce que la M.R. installe et maintienne un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation afin qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales soit prévenu et puisse réduire sa vitesse et prendre des mesures correctives avant d'arriver à l'endroit dangereux. [Nous soulignons; en italique dans l'original.]

([1998] 5 W.W.R. 523, par. 84-86)

À notre avis, cet extrait indique que la juge de première instance a effectivement pris en compte la façon dont l'automobiliste prenant des précautions normales s'approcherait du virage en question. Qualifier le virage de [TRADUCTION] « danger caché », danger qui « n'est pas facilement décelable par les usagers du chemin », implique que le danger en est un qu'il est impossible de prévoir. Il s'ensuit que, même si l'automobiliste prend des précautions normales, il ne pourra pas réagir à la présence du virage. Par ailleurs, la juge de première instance a explicitement fait état de la conduite de l'automobiliste prenant des précautions normales : [TRADUCTION] « [I]l est raisonnable de s'attendre à ce que la M.R. installe et maintienne un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation afin qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales soit prévenu et puisse réduire sa vitesse et prendre des mesures correctives avant d'arriver à l'endroit dangereux » (par. 86 (nous soulignons)).

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With respect to the speed of a motorist approaching the curve, there is also an indication that the trial judge considered the conduct of an ordinary motorist. First, she stated that she accepted the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner with respect to the finding that the curve constituted a hazard to the public. The evidence given by these experts suggests that between 60 and 80 km/h is a reasonable speed to drive parts of this road, and at that speed, the curve presents a hazard. Their evidence also indicates their general opinion that the curve was a hazardous one. Mr. Anderson refers to the curve being difficult to negotiate at "normal speeds". Also, Mr. Anderson states that "if you're not aware that this curve is there, the sharp course of the curve, and you enter too far into it before you realize that the curve is there, then you have to do a tighter radius than 118 metres in order to get back on track to be able to negotiate the second curve". He also states that "you could be lulled into thinking you've got an 80 kilometres an hour road until you are too far into the tight curve to be able to respond".

43 Relativement à la vitesse à laquelle les automobilistes s'approchent du virage, il existe également un indice confirmant que la juge de première instance a pris en compte la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen. Premièrement, elle a dit qu'elle acceptait les témoignages de MM. Anderson et de Werner en ce qui concerne la conclusion que la courbe constituait un danger pour le public. Leurs témoignages suggèrent qu'une vitesse de 60 à 80 km/h est une vitesse raisonnable à certains endroits de ce chemin et que, à cette vitesse, la courbe constitue un danger. Leurs témoignages indiquent également qu'ils estiment de façon générale que la courbe est dangereuse. De dire M. Anderson, le virage est difficile à prendre à des [TRADUCTION] « vitesses normales ». Il ajoute que, [TRADUCTION] « si on ne connaît pas la présence de ce virage à cet endroit, le caractère prononcé du virage, et qu'on ne s'aperçoit pas qu'il y a un virage avant de s'être déjà engagé trop loin dans celui-ci, il faut tourner dans un rayon inférieur à 118 mètres pour corriger sa trajectoire afin d'être en mesure de prendre le deuxième virage ». Il affirme également qu' [TRADUCTION] « on peut être amené à croire qu'on se trouve sur une route où il est possible de rouler à 80 km/h, jusqu'à ce qu'on soit engagé trop loin dans le virage serré pour être capable de réagir ».

The Court of Appeal found that, given the nature and condition of Snake Hill Road, the contention that this rural road would be taken at 80 km/h by the ordinary motorist was untenable. However, it is clear from the trial judge's reasons that she did not take 80 km/h as the speed at which the ordinary motorist would approach the curve. Instead she found, based on expert evidence, that "this curve cannot be *safely* negotiated at speeds greater than 60 kilometres per hour when conditions are favourable, or 50 kilometres per hour when wet" (para. 85 (emphasis in original)). From this finding, coupled with the finding that the curve was hidden and unexpected, the logical conclusion is that the trial judge found that a motorist exercising ordinary care could easily be deceived into approaching the curve at speeds in excess of the safe speed for the curve, and subsequently be taken by surprise. Therefore, the trial judge found that the curve was hazardous to the ordinary

44 La Cour d'appel a jugé que, vu la nature et l'état du chemin Snake Hill, la prétention selon laquelle l'automobiliste moyen roulerait sur cette route rurale à 80 km/h était insoutenable. Toutefois, il ressort clairement des motifs de la juge de première instance qu'elle ne considérait pas que l'automobiliste moyen s'approcherait du virage à 80 km/h. Elle a plutôt conclu, à partir des témoignages des experts, que [TRADUCTION] « ce virage ne peut être pris *en sécurité* à une vitesse supérieure à 60 kilomètres à l'heure dans des conditions favorables, ou 50 kilomètres à l'heure sur chaussée humide » (par. 85 (en italique dans l'original)). De cette constatation, conjuguée à celle que le virage était caché et imprévu, il est logique de conclure que la juge de première instance a estimé que l'automobiliste prenant des précautions normales pouvait aisément être amené à s'approcher du virage à des vitesses supérieures à la vitesse sécuritaire pour le prendre, et se retrouver ensuite pris au dépourvu. La juge de première

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motorist and it follows that she applied the correct standard of care.

45 In our respectful view, our colleague errs in agreeing with the Court of Appeal's finding that the trial judge should have addressed the conduct of the ordinary motorist more fully (para. 124). At para. 119, he writes:

> A proper application of the test demands that the trial judge ask the question: "How would a reasonable driver have driven on this road?" Whether or not a hazard is "hidden" or a curve is "inherently" dangerous does not dispose of the question.

And later, he states, "In my view, the question of how the reasonable driver would have negotiated Snake Hill Road necessitated a somewhat more in-depth analysis of the character of the road" (para. 125). With respect, requiring the trial judge to have made this specific inquiry in her reasons is inconsistent with *Van de Perre*, *supra*, which makes it clear that an omission or a failure to discuss a factor in depth is not, in and of itself, a basis for interfering with the findings of the trial judge and reweighing the evidence. As we note above, it is clear that although the trial judge may not have conducted an extensive review of this element of the *Partridge* test, she did indeed consider this factor by stating the correct test, then applying this test to the facts.

46 We note that in relying on the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, the trial judge chose not to base her decision on the conflicting evidence of other witnesses. However, her reliance on the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner is insufficient proof that she "forgot, ignored, or misconceived" the evidence. The full record was before the trial judge and we can presume that she reviewed all of it, absent further proof that the trial judge forgot, ignored or misapprehended the evidence, leading to an error in law. It is open to a trial judge to prefer the evidence of some witnesses over others:

instance a donc conclu que le virage était dangereux pour l'automobiliste moyen et il s'ensuit qu'elle a appliqué la norme de diligence appropriée.

En toute déférence, notre collègue commet une erreur en souscrivant à la conclusion de la Cour d'appel selon laquelle la juge de première instance aurait dû examiner de manière plus approfondie la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen (par. 124). Il écrit ceci, au par. 119 :

> Pour bien appliquer le critère juridique, le juge de première instance doit se poser la question suivante : « Comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait-il roulé sur ce chemin? » Le fait de conclure qu'il existe ou non un danger « caché » ou qu'une courbe est quelque chose d'« intrinsèquement » dangereux ne vide pas la question.

Plus loin, il dit : « À mon avis, la question de savoir comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait roulé sur le chemin Snake Hill nécessitait un examen un peu plus approfondi de la nature du chemin » (par. 125). En toute déférence, considérer que la juge de première instance aurait dû faire cette analyse particulière dans ses motifs est incompatible avec l'arrêt *Van de Perre*, précité, lequel établit clairement que l'omission ou le défaut d'analyser un facteur en profondeur ne constitue pas, en soi, une raison justifiant de modifier les conclusions du juge de première instance et de réexaminer la preuve. Comme nous l'avons dit précédemment, il est clair que, quoique la juge de première instance n'ait peut-être pas fait une analyse approfondie de ce volet du critère énoncé dans l'arrêt *Partridge*, elle a effectivement tenu compte de ce facteur en formulant le critère approprié puis en l'appliquant aux faits de l'espèce.

Nous tenons à souligner que, en s'appuyant sur les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner, la juge de première instance a choisi de ne pas fonder sa décision sur les témoignages contradictoires rendus par d'autres témoins. Toutefois, cela ne suffit pas pour établir qu'elle a « oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété » la preuve. La juge de première instance disposait de l'ensemble du dossier et on peut présumer qu'elle l'a étudié d'un bout à l'autre, en l'absence d'autre indication qu'elle a oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété la preuve, commettant ainsi une erreur de droit. Le juge de première

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Toneguzzo-Norvell, *supra*, at p. 123. Mere reliance by the trial judge on the evidence of some witnesses over others cannot on its own form the basis of a "reasoned belief that the trial judge must have forgotten, ignored or misconceived the evidence in a way that affected his conclusion" (*Van de Perre*, *supra*, at para. 15). This is in keeping with the narrow scope of review by an appellate court applicable in this case.

instance peut retenir la déposition de certains témoins de préférence à d'autres : *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité, p. 123. Le fait pour le juge de première instance de s'appuyer sur certains témoignages plutôt que sur d'autres ne peut à lui seul fournir l'assise d'une « conviction rationnelle que le juge de première instance doit avoir oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété la preuve de telle manière que sa conclusion en a été affectée » (*Van de Perre*, précité, par. 15). Cette conclusion est compatible avec la portée restreinte de l'examen qu'il convient de faire en appel dans la présente affaire.

47

A further indication that the trial judge considered the conduct of an ordinary motorist on Snake Hill Road is her finding that both Mr. Nikolaisen and the municipality breached their duty of care to Mr. Housen, and that the defendant Nikolaisen was 50 percent contributorily negligent. Since a finding of negligence implies a failure to meet the ordinary standard of care, and since Mr. Nikolaisen's negligence related to his driving on the curve, to find that Mr. Nikolaisen's conduct on the curve failed to meet the standard of the ordinary driver implies a consideration of that ordinary driver on the curve. The fact that the trial judge distinguished the conduct of Mr. Nikolaisen in driving negligently on the road from the conduct of the municipality in negligently failing to erect a warning sign is evidence that the trial judge kept the municipality's legal standard clearly in mind in its application to the facts, and that she applied this standard to the <u>ordinary</u> driver, not the <u>negligent</u> driver.

Une autre indication que la juge de première instance s'est interrogée sur la façon dont conduit l'automobiliste moyen sur le chemin Snake Hill est sa conclusion que M. Nikolaisen et la municipalité ont tous deux manqué à leur obligation de diligence envers M. Housen, et que le défendeur Nikolaisen était responsable de négligence concourante dans une proportion de 50 p. 100. Comme une conclusion de négligence implique un manquement à la norme de diligence habituelle, et comme la négligence de M. Nikolaisen était liée à sa manière de conduire dans le virage, la conclusion que sa conduite à cet endroit ne respectait pas le critère du conducteur moyen suppose qu'on s'est demandé comment ce conducteur s'approcherait du virage. La distinction qu'a établie la juge de première instance entre la négligence dont a fait preuve M. Nikolaisen lorsqu'il roulait sur le chemin et celle dont la municipalité a fait montre en omettant d'installer un panneau d'avertissement prouve qu'elle n'a pas perdu de vue la norme juridique régissant la municipalité et l'application de cette norme aux faits, et que la juge a appliqué cette norme au conducteur <u>moyen</u>, et non au conducteur <u>négligent</u>.

48

To summarize, in the course of her reasons, the trial judge first stated the requisite standard of care from *Partridge*, *supra*, relating to the conduct of the ordinary driver. She then applied that standard to the facts referring again to the conduct of the ordinary driver. Finally, in light of her finding that the municipality breached this standard, she apportioned negligence between the driver and the municipality in a way which again entailed a consideration of the

En résumé, dans ses motifs la juge de première instance a d'abord énoncé la norme de diligence requise par l'arrêt *Partridge*, précité, relativement à la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen. Elle a ensuite appliqué cette norme aux faits, se reportant encore une fois à la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen. Enfin, vu sa conclusion que la municipalité avait manqué à cette norme de diligence, elle a réparti la responsabilité entre le conducteur

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ordinary driver. As such, we are overwhelmingly drawn to the conclusion that the conduct of the ordinary driver was both considered and applied by the trial judge.

et la municipalité d'une manière qui, une fois de plus, atteste la prise en compte du critère du conducteur moyen. En conséquence, nous en venons irrésistiblement à la conclusion que la juge de première instance a pris en compte et appliqué ce critère.

49 Thus, we conclude that the trial judge did not commit an error of law with respect to the municipality's standard of care. On this matter, we disagree with the basis for the re-assessment of the evidence undertaken by our colleague (paras. 122-42) and regard this re-assessment to be an unjustified intrusion into the finding of the trial judge that the municipality breached its standard of care. This finding is a question of mixed law and fact which should not be overturned absent a palpable and overriding error. As discussed below, it is our view that no such error exists, as the trial judge conducted a reasonable assessment based on her view of the evidence.

Par conséquent, nous estimons que la juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur de droit en ce qui concerne la norme de diligence à laquelle était tenue la municipalité. Sur ce point, nous ne souscrivons pas aux raisons sur lesquelles se fondent notre collègue pour réexaminer la preuve (aux par. 122 à 142) et nous considérons ce réexamen comme une intervention injustifiée relativement à la conclusion de la juge de première instance portant que la municipalité a manqué à la norme de diligence à laquelle elle était tenue. Cette conclusion porte sur une question mixte de droit et de fait et elle ne peut pas être infirmée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante. Comme nous le verrons plus loin, nous sommes d'avis qu'aucune erreur de cette nature n'a été commise, car la juge de première instance a fait une analyse raisonnable, fondée sur son appréciation de la preuve.

C. *The Trial Judge Did Not Commit A Palpable or Overriding Error*

C. *La juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur manifeste ou dominante*

50 Despite this high standard of review, the Court of Appeal found that a palpable and overriding error was made by the trial judge ([2000] 4 W.W.R. 173, 2000 SKCA 12, at para. 84). With respect, this finding was based on the erroneous presumption that the trial judge accepted 80 km/h as the speed at which an ordinary motorist would approach the curve, a presumption which our colleague also adopts in his reasons (para. 133).

Malgré cette norme de contrôle sévère, la Cour d'appel a jugé que la juge de première instance avait commis une erreur manifeste et dominante ([2000] 4 W.W.R. 173, 2000 SKCA 12, par. 84). En toute déférence, cette conclusion repose sur la présomption erronée selon laquelle la juge aurait accepté que l'automobiliste moyen approcherait du virage à 80 km/h, présomption qu'adopte également notre collègue dans ses motifs (par. 133).

51 As discussed above, the trial judge's finding was that an ordinary motorist could approach the curve in excess of 60 km/h in dry conditions, and 50 km/h in wet conditions, and that at such speeds the curve was hazardous. The trial judge's finding was not based on a particular speed at which the curve would be approached by the ordinary motorist. Instead, she found that, because the curve was hidden and sharper than would be anticipated, a motorist exercising ordinary care could approach it at greater than

Comme nous l'avons vu plus tôt, la conclusion de la juge de première instance était que l'automobiliste moyen pourrait s'approcher du virage à une vitesse supérieure à 60 km/h sur chaussée sèche, et 50 km/h sur chaussée humide, mais qu'à ces vitesses le virage était dangereux. Cette conclusion n'était pas fondée sur une vitesse précise à laquelle l'automobiliste moyen s'approcherait du virage. La juge de première instance a plutôt estimé que, parce que le virage est caché et plus serré que ce à quoi on

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the speed at which it would be safe to negotiate the curve.

s'attend normalement, il était possible qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales s'en approche à une vitesse supérieure à la vitesse sécuritaire pour prendre le virage.

52

As we explain in greater detail below, in our opinion, not only is this assessment far from reaching the level of a palpable and overriding error, in our view, it is a sensible and logical way to deal with large quantities of conflicting evidence. It would be unrealistic to focus on some exact speed at which the curve would likely be approached by the ordinary motorist. The findings of the trial judge in this regard were the result of a reasonable and practical assessment of the evidence as a whole.

Comme nous allons le préciser plus loin, nous sommes d'avis que non seulement cette appréciation est-elle loin de constituer une erreur manifeste et dominante, mais elle est une réponse judicieuse et logique eu égard à l'abondance d'éléments de preuve contradictoires. Il serait irréaliste de fixer une quelconque vitesse à laquelle l'automobiliste moyen s'approcherait vraisemblablement du virage. Les conclusions de la juge de première instance à cet égard découlent d'une évaluation raisonnable et réaliste de l'ensemble de la preuve.

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53

In finding a palpable and overriding error, Cameron J.A. relied on the fact that the trial judge adopted the expert evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner which was premised on a *de facto* speed limit of 80 km/h taken from *The Highway Traffic Act*, S.S. 1986, c. H-3.1. However, whether or not the experts based their testimony on this limit, the trial judge did not adopt that limit as the speed of the ordinary motorist approaching the curve. Again, the trial judge found that the curve could not be taken safely at greater than 60 km/h dry and 50 km/h wet, and there is evidence in the record to support this finding. For example, Mr. Anderson states:

> If you don't anticipate the curve and you get too far into it before you start to do your correction then you can get into trouble even at, probably at 60. Fifty you'd have to be a long ways into it, but certainly at 60 you could.

It is notable too that both Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner would have recommended installing a sign, warning motorists of the curve, with a posted limit of 50 km/h.

En concluant à l'existence d'une erreur manifeste et dominante, le juge Cameron de la Cour d'appel s'est appuyé sur le fait que la juge de première instance avait retenu les témoignages d'expert de MM. Anderson et Werner, lesquels étaient fondés sur la vitesse limite *de facto* de 80 km/h prévue par la *Highway Traffic Act*, S.S. 1986, ch. H-3.1. Toutefois, que le témoignage des experts ait été ou non fondé sur cette limite, la juge de première instance n'a pas retenu cette vitesse comme étant celle à laquelle l'automobiliste moyen s'approche du virage. Rappelons que la juge de première instance a estimé qu'il n'était pas possible d'aborder le virage en sécurité à une vitesse supérieure à 60 km/h sur chaussée sèche et 50 km/h sur chaussée humide, et il existe au dossier des éléments étayant cette conclusion. Par exemple, M. Anderson a dit ceci :

> [TRADUCTION] Si vous ne prévoyez pas l'arrivée du virage et que vous vous engagez trop loin dans celui-ci avant d'amorcer votre manœuvre correctrice, vous risquez d'avoir des ennuis même à, probablement à 60. À cinquante il faudrait que vous soyez engagé assez loin, mais à 60 vous pourriez certainement en avoir.

Il convient également de signaler que MM. Anderson et Werner auraient tous deux recommandé l'installation d'un panneau avertissant les automobilistes de l'imminence du virage et fixé la vitesse maximale permise à 50 km/h.

54

Although clearly the curve could not be negotiated safely at 80 km/h, it could also not be

Le virage ne pouvait manifestement pas être pris en sécurité à 80 km/h, mais il ne pouvait l'être non

negotiated safely at much slower speeds. It should also be noted that the trial judge did not adopt the expert testimony of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner in its entirety. She stated: "There is a portion of Snake Hill Road that is a hazard to the public. In this regard I accept the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner" (para. 85 (emphasis added)). It cannot be assumed from this that she accepted a *de facto* speed limit of 80 km/h especially when one bears in mind (1) the trial judge's statement of the safe speeds of 50 and 60 km/h, and (2) the fact that both these experts found the road to be unsafe at much lower speeds than 80 km/h.

plus à des vitesses beaucoup plus réduites. Il convient également de souligner que la juge de première instance n'a pas retenu intégralement les témoignages d'expert de MM. Anderson et Werner. Elle a dit : [TRADUCTION] « Il y a, sur le chemin Snake Hill, un tronçon qui présente un danger pour le public. À cet égard, je retiens les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner » (par. 85 (nous soulignons)). Ces propos ne permettent pas de présumer qu'elle acceptait une vitesse limite *de facto* de 80 km/h, particulièrement si l'on se rappelle (1) qu'elle a dit qu'on pouvait rouler en sécurité à des vitesses de 50 et de 60 km/h, et (2) que ces deux experts ont considéré que le chemin n'était pas sûr même à des vitesses bien inférieures à 80 km/h.

55 Given that the trial judge did not base her standard of care analysis on a *de facto* speed limit of 80 km/h, it then follows that the Court of Appeal's finding of a palpable and overriding error cannot stand.

Puisque la juge de première instance n'a pas fondé son analyse de la norme de diligence sur une vitesse limite *de facto* de 80 km/h, il s'ensuit que la conclusion de la Cour d'appel relativement à l'existence d'une erreur manifeste et dominante ne saurait être confirmée.

56 Furthermore, the narrowly defined scope of appellate review dictates that a trial judge should not be found to have misapprehended or ignored evidence, or come to the wrong conclusions merely because the appellate court diverges in the inferences it draws from the evidence and chooses to emphasize some portions of the evidence over others. As we are of the view that the trial judge committed no error of law in finding that the municipality breached its standard of care, we are also respectfully of the view that our colleague's re-assessment of the evidence on this issue (paras. 129-42) is an unjustified interference with the findings of the trial judge, based on a difference of opinion concerning the inferences to be drawn from the evidence and the proper weight to be placed on different portions of the evidence. For instance, in the opinion of our colleague, based on some portions of the expert evidence, a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would approach a rural road at 50 km/h or less, because a reasonable driver would have difficulty seeing the sharp radius of the curve and oncoming traffic (para. 129). However, the trial judge, basing her assessment on other portions of the expert evidence, found that the nature of the road was such that a motorist could be

En outre, vu la portée restreinte de la révision en appel, on ne saurait conclure qu'un juge de première instance a négligé d'examiner la preuve, l'a mal interprétée ou est arrivé à des conclusions erronées, simplement parce que le tribunal d'appel tire des inférences divergentes de la preuve et décide d'accorder plus d'importance à certains éléments qu'à d'autres. Étant d'avis que la juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur de droit en concluant que la municipalité avait violé la norme de diligence à laquelle elle était tenue, nous estimons aussi, en toute déférence, que le réexamen de la preuve auquel procède notre collègue sur cette question (aux par. 129 à 142) constitue une intervention injustifiée relativement aux conclusions de la juge de première instance, fondée sur une divergence d'opinions quant aux inférences devant être tirées de la preuve et au poids qu'il convient d'accorder à divers éléments. Par exemple, notre collègue est d'avis, sur la foi de certaines parties des témoignages d'expert, qu'un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales roulerait sur une route rurale à une vitesse maximale de 50 km/h, parce qu'il aurait de la difficulté à voir que le virage est serré et s'il vient des véhicules en sens inverse (par. 129). Or, se

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deceived into believing that the road did not contain a sharp curve and thus would approach the road normally, unaware of the hidden danger.

fondant sur d'autres parties des témoignages d'expert, la juge de première instance a estimé que la nature du chemin était telle qu'un automobiliste pourrait être amené à croire que le chemin ne comporte pas de virage serré et, de ce fait, à y rouler normalement, sans soupçonner l'existence du danger caché.

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57

We are faced in this case with conflicting expert evidence on the issue of the correct speed at which an ordinary motorist would approach the curve on Snake Hill Road. The differing inferences from the evidence drawn by the trial judge and the Court of Appeal amount to a divergence on what weight should be placed on various pieces of conflicting evidence. As noted by our colleague, Mr. Sparks was of the opinion that "[if] you can't see around the corner, then, you know, drivers would have a fairly strong signal . . . that due care and caution would be required". Similar evidence of this nature was given by Mr. Nikolaisen, and indeed even by Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner. This is contrasted with evidence such as that given by Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner that a reasonable driver would be "lulled" into thinking that there is an 80 km/h road ahead of him or her.

En l'espèce, nous sommes en présence de témoignages d'expert contradictoires sur la question de la vitesse à laquelle l'automobiliste moyen s'approcherait du virage du chemin Snake Hill. Les inférences différentes que la juge de première instance et la Cour d'appel tirent de la preuve équivalent à une divergence d'opinion quant au poids à accorder à divers éléments de preuve contradictoires. Le témoin Sparks a émis l'opinion suivante, que cite également notre collègue : [TRADUCTION] « [Si] vous ne pouvez voir, de l'autre côté du virage, alors, vous savez, cela devrait envoyer un message clair aux conducteurs [. . .] que l'attention et la prudence s'imposent ». M. Nikolaisen, et même MM. Anderson et Werner ont d'ailleurs témoigné au même effet. Cela contraste avec l'affirmation de MM. Anderson et Werner selon laquelle un conducteur raisonnable serait [TRADUCTION] « amené » à croire qu'il se trouve sur un chemin où l'on peut rouler à 80 km/h.

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As noted by McLachlin J. in *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, *supra*, at p. 122 and mentioned above, "the weight to be assigned to the various pieces of evidence is under our trial system essentially the province of the trier of fact". In that case, a unanimous Court found that the Court of Appeal erred in interfering with the trial judge's factual findings, on the basis that it was open to the trial judge to place less weight on certain evidence and accept other, conflicting evidence which the trial judge found to be more convincing (*Toneguzzo-Norvell*, at pp. 122-23). Similarly, in this case, the trial judge's factual findings concerning the proper speed to be used on approaching the curve should not be interfered with. It was open to her to choose to place more weight on certain portions of the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, where the evidence was conflicting. Her assessment of the proper speed was a reasonable inference based on the evidence and does not reach

Comme l'a souligné madame le juge McLachlin, à la p. 122 de l'arrêt *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité, « selon notre système de procès, il appartient essentiellement au juge des faits [. . .] d'attribuer un poids aux différents éléments de preuve ». Dans cette affaire, notre Cour a conclu à l'unanimité que la Cour d'appel avait commis une erreur en modifiant les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance, au motif qu'il était loisible à celui-ci d'accorder un poids moins grand à certains éléments de preuve et à accepter d'autres éléments contradictoires, qu'il considérait plus convaincants. (*Toneguzzo-Norvell*, p. 122-123). De même, en l'espèce, il n'y a pas lieu de modifier les conclusions de fait de la juge de première instance au sujet de la vitesse à laquelle il faudrait approcher du virage. Il lui était loisible d'accorder plus de poids à certaines parties des témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner, dans les cas où la preuve était contradictoire. Son

the level of a palpable and overriding error. As such, the trial judge's findings with respect to the standard of care should not be overturned.

appréciation de la vitesse appropriée constituait une inférence raisonnable, fondée sur la preuve, et elle ne constitue pas une erreur manifeste et dominante. Dans ce contexte, il n'y a pas lieu d'écarter ses conclusions concernant la norme de diligence.

IV. Knowledge of the Municipality

IV. Connaissance de la municipalité

59 We agree with our colleague that s. 192(3) of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, requires the plaintiff to show that the municipality knew or should have known of the disrepair of Snake Hill Road before the municipality can be found to have breached its duty of care under s. 192. We also agree that the evidence of the prior accidents, in and of itself, is insufficient to impute such knowledge to the municipality. However, we find that the trial judge did not err in her finding that the municipality knew or ought to have known of the disrepair.

À l'instar de notre collègue, nous estimons que le par. 192(3) de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, oblige le demandeur à démontrer que la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill pour qu'il soit possible de conclure qu'elle a manqué à l'obligation de diligence qui lui incombe en vertu de l'art. 192. Nous sommes nous aussi d'avis que la preuve des accidents antérieurs n'est pas, en soi, suffisante pour prêter cette connaissance à la municipalité. Cependant, nous arrivons à la conclusion que la juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur lorsqu'elle a conclu que la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin.

60 As discussed, the question of whether the municipality knew or should have known of the disrepair of Snake Hill Road is a question of mixed fact and law. The issue is legal in the sense that the municipality is held to a legal standard of knowledge of the nature of the road, and factual in the sense of whether it had the requisite knowledge on the facts of this case. As we state above, absent an isolated error in law or principle, such a finding is subject to the "palpable and overriding" standard of review. In this case, our colleague concludes that the trial judge erred in law by failing to approach the question of knowledge from the perspective of a prudent municipal councillor, and holds that a prudent municipal councillor could not be expected to become aware of the risk posed to the ordinary driver by the hazard in question. He also finds that the trial judge erred in law by failing to recognize that the burden of proving knowledge rested with the plaintiff. With respect, we disagree with these conclusions.

Comme nous l'avons vu, la question de savoir si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill est une question mixte de droit et de fait. Il s'agit, d'une part, d'une question de droit en ce que la municipalité est tenue à une norme juridique qui lui impose de connaître la nature du chemin, et, d'autre part, d'une question de fait en ce qu'il faut déterminer si, eu égard aux faits de l'espèce, elle avait la connaissance requise. Comme nous l'avons dit précédemment, en l'absence d'erreur de droit ou de principe isolable, une telle conclusion est assujettie à la norme de contrôle de l'erreur « manifeste et dominante ». En l'espèce, notre collègue conclut que la juge de première instance a commis une erreur de droit en ne considérant pas la question de la connaissance du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent, et il estime qu'on ne pouvait s'attendre à ce qu'un conseiller municipal prudent s'aperçoive du risque que le danger en question faisait courir au conducteur moyen. Il est également d'avis que la juge de première instance a commis une erreur de droit en ne reconnaissant pas que la charge de prouver la connaissance incombait au demandeur. En toute déférence, nous ne pouvons souscrire à ces conclusions.

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The hazard in question is an unsigned and unexpected sharp curve. In our view, when a hazard is, like this one, a permanent feature of the road which has been found to present a risk to the ordinary driver, it is open to the trial judge to draw an inference, on this basis alone, that a prudent municipal councillor ought to be aware of the hazard. In support of his conclusion on the issue of knowledge, our colleague states that the municipality's knowledge is inextricably linked to the standard of care, and ties his finding on the question of knowledge to his finding that the curve did not present a hazard to the ordinary motorist (para. 149). We agree that the question of knowledge is closely linked to the standard of care, and since we find that the trial judge was correct in holding that the curve presented a hazard to the ordinary motorist, from there it was open to the trial judge to find that the municipality ought to have been aware of this hazard. We further note that as a question of mixed fact and law this finding is subject to the "palpable and overriding" standard of review. On this point, however, we restrict ourselves to situations such as the one at bar where the hazard in question is a permanent feature of the road, as opposed to a temporary hazard which reasonably may not come to the attention of the municipality in time to prevent an accident from occurring.

61 Le danger en question est une courbe serrée et soudaine, qui n'est annoncée par aucune signalisation. À notre avis, lorsqu'un danger constitue, comme celui-ci qui nous intéresse, une caractéristique permanente qui, a-t-on jugé, présente un risque pour le conducteur moyen, le juge de première instance peut, pour ce seul motif, inférer qu'un conseiller municipal prudent aurait dû connaître l'existence d'un danger. Pour étayer sa conclusion sur la question de la connaissance, notre collègue affirme que la connaissance de la municipalité est intimement liée à celle de la norme de diligence, et il lie sa conclusion sur la connaissance à sa conclusion selon laquelle la courbe ne constituait pas un danger pour l'automobiliste moyen (par. 149). Nous reconnaissons que la question de la connaissance est étroitement liée à celle de la norme de diligence, et, comme nous estimons que la juge de première instance a eu raison de conclure que la courbe présentait un danger pour l'automobiliste moyen, elle pouvait dès lors juger que la municipalité aurait dû connaître ce danger. Soulignons également que cette conclusion visant une question mixte de fait et de droit est assujettie à la norme de contrôle de l'erreur « manifeste et dominante ». Sur ce point, toutefois, nous limitons la portée de notre opinion aux situations analogues à celle qui nous occupe, où le danger constitue une caractéristique permanente du chemin, par opposition à un danger temporaire dont une municipalité pourrait raisonnablement ne pas être informée en temps utile pour empêcher un accident de survenir.

In addition, our colleague relies on the evidence of the lay witnesses, Craig and Toby Thiel, who lived on Snake Hill Road, and who testified that they had not experienced any difficulties with it (para. 149). With respect, we find three problems with this reliance. First, since the curve was found to be a hazard based on its hidden and unexpected nature, relying on the evidence of those who drive the road on a daily basis does not, in our view, assist in determining whether the curve presented a hazard to the ordinary motorist, or whether the municipality ought to have been aware of the hazard. In addition, in finding that the municipality ought to have known of the disrepair, the trial judge clearly chose not to rely on the above evidence. As we state above,

62 Par ailleurs, notre collègue se fonde sur les dépositions de témoins ordinaires, Craig et Toby Thiel, qui habitaient sur le chemin Snake Hill et qui ont témoigné n'avoir jamais éprouvé de difficulté à conduire à cet endroit (par. 149). En toute déférence, nous estimons que le fait de se fonder sur ces témoignages pose trois problèmes. D'abord, vu la conclusion que la courbe constituait un danger à cause de sa nature cachée et imprévue, ce n'est pas en se basant sur le témoignage de ceux qui empruntent quotidiennement le chemin qu'il est possible, à notre avis, de déterminer si cette courbe présentait un danger pour l'automobiliste moyen, ou si la municipalité aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger. De plus, en concluant que la municipalité

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it is open for a trial judge to prefer some parts of the evidence over others, and to re-assess the trial judge's weighing of the evidence, is, with respect, not within the province of an appellate court.

aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin, la juge de première instance a clairement choisi de ne pas se fonder sur les témoignages susmentionnés. Comme nous l'avons dit précédemment, le juge de première instance peut préférer certaines parties de la preuve à d'autres, et, en toute déférence, il n'appartient pas au tribunal d'appel de procéder à nouveau à l'appréciation de la preuve, tâche déjà accomplie par le juge du procès.

63 As well, since the question of knowledge is to be approached from the perspective of a prudent municipal councillor, we find the evidence of lay witnesses to be of little assistance. In *Ryan*, *supra*, at para. 28, Major J. stated that the applicable standard of care is that which "would be expected of an ordinary, reasonable and prudent person in the same circumstances" (emphasis added). Municipal councillors are elected for the purpose of managing the affairs of the municipality. This requires some degree of study and of information gathering, above that of the average citizen of the municipality. Indeed, it may in fact require consultation with experts to properly meet the obligation to be informed. Although municipal councillors are not experts, to equate the "prudent municipal councillor" with the opinion of lay witnesses who live on the road is incorrect in our opinion.

Qui plus est, étant donné que la question de la connaissance doit être considérée du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent, nous estimons que le témoignage des témoins ordinaires est peu utile. Dans l'arrêt *Ryan*, précité, par. 28, le juge Major a dit que la norme de diligence qui s'applique est celle de la personne agissant aussi diligemment que « le ferait une personne ordinaire, raisonnable et prudente placée dans la même situation » (nous soulignons). Les conseillers municipaux sont élus pour gérer les affaires de la municipalité. Pour s'acquitter de cette tâche, il leur faut, dans un cas donné, examiner la situation et recueillir de l'information, faire davantage que ce que fait le simple citoyen de la municipalité. De fait, ils peuvent avoir à consulter des experts pour respecter leur obligation d'être informés. Bien que les conseillers municipaux ne soient pas des experts, il est à notre avis erroné d'assimiler le point de vue du « conseiller municipal prudent » à l'opinion de témoins ordinaires qui habitent sur le chemin.

64 It is in this context that we view the following comments of the trial judge, at para. 90:

> If the R.M. did not have actual knowledge of the danger inherent in this portion of Snake Hill Road, it should have known. While four accidents in 12 years may not in itself be significant, it takes on more significance given the close proximity of three of these accidents, the relatively low volume of traffic, the fact that there are permanent residences on the road and the fact that the road is frequented by young and perhaps less experienced drivers. I am not satisfied that the R.M. has established that in these circumstances it took reasonable steps to prevent this state of disrepair on Snake Hill Road from continuing.

C'est à la lumière de ce contexte que nous interprétons les commentaires suivants de la juge de première instance (au par. 90) :

> [TRADUCTION] Si la M.R. ne connaissait pas concrètement le danger intrinsèque que comporte cette portion du chemin Snake Hill, elle aurait dû le connaître. Le fait que quatre accidents se soient produits en 12 ans n'est peut-être pas significatif en soi, mais il le devient si l'on considère que trois de ces accidents sont survenus à proximité, qu'il s'agit d'une route à débit de circulation relativement faible, que des résidences permanentes sont situées en bordure de celle-ci et que le chemin est fréquenté par des conducteurs jeunes et peut-être moins expérimentés. Je ne suis pas convaincue que la M.R. a établi avoir, dans ces circonstances, pris des mesures raisonnables pour remédier au mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill.

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From this statement, we take the trial judge to have meant that, given the occurrence of prior accidents on this low-traffic road, the existence of permanent residents, and the type of drivers on the road, the municipality did not take the reasonable steps it should have taken in order to ensure that Snake Hill Road did not contain a hazard such as the one in question. Based on these factors, the trial judge drew the inference that the municipality should have been put on notice and investigated Snake Hill Road, in which case it would have become aware of the hazard in question. This factual inference, grounded as it was on the trial judge's assessment of the evidence, was in our view, far from reaching the requisite standard of palpable and overriding error, proper.

Selon notre interprétation, la juge de première instance a voulu dire que, compte tenu des accidents antérieurs sur ce chemin à faible débit de circulation, de la présence de résidents permanents et du type de conducteurs qui empruntent le chemin, la municipalité n'a pas pris les mesures raisonnables qu'elle aurait dû prendre pour faire en sorte que le chemin Snake Hill ne comporte pas de danger comme celui en cause. À partir de ces éléments, la juge de première instance a inféré que la municipalité aurait dû être informée de la situation sur le chemin Snake Hill et aurait dû faire enquête à cet égard, ce qui lui aurait permis de prendre connaissance de l'existence du danger. Cette inférence factuelle, qui repose sur l'appréciation de la preuve faite par la juge de première instance, était selon nous fondée et loin de constituer l'erreur manifeste et dominante requise par la norme pertinente.

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Although we agree with our colleague that the circumstances of the prior accidents in this case do not provide a direct basis for the municipality to have had <u>knowledge</u> of the particular hazard in question, in the view of the trial judge, they should have <u>caused the municipality to investigate</u> Snake Hill Road, which in turn would have resulted in actual knowledge. In this case, far from causing the municipality to investigate, the evidence of Mr. Danger, who had been the municipal administrator for 20 years, was that, until the time of the trial, he was not even aware of the three accidents which had occurred between 1978 and 1987 on Snake Hill Road. As such, we do not find that the trial judge based her conclusion on any perspective other than that of a prudent municipal councillor, and therefore that she did not commit an error of law in this respect. Moreover, we do not find that she imputed knowledge to the municipality on the basis of the occurrence of prior accidents on Snake Hill Road. The existence of the prior accidents was simply a factor which caused the trial judge to find that the municipality should have been put on notice with respect to the condition of Snake Hill Road (para. 90).

À l'instar de notre collègue, nous estimons que les circonstances des accidents survenus antérieurement, en l'espèce, ne constituent pas une preuve directe que la municipalité aurait dû avoir <u>connaissance</u> du danger particulier en cause, mais, selon la juge de première instance, ces circonstances auraient dû <u>inciter la municipalité à faire enquête à l'égard du chemin Snake Hill</u>, ce qui lui aurait permis de prendre connaissance concrètement du danger. Dans la présente affaire, les accidents antérieurs sont loin d'avoir incité la municipalité à faire enquête. D'ailleurs, M. Danger, administrateur de la municipalité pendant 20 ans, a témoigné que, jusqu'au procès, il n'était même pas au fait des trois accidents survenus entre 1978 et 1987 sur le chemin Snake Hill. En conséquence, nous n'estimons pas que la juge de première instance a fondé sa conclusion sur quelque autre point de vue autre que celui du conseiller municipal prudent, et elle n'a donc pas commis d'erreur de droit à cet égard. De plus, nous sommes d'avis qu'elle n'a pas prêté à la municipalité la connaissance requise sur la base des accidents antérieurs. L'existence de ces accidents ne constituait rien de plus qu'un des éléments qui l'ont amenée à conclure que la municipalité aurait dû être au fait de l'état du chemin Snake Hill (par. 90).

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We emphasize that, in our view, the trial judge did not shift the burden of proof to the municipality

Nous tenons à souligner que la juge de première instance n'a pas, à notre avis, transféré le fardeau de

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on this issue. Once the trial judge found that there was a permanent feature of Snake Hill Road which presented a hazard to the ordinary motorist, it was open to her to draw an inference that the municipality ought to have been aware of the danger. Once such an inference is drawn, then, unless the municipality can rebut the inference by showing that it took reasonable steps to prevent such a hazard from continuing, the inference will be left undisturbed. In our view, this is what the trial judge did in the above passage when she states: "I am not satisfied that the R.M. has established that in these circumstances it took reasonable steps to prevent this state of disrepair on Snake Hill Road from continuing" (para. 90 (emphasis added)). The fact that she drew such an inference is clear from the fact that this statement appears directly after her finding that the municipality ought to have known of the hazard based on the listed factors. Thus, it is our view that the trial judge did not improperly shift the burden of proof onto the municipality in this case.

la preuve à la municipalité sur cette question. Dès lors qu'elle a conclu qu'il existait sur le chemin Snake Hill une caractéristique permanente présentant un danger pour l'automobiliste moyen, il lui était loisible d'inférer que la municipalité aurait dû être au fait du danger. Dès l'instant où une telle inférence est tirée, elle demeure inchangée à moins que la municipalité ne puisse la réfuter en démontrant qu'elle a pris des mesures raisonnables pour faire cesser le danger. Selon nous, c'est ce que la juge de première instance a fait dans l'extrait précité lorsqu'elle dit : [TRADUCTION] « Je ne suis pas convaincue que la M.R. a établi avoir, dans ces circonstances, pris des mesures raisonnables pour remédier au mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill » (par. 90 (nous soulignons)). L'existence de cette inférence ressort clairement du fait que le passage précité suit immédiatement la conclusion de la juge de première instance selon laquelle, pour les raisons qu'elle énumère, la municipalité aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger. Par conséquent, nous sommes d'avis que la juge de première instance n'a pas fait erreur et transféré le fardeau de la preuve à la municipalité en l'espèce.

67 As well, although the circumstances of the prior accidents in this case do not provide strong evidence that the municipality ought to have known of the hazard, proof of prior accidents is not a necessary condition to a finding of breach of the duty of care under s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*. If this were so, the first victim of an accident on a negligently maintained road would not be able to recover, whereas subsequent victims in identical circumstances would. Although under s. 192(3) the municipality cannot be held responsible for disrepair of which it could not have known, it is not sufficient for the municipality to wait for an accident to occur before remedying the disrepair, and, in the absence of proof by the plaintiff of prior accidents, claim that it could not have known of the hazard. If this were the case, not only would the first victim of an accident suffer a disproportionate evidentiary burden, but municipalities would also be encouraged not to collect information pertaining to accidents on its roads, as this would make it more difficult for the plaintiff in a motor vehicle accident to prove that the

De même, bien que les accidents survenus antérieurement en l'espèce ne constituent pas une preuve solide que la municipalité aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger, la preuve d'accidents antérieurs n'est pas une condition nécessaire pour qu'un tribunal puisse conclure à la violation de l'obligation de diligence prévue par l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*. Si c'était le cas, la première victime d'un accident sur une route négligemment entretenue ne pourrait obtenir réparation, alors que les victimes subséquentes d'accidents survenant dans des circonstances identiques le pourraient. Bien que, au regard du par. 192(3), la municipalité ne puisse être tenue responsable du mauvais état d'une route dont elle n'aurait pu avoir connaissance, elle ne saurait se contenter d'attendre qu'un accident se produise avant de remédier au mauvais état de la route et, si un demandeur n'apporte pas la preuve de l'existence d'accidents antérieurs, soutenir qu'elle n'aurait pu connaître l'existence du danger. Dans cette hypothèse, non seulement imposerait-on à la première victime d'un accident un fardeau de preuve disproportionné, mais on encouragerait aussi

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municipality knew or ought to have known of the disrepair.

les municipalités à ne pas recueillir d'informations concernant les accidents survenant sur leurs routes, puisqu'il serait en conséquence plus difficile à la victime d'un accident d'automobile qui intente des poursuites de prouver que la municipalité visée connaissait le mauvais état de la route ou aurait dû le connaître.

68 Although in this case the trial judge emphasized the prior accidents that the plaintiff did manage to prove, in our view, it is not necessary to rely on these accidents in order to satisfy s. 192(3). For the plaintiff to provide substantial and concrete proof of the municipality's knowledge of the state of disrepair of its roads, is to set an impossibly high burden on the plaintiff. Such information was within the particular sphere of knowledge of the municipality, and in our view, it was reasonable for the trial judge to draw an inference of knowledge from her finding that there was an ongoing state of disrepair.

Bien que, en l'espèce, la juge de première instance ait souligné les accidents antérieurs dont le demandeur a effectivement prouvé l'existence, nous sommes d'avis qu'il n'est pas nécessaire de s'appuyer sur ces accidents pour satisfaire aux exigences du par. 192(3). Exiger du demandeur qu'il fournisse une preuve substantielle et tangible de la connaissance par la municipalité du mauvais état de ses routes revient à lui imposer un fardeau inacceptablement lourd. Il s'agit d'information relevant du domaine de connaissance de la municipalité et, selon nous, il était raisonnable que la juge de première instance infère de sa conclusion relative au mauvais état d'entretien persistant du chemin que la municipalité possédait la connaissance requise.

69 To summarize our position on this issue, we do not find that the trial judge erred in law either by failing to approach the question from the perspective of a prudent municipal councillor, or by improperly shifting the burden of proof onto the defendant. As such, it would require a palpable and overriding error in order to overturn her finding that the municipality knew or ought to have known of the hazard, and, in our view, no such error was made.

Pour résumer notre position sur cette question, nous ne pouvons conclure que la juge de première instance a commis une erreur de droit soit parce qu'elle aurait omis d'examiner la question du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent, soit parce qu'elle aurait à tort transféré le fardeau de la preuve à la défenderesse. Par conséquent, il faudrait une erreur manifeste et dominante pour écarter sa conclusion que la municipalité connaissait le danger ou aurait dû le connaître et, selon nous, aucune erreur de cette nature n'a été commise.

V. Causation

V. Lien de causalité

70 We agree with our colleague's statement at para. 159 that the trial judge's conclusions on the cause of the accident was a finding of fact: *Cork v. Kirby MacLean, Ltd.*, [1952] 2 All E.R. 402 (C.A.), at p. 407, quoted with approval in *Matthews v. MacLaren* (1969), 4 D.L.R. (3d) 557 (Ont. H.C.), at p. 566. Thus, this finding should not be interfered with absent palpable and overriding error.

Nous faisons nôtres les propos énoncés par notre collègue, au par. 159, selon lesquels la conclusion de la juge de première instance quant à la cause de l'accident était une conclusion de fait : *Cork c. Kirby MacLean, Ltd.*, [1952] 2 All E.R. 402 (C.A.), p. 407; cité et approuvé dans *Matthews c. MacLaren* (1969), 4 D.L.R. (3d) 557 (H.C. Ont.), p. 566. En conséquence, cette conclusion ne doit pas être modifiée en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante.

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71 The trial judge based her findings on causation on three points (at para. 101):

> (1) the accident occurred at a dangerous part of the road where a sign warning motorists of the hidden hazard should have been erected;
>
> (2) even if there had been a sign, Mr. Nikolaisen's degree of impairment did increase his risk of not reacting, or reacting inappropriately, to a sign;
>
> (3) even so, Mr. Nikolaisen was not driving recklessly such that one would have expected him to have missed or ignored a warning sign. Moments before, on departing the Thiel residence, he had successfully negotiated a sharp curve which he could see and which was apparent to him.

The trial judge concluded that, on a balance of probabilities, Mr. Nikolaisen would have reacted and possibly avoided an accident, if he had been given advance warning of the curve. However she also found that the accident was partially caused by the conduct of Mr. Nikolaisen, and apportioned fault accordingly, with 50 percent to Mr. Nikolaisen and 35 percent to the Rural Municipality (para. 102).

La juge de première instance a fondé ses conclusions au sujet du lien de causalité sur trois éléments (au par. 101) :

> (1) l'accident est survenu à un endroit dangereux du chemin, où un panneau de signalisation aurait dû être installé pour avertir les automobilistes du danger caché;
>
> (2) même s'il y avait eu un panneau de signalisation, le degré d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen avait accru chez lui le risque qu'il ne réagisse pas du tout ou de façon inappropriée à une signalisation;
>
> (3) malgré cela, M. Nikolaisen ne conduisait pas de façon si téméraire qu'il était à prévoir qu'il ne voit pas un panneau de signalisation ou n'en tienne pas compte. Quelques instants plus tôt, à son départ de la résidence des Thiel, il avait pris avec succès un virage serré qu'il pouvait clairement voir.

La juge de première instance a estimé que, selon la prépondérance des probabilités, M. Nikolaisen aurait réagi et peut-être évité l'accident si on lui avait signalé à l'avance la présence de la courbe. Toutefois, elle a également conclu que l'accident avait été causé en partie par la conduite de M. Nikolaisen, et elle a réparti la responsabilité en conséquence, soit dans une proportion de 50 p. 100 à M. Nikolaisen et de 35 p. 100 à la municipalité rurale (par. 102).

72 As noted above, this Court has previously held that "an omission is only a material error if it gives rise to the reasoned belief that the trial judge must have forgotten, ignored or misconceived the evidence in a way that affected his conclusion" (*Van de Perre, supra*, at para.15). In the present case, it is not clear from the trial judge's reasons which portions of the evidence of Mr. Laughlin, Craig and Toby Thiel and Paul Housen she relied upon, or to what extent. However, as we have already stated, the full evidentiary record was before the trial judge and, absent further proof that the omission in her reasons was due to her misapprehension or neglect, of the evidence, we can presume that she reviewed the evidence in its entirety and based her factual findings

Comme nous l'avons indiqué précédemment, notre Cour a jugé, dans une autre affaire, qu'« une omission ne constitue une erreur importante que si elle donne lieu à la conviction rationnelle que le juge de première instance doit avoir oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété la preuve de telle manière que sa conclusion en a été affectée » (*Van de Perre*, précité, par. 15). En l'espèce, les motifs de la juge de première instance n'indiquent pas clairement sur quelles parties des témoignages de M. Laughlin, de Craig et Toby Thiel et de Paul Housen elle s'est appuyée, ni dans quelle mesure elle l'a fait. Cependant, comme nous l'avons dit plus tôt, la juge de première instance disposait de l'ensemble de la preuve et, en l'absence d'autre élément

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on this review. This presumption, absent sufficient evidence of misapprehension or neglect, is consistent with the high level of error required by the test of "palpable and overriding" error. We reiterate that it is open to the trial judge to prefer the testimony of certain witnesses over others and to place more weight on some parts of the evidence than others, particularly where there is conflicting evidence: *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, *supra*, at pp. 122-23. The mere fact that the trial judge did not discuss a certain point or certain evidence in depth is not sufficient grounds for appellate interference: *Van de Perre*, *supra*, at para. 15.

indiquant que cette omission dans ses motifs résulte du fait qu'elle aurait mal interprété des éléments de la preuve ou négligé d'en examiner certains, nous pouvons présumer qu'elle a examiné l'ensemble de la preuve et que ses conclusions de fait reposaient sur cet examen. En l'absence de preuve établissant de façon suffisante qu'il y a eu mauvaise interprétation d'éléments de preuve ou négligence d'examiner certains de ceux-ci, cette présomption permet de conclure à l'absence d'erreur importante du type de celle requise pour satisfaire au critère de l'erreur « manifeste et dominante ». Nous tenons à rappeler que le juge de première instance peut préférer le témoignage de certains témoins et accorder plus de poids à certaines parties de la preuve qu'à d'autres, particulièrement en présence de preuves contradictoires : *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité, p. 122-123. Le simple fait que la juge de première instance n'a pas analysé en profondeur un point donné ou un élément de preuve particulier ne constitue pas un motif suffisant pour justifier l'intervention des tribunaux d'appel : *Van de Perre*, précité, par. 15.

73 For these reasons, we do not feel it appropriate to review the evidence of Mr. Laughlin and the lay witnesses *de novo*. As we concluded earlier, the trial judge's finding of fact that a hidden hazard existed at the curve should not be interfered with. The finding of a hidden hazard that requires a sign formed part of the basis of her findings concerning causation. As her conclusions on the existence of a hidden hazard had a basis in the evidence, her conclusions on causation grounded in part on the hidden hazard finding also had a basis in the evidence.

Pour ces motifs, nous n'estimons pas opportun d'examiner à nouveau les dépositions de M. Laughlin et des témoins ordinaires. Comme nous l'avons affirmé précédemment, il n'y a pas lieu de modifier la conclusion de fait de la juge de première instance selon laquelle la courbe présentait un danger caché. Ses conclusions touchant le lien de causalité reposent en partie sur cette conclusion relative à l'existence d'un danger caché nécessitant l'installation d'un panneau d'avertissement. Tout comme ses conclusions relatives à l'existence d'un danger caché, celles touchant le lien de causalité — fondées en partie sur le danger caché — avaient elles aussi des assises dans la preuve.

74 As for the silence of the trial judge on the evidence of Mr. Laughlin, we observe only that the evidence of Mr. Laughlin appears to be general in nature and thus of limited utility. Mr. Laughlin admitted that he could only provide general comments on the effects of alcohol on motorists, but could not provide specific expertise on the actual effect of alcohol on an individual driver. This is significant, as the level of tolerance of an individual driver plays a key role in determining the actual effect of alcohol on the

Pour ce qui est du silence de la juge de première instance concernant le témoignage de M. Laughlin, signalons simplement que ce témoignage paraît être de nature générale et, partant, d'une utilité limitée. M. Laughlin a reconnu qu'il ne pouvait faire que des observations générales quant aux effets de l'alcool sur les automobilistes, et non apporter une expertise particulière sur l'effet concret de l'alcool sur un conducteur donné. Il s'agit d'un point important, puisque le seuil de tolérance d'un conducteur donné

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motorist; an experienced drinker, although dangerous, will probably perform better on the road than an inexperienced drinker. It is noteworthy that the trial judge believed the evidence of Mr. Anderson that Mr. Nikolaisen's vehicle was travelling at the relatively slow speed of between 53 to 65 km/h at the time of impact with the embankment. It was also permissible for the trial judge to rely on the evidence of lay witnesses that Mr. Nikolaisen had successfully negotiated an apparently sharp curve moments before the accident, rather than relying on the evidence of Mr. Laughlin, which was of a hypothetical and unspecific nature. Indeed, the hypothetical nature of Mr. Laughlin's evidence reflects the entire inquiry into whether Mr. Nikolaisen would have seen a sign and reacted, or the precise speed that would be taken by a reasonable driver upon approaching the curve. The abstract nature of such inquiries supports deference to the factual findings of the trial judge, and is consistent with the stringent standard imposed by the phrase "palpable and overriding error".

joue un rôle essentiel dans la détermination de l'effet concret de l'alcool sur cet automobiliste; bien que dangereuse, la personne qui a l'habitude de boire se débrouillera probablement mieux sur la route qu'une personne qui n'en a pas l'habitude. Il convient de souligner que la juge de première instance a cru le témoignage de M. Anderson selon lequel le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen roulait à une vitesse relativement faible, soit entre 53 et 65 km/h, au moment de l'impact avec le remblai. Il lui était également permis de retenir les dépositions des témoins ordinaires selon lesquelles M. Nikolaisen avait réussi à prendre un virage apparemment serré quelques instants avant l'accident, plutôt que le témoignage de M. Laughlin, lequel était de nature hypothétique et générale. De fait, la nature hypothétique du témoignage de M. Laughlin est représentative de toute l'analyse de la question de savoir si M. Nikolaisen aurait aperçu un panneau de signalisation et aurait réagi en conséquence, ou à quelle vitesse précise un conducteur raisonnable s'approcherait du virage. Le caractère théorique de ces analyses justifie de faire montre de retenue à l'égard des conclusions factuelles de la juge de première instance et permet d'affirmer qu'on n'a pas satisfait à la norme rigoureuse imposée par l'expression « erreur manifeste et dominante ».

75 Therefore we conclude that the trial judge's factual findings on causation were reasonable and thus do not reach the level of a palpable and overriding error, and therefore should not have been interfered with by the Court of Appeal.

Par conséquent, nous estimons que les constatations factuelles de la juge de première instance concernant la causalité étaient raisonnables, qu'elles ne constituent donc pas une erreur manifeste et dominante et, partant, que la Cour d'appel n'aurait pas dû les modifier.

VI. Common Law Duty of Care

76 As we conclude that the municipality is liable under *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, we find it unnecessary to consider the existence of a common law duty in this case.

VI. Obligation de diligence prévue par la common law

Puisque nous concluons à la responsabilité de la municipalité en vertu de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, nous n'estimons pas nécessaire de nous demander s'il existe en l'espèce une obligation de diligence prévue par la common law.

VII. Disposition

77 As we stated at the outset, there are important reasons and principles for appellate courts not to interfere improperly with trial decisions. Applying

VII. Dispositif

Comme nous l'avons dit au départ, d'importantes raisons et d'importants principes commandent aux tribunaux d'appel de ne pas modifier indûment

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these reasons and principles to this case, we would allow the appeal, set aside the judgment of the Saskatchewan Court of Appeal, and restore the judgment of the trial judge, with costs throughout.

les décisions des tribunaux de première instance. Appliquant ces raisons et principes à la présente espèce, nous sommes d'avis d'accueillir le pourvoi, d'infirmer le jugement de la Cour d'appel de la Saskatchewan et de rétablir la décision de la juge de première instance, avec dépens devant toutes les cours.

The reasons of Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie and LeBel JJ. were delivered by

Version française des motifs des juges Gonthier, Bastarache, Binnie et LeBel rendus par

BASTARACHE J. (dissenting) —

LE JUGE BASTARACHE (dissident) —

I. Introduction

78

This appeal arises out of a single-vehicle accident which occurred on July 18, 1992, on Snake Hill Road, a rural road located in the Municipality of Shellbrook, Saskatchewan. The appellant, Paul Housen, a passenger in the vehicle, was rendered a quadriplegic by the accident. At trial, the judge found that the driver of the vehicle, Douglas Nikolaisen, was negligent in travelling Snake Hill Road at an excessive rate of speed and in operating his vehicle while impaired. The trial judge also found the respondent, the Municipality of Shellbrook, to be at fault for breaching its duty to keep the road in a reasonable state of repair as required by s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, S.S. 1989-90, c. R-26.1. The Court of Appeal overturned the trial judge's finding that the respondent municipality was negligent. At issue in this appeal is whether the Court of Appeal had sufficient grounds to intervene in the decision of the lower court. The respondent has also asked this Court to overturn the trial judge's finding that the respondent knew or ought to have known of the alleged disrepair of Snake Hill Road and that the accident was caused in part by the negligence of the respondent. An incidental question is whether a common law duty of care exists alongside the statutory duty imposed on the respondent by s. 192.

I. Introduction

Le présent pourvoi découle d'un accident impliquant un seul véhicule survenu le 18 juillet 1992 sur le chemin Snake Hill, route rurale située dans la municipalité de Shellbrook, en Saskatchewan. L'appelant, Paul Housen, qui était passager dans le véhicule, est devenu quadriplégique à la suite de cet accident. Au procès, la juge a conclu que le conducteur du véhicule, Douglas Nikolaisen, avait fait preuve de négligence en roulant à une vitesse excessive sur le chemin Snake Hill et en conduisant son véhicule pendant que ses facultés étaient affaiblies. La juge de première instance a également estimé que l'intimée, la municipalité de Shellbrook, avait commis une faute en manquant à l'obligation de tenir le chemin dans un état raisonnable d'entretien comme le lui impose l'art. 192 de la loi intitulée la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, S.S. 1989-90, ch. R-26.1. La Cour d'appel a infirmé la décision de la juge de première instance concluant à la négligence de la municipalité intimée. La question en litige dans le présent pourvoi consiste à déterminer si la Cour d'appel avait des motifs suffisants pour modifier la décision du tribunal de première instance. L'intimée demande également à notre Cour d'infirmer les conclusions de la juge de première instance portant que l'intimée connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétend-on, le chemin Snake Hill, et que l'accident a été causé en partie par sa négligence. Il faut également répondre à la question incidente de savoir si une obligation de diligence de common law coexiste avec l'obligation légale imposée à l'intimée par l'art. 192.

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79

I conclude that the Court of Appeal was correct to overturn the trial judge's finding that the respondent was negligent. Though I would not interfere with the trial judge's factual findings on this issue, I find that she erred in law by failing to apply the correct standard of care. I would also overturn the trial judge's conclusions with regard to knowledge and causation. In coming to the conclusion that the respondent knew or should have known of the alleged disrepair of Snake Hill Road, the trial judge erred in law by failing to consider the knowledge requirement from the perspective of a prudent municipal councillor and by failing to be attentive to the fact that the onus of proof was on the appellant. In addition, the trial judge drew an unreasonable inference by imputing knowledge to the respondent on the basis of accidents that occurred on other segments of the road while motorists were travelling in the opposite direction. The trial judge also erred with respect to causation. She misapprehended the evidence before her, drew erroneous conclusions from that evidence and ignored relevant evidence. Finally, I would not interfere with the decision of the courts below to reject the appellant's argument that a common law duty existed. It is unnecessary to impose a common law duty of care where a statutory duty exists. Moreover, the application of common law negligence principles would not affect the outcome in these proceedings.

J'estime que la Cour d'appel a eu raison d'infirmer la conclusion de la juge de première instance selon laquelle la municipalité intimée a été négligente. Je ne modifierais pas les conclusions de fait de la juge de première instance sur cette question, mais je suis d'avis qu'elle a commis une erreur de droit en n'appliquant pas la norme de diligence appropriée. J'infirmerais également ses conclusions en ce qui concerne la question de la connaissance et le lien de causalité. En concluant que l'intimée connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétend-on, le chemin Snake Hill, la juge de première instance a commis une erreur de droit en n'appréciant pas l'exigence relative à la connaissance du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent et en ne tenant pas compte du fait que le fardeau de la preuve incombait à l'appelant. De plus, la juge de première instance a tiré une inférence déraisonnable en prêtant à l'intimée la connaissance requise, en raison d'accidents survenus sur d'autres tronçons du chemin alors que des automobilistes circulaient en sens inverse. La juge de première instance a également commis une erreur relativement au lien de causalité. Elle a mal interprété la preuve qui lui était soumise, elle en a tiré des conclusions erronées et elle n'a pas tenu compte d'éléments de preuve pertinents. Enfin, je ne modifierais pas la décision des juridictions inférieures ayant rejeté l'argument de l'appelant selon lequel il existait une obligation de diligence de common law. Il est inutile d'imposer une obligation de common law lorsqu'il existe une obligation légale. Qui plus est, l'application des principes de la common law en matière de négligence n'aurait aucune incidence sur l'issue de la présente instance.

II. Factual Background

II. Les faits

80

The sequence of events which culminated in this tragic accident began to unfold some 19 hours before its occurrence on the afternoon of July 18, 1992. On July 17, Mr. Nikolaisen attended a barbeque at the residence of Craig and Toby Thiel, located on Snake Hill Road. He arrived in the late afternoon and had his first drink of the day at approximately 6:00 p.m. He consumed four or five drinks before leaving the Thiel residence at approximately

La suite d'événements ayant abouti au tragique accident a commencé quelque 19 heures avant l'accident lui-même, dans l'après-midi du 18 juillet 1992. Le 17 juillet, M. Nikolaisen a participé à un barbecue à la résidence de Craig et Toby Thiel, sur le chemin Snake Hill. Arrivé en fin d'après-midi, il a pris son premier verre de la journée vers 18 h. Il en a pris quatre ou cinq avant de quitter la résidence des Thiel vers 22 h ou 22 h 30. Après avoir passé

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10:00 or 10:30 p.m. After returning home for a few hours, Mr. Nikolaisen proceeded to the Sturgeon Lake Jamboree, where he met up with the appellant. At the jamboree, Mr. Nikolaisen consumed eight or nine double rye drinks and several beers. The appellant was also drinking during this event. The appellant and Mr. Nikolaisen partied on the grounds of the jamboree for several hours. At approximately 4:30 a.m., the appellant left the jamboree with Mr. Nikolaisen. After travelling around the back roads for a period of time, they returned to the Thiel residence. It was approximately 8:00 a.m. The appellant and Mr. Nikolaisen had several more drinks over the course of the morning. Mr. Nikolaisen stopped drinking two or three hours before leaving the Thiel residence with the appellant at approximately 2:00 p.m.

quelques heures chez lui, M. Nikolaisen s'est rendu au jamboree de Sturgeon Lake, où il a rencontré l'appelant. Sur les lieux du jamboree, M. Nikolaisen a consommé huit ou neuf ryes doubles et plusieurs bières. L'appelant buvait lui aussi. L'appelant et M. Nikolaisen ont fait la fête sur les lieux du jamboree pendant plusieurs heures. Vers 4 h 30, l'appelant a quitté le jamboree en compagnie de M. Nikolaisen. Après avoir roulé sur des routes de campagne pendant un certain temps, ils sont retournés à la résidence des Thiel. Il était environ 8 h. L'appelant et M. Nikolaisen ont pris plusieurs autres verres au cours de la matinée. M. Nikolaisen a cessé de boire deux ou trois heures avant de quitter la résidence des Thiel en compagnie de l'appelant vers 14 h.

A light rain was falling when the appellant and Mr. Nikolaisen left the Thiel residence, travelling eastbound with Mr. Nikolaisen behind the wheel of a Ford pickup truck. The truck swerved or "fish-tailed" as it turned the corner from the Thiel driveway onto Snake Hill Road. As Mr. Nikolaisen continued on his way over the course of a gentle bend some 300 metres in length, gaining speed to an estimated 65 km/h, the truck again fish-tailed several times. The truck went into a skid as Mr. Nikolaisen approached and entered a sharper right turn. Mr. Nikolaisen steered into the skid but was unable to negotiate the curve. The left rear wheel of the truck contacted an embankment on the left side of the road. The vehicle travelled on the road for approximately 30 metres when the left front wheel contacted and climbed an 18-inch embankment on the left side of the road. This second contact with the embankment caused the truck to enter a 360-degree roll with the passenger side of the roof contacting the ground first.

81 Une faible pluie tombait lorsque l'appelant et M. Nikolaisen ont quitté la résidence des Thiel et pris la route, en direction est, à bord d'une camionnette Ford conduite par M. Nikolaisen. L'arrière de la camionnette a zigzagué lorsque le véhicule a tourné à l'intersection de l'entrée de la résidence des Thiel et du chemin Snake Hill. Alors que M. Nikolaisen prenait un léger virage d'une longueur de quelque 300 mètres, tout en accélérant à 65 km/h environ, l'arrière de sa camionnette a zigzagué à nouveau à plusieurs reprises. La camionnette s'est mise à déraper lorsque M. Nikolaisen a amorcé un virage plus serré vers la droite. Il a donné un coup de volant, mais n'a pas réussi à prendre le virage. La roue arrière gauche de la camionnette a heurté un remblai situé du côté gauche du chemin. Le véhicule a continué sa course sur une distance d'environ 30 mètres, puis sa roue avant gauche est montée sur un remblai de 18 pouces du côté gauche du chemin, après l'avoir heurté. Sous la force du second impact, la camionnette a fait un tonneau complet, le toit du côté du passager touchant le sol en premier.

When the vehicle came to rest, the appellant was unable to feel any sensation. Mr. Nikolaisen climbed out the back window of the vehicle and ran to the Thiel residence for assistance. Police later accompanied Mr. Nikolaisen to the Shellbrook Hospital where a blood sample was taken. Expert testimony estimated Mr. Nikolaisen's blood alcohol level to be

82 Lorsque le véhicule s'est immobilisé, l'appelant n'éprouvait plus aucune sensation. M. Nikolaisen s'est hissé hors du véhicule par la fenêtre arrière et a couru chez les Thiel pour demander de l'aide. Plus tard, la police a accompagné M. Nikolaisen à l'hôpital de Shellbrook, où un échantillon de sang a été prélevé. Le témoignage d'expert a révélé

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between 180 and 210 milligrams in 100 millilitres of blood at the time of the accident, well over the legal limits prescribed in *The Highway Traffic Act*, S.S. 1986, c. H-3.1, and the *Criminal Code*, R.S.C. 1985, c. C-46.

que, au moment de l'accident, l'alcoolémie de M. Nikolaisen se situait entre 180 et 210 milligrammes par 100 milligrammes, taux largement supérieur à la limite permise par la loi intitulée la *Highway Traffic Act*, S.S. 1986 ch. H-3.1, et par le *Code criminel*, L.R.C. 1985, ch. C-46.

83 Mr. Nikolaisen had travelled on Snake Hill Road three times in the 24 hours preceding the accident, but had not driven it on any earlier occasions. The road was about a mile and three quarters in length and was flanked by highways to the north and to the east. Starting at the north end, it ran south for a short distance, dipped between open fields, then curved to the southeast and descended in a southerly loop down and around Snake Hill, past trees, bush and pasture, to the bottom of the valley. There it curved sharply to the southeast as it passed the Thiels' driveway. Once it passed the driveway, it curved gently to the south east for about 300 metres, then curved more distinctly to the south. It was on this stretch that the accident occurred. From that point on, the road crossed a creek, took another curve, then ascended a steep hill to the east, straightened out, and continued east for just over half a mile, past tree-lined fields and another farm site, to an approach to the highway.

M. Nikolaisen avait emprunté le chemin Snake Hill à trois reprises au cours des 24 heures ayant précédé l'accident, mais il n'y avait jamais circulé auparavant. Ce chemin, flanqué de routes au nord et à l'est, fait environ un mille et trois quarts de longueur. À partir de son extrémité nord, il franchit une courte distance en direction sud, traverse des champs, puis tourne vers le sud-est pour ensuite descendre en lacet vers le sud autour du mont Snake Hill, passant devant des arbres, buissons et pâturages, jusqu'au fond de la vallée. De là, il tourne brusquement vers le sud-est devant l'entrée de la résidence des Thiel. Tout de suite après, il tourne doucement vers le sud-est sur une distance d'environ 300 mètres, puis décrit une courbe plus prononcée vers le sud. C'est à cet endroit que l'accident s'est produit. De là, le chemin traverse un ruisseau, tourne encore, puis monte une pente raide vers l'est, se redresse et continue vers l'est sur une distance d'un peu plus d'un demi mille et passe devant des champs bordés d'arbres et une autre ferme, jusqu'à une voie d'accès à la route.

84 Snake Hill Road was established in 1923 and was maintained by the respondent municipality for the primary purpose of providing local farmers access to their fields and pastures. It also served as an access road for the two permanent residences and one veterinary clinic located on it. The road at its northernmost end, coming off the highway, is characterized as a "Type C" local access road under the provincial government's scheme of road classification. This means that it is graded, gravelled and elevated above the surrounding land. The portion of the road east of the Thiel residence, on which the accident occurred, is characterized as "Type B" bladed trail, essentially a prairie trail that has been bladed to remove the ruts and to allow it to be driven on. Bladed trails follow the path of least resistance through the surrounding land and are not elevated or gravelled. The

Construit en 1923, le chemin Snake Hill est entretenu par la municipalité intimée dans le but premier de permettre aux fermiers de la région d'accéder à leurs champs et pâturages. Il sert également de voie d'accès à deux résidences permanentes et à une clinique vétérinaire. Le tronçon nord du chemin, dont l'extrémité part de la route, est considéré comme un chemin d'accès local de « type C » selon le système provincial de classification des routes. Cela signifie qu'il est nivelé, gravelé et possède une chaussée surélevée. Le tronçon du chemin situé à l'est de la résidence des Thiel et sur lequel l'accident s'est produit est considéré comme un chemin nivelé de « type B », c'est-à-dire essentiellement un chemin dont les ornières ont été remplies pour le rendre carrossable. Les chemins nivelés suivent le tracé qui présente le moins d'obstacle à travers le terrain environnant et ne sont ni surélevés ni gravelés. La

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province of Saskatchewan has some 45,000 kilometres of bladed trails.

According to the provincial scheme of road classification, both bladed trails and local access roads are "non-designated", meaning that they are not subject to the Saskatchewan Rural Development Sign Policy and Standards. On such roads, the council of the rural municipality makes a decision to post signs if it becomes aware of a hazard or if there are several accidents at one specific spot. Three accidents had occurred on Snake Hill Road between 1978 and 1987. All three accidents occurred to the east of the site of the Nikolaisen rollover, with drivers travelling westbound. A fourth accident occurred on Snake Hill Road in 1990 but there was no evidence as to where it occurred. There was no evidence that topography was a factor in any of these accidents. The respondent municipality had not posted signs on any portion of Snake Hill Road.

III. Relevant Statutory Provisions

The Rural Municipality Act, 1989, S.S. 1989-90, c. R-26.1

192(1) Every Council shall keep in a reasonable state of repair all municipal roads, dams and reservoirs and the approaches to them that have been constructed or provided by the municipality or by any person with the permission of the council or that have been constructed or provided by the province, having regard to the character of the municipal road, dam or reservoir and the locality in which it is situated or through which it passes.

. . .

(2) Where the council fails to carry out its duty imposed by subsections (1) and (1.1), the municipality is, subject to *The Contributory Negligence Act*, civilly liable for all damages sustained by any person by reason of the failure.

province de Saskatchewan compte quelque 45 000 kilomètres de chemins nivelés.

85 Selon le système de classification des routes, tant les chemins nivelés que les chemins d'accès local sont [TRADUCTION] « non désignés », c'est-à-dire qu'ils ne sont pas visés par le document intitulé *Saskatchewan Rural Development Sign Policy and Standards* (« Politique et normes de signalisation routière en milieu rural en Saskatchewan »). Le conseil de la municipalité rurale installe des panneaux de signalisation sur ces chemins s'il constate l'existence d'un danger ou si plusieurs accidents se produisent au même endroit. Trois accidents sont survenus sur le chemin Snake Hill de 1978 à 1987. Tous ces accidents se sont produits à l'est de l'endroit où la camionnette de Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau et les véhicules concernés circulaient en direction ouest. Un quatrième accident s'est produit sur le chemin Snake Hill en 1990, mais aucune preuve indiquant l'endroit exact de l'accident n'a été présentée. Rien ne permettait de conclure que la topographie des lieux était à l'origine de l'un ou l'autre de ces accidents. La municipalité intimée n'avait installé aucun panneau signalisateur le long du chemin Snake Hill.

III. Les dispositions législatives pertinentes

86 *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, S.S. 1989-90, ch. R-26.1

[TRADUCTION]

192(1) Le conseil tient dans un état raisonnable d'entretien tous les chemins municipaux, barrages et réservoirs, ainsi que les accès à ces ouvrages qui ont été construits ou sont fournis par la municipalité ou par toute autre personne avec la permission du conseil ou qui ont été construits ou sont fournis par le gouvernement de la province, eu égard à la nature de l'ouvrage en question et à la localité où il est situé ou qu'il traverse.

. . .

(2) Lorsque le conseil omet de s'acquitter des obligations qui lui incombent en vertu des paragraphes (1) et (1.1), la municipalité est, sous réserve de la *Contributory Negligence Act* [*Loi sur le partage de la responsabilité*], civilement responsable des dommages subis par toute personne à la suite de ce manquement.

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(3) Default under subsections (1) and (1.1) shall not be imputed to a municipality in any action without proof by the plaintiff that the municipality knew or should have known of the disrepair of the municipal road or other thing mentioned in subsections (1) and (1.1).

The Highway Traffic Act, S.S. 1986, c. H-3.1

33(1) Subject to the other provisions of this Act, no person shall drive a vehicle on a highway:

(a) at a speed greater than 80 kilometres per hour; or

(b) at a speed greater than the maximum speed indicated by any signs that are erected on the highway . . . .

(2) No person shall drive a vehicle on a highway at a speed greater than is reasonable and safe in the circumstances.

44(1) No person shall drive a vehicle on a highway without due care and attention.

IV. Judicial History

A. *Saskatchewan Court of Queen's Bench*, [1998] 5 W.W.R. 523

87 Wright J. found the respondent negligent in failing to erect a sign to warn motorists of the sharp right curve on Snake Hill Road, which she characterized as a "hidden hazard". She also found Mr. Nikolaisen negligent in travelling Snake Hill Road at an excessive speed and in operating his vehicle while impaired. The appellant was held to be contributorily negligent in accepting a ride with Mr. Nikolaisen. Fifteen percent of the fault was apportioned to the appellant, and the remainder was apportioned jointly and severally 50 percent to Mr. Nikolaisen and 35 percent to the respondent.

88 Wright J. found that s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989* imposed a statutory duty of care on the respondent toward persons travelling on Snake Hill Road. She then considered whether the respondent met the standard of care as delineated in

(3) En cas d'action reprochant un manquement visé aux paragraphes (1) et (1.1) la responsabilité de la municipalité concernée n'est engagée que si le demandeur établit que cette dernière connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin municipal ou autre ouvrage mentionné aux paragraphes (1) et (1.1).

The Highway Traffic Act, S.S. 1986, ch. H-3.1

[TRADUCTION]

33(1) Sous réserve des autres dispositions de la présente loi, il est interdit de conduire sur une voie publique à une vitesse supérieure, selon le cas :

a) à 80 kilomètres à l'heure;

b) à la vitesse maximale indiquée par la signalisation routière le long de la voie publique en question . . .

(2) Il est interdit de conduire un véhicule sur une voie publique à une vitesse supérieure à celle qui est raisonnable et sécuritaire dans les circonstances.

44(1) Il est interdit de conduire un véhicule sur une voie publique sans faire preuve de la prudence et de l'attention nécessaires.

IV. L'historique des procédures judiciaires

A. *Cour du Banc de la Reine de la Saskatchewan*, [1998] 5 W.W.R. 523

La juge Wright a conclu que l'intimée avait fait preuve de négligence en omettant d'installer un panneau signalant aux automobilistes l'existence du virage à droite serré sur le chemin Snake Hill, virage qu'elle a qualifié de [TRADUCTION] « danger caché ». Elle a également estimé que M. Nikolaisen avait été négligent en roulant à une vitesse excessive sur le chemin Snake Hill et en conduisant son véhicule pendant qu'il avait les facultés affaiblies. L'appelant a été tenu responsable de négligence concourante parce qu'il avait accepté de monter à bord du véhicule de M. Nikolaisen. La responsabilité a été partagée ainsi : 15 p. 100 à l'appelant, le reste étant réparti solidairement entre M. Nikolaisen (50 p. 100) et l'intimée (35 p. 100).

La juge Wright a d'abord conclu que l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989* imposait à l'intimée une obligation légale de diligence envers les personnes circulant sur le chemin Snake Hill. Elle s'est ensuite demandée si l'intimée s'était

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s. 192 and the jurisprudence interpreting that section. She referred specifically to *Partridge v. Rural Municipality of Langenberg*, [1929] 3 W.W.R. 555 (Sask. C.A.), in which it was stated at p. 558 that "the road must be kept in such a reasonable state of repair that those requiring to use it may, exercising ordinary care, travel upon it with safety". She also cited *Shupe v. Rural Municipality of Pleasantdale*, [1932] 1 W.W.R. 627 (Sask. C.A.), at p. 630: "[R]egard must be had to the locality . . . the situation of the road therein, whether required to be used by many or by few; . . . to the number of roads to be kept in repair; to the means at the disposal of the council for that purpose, and the requirements of the public who use the road." Relying on *Galbiati v. City of Regina*, [1972] 2 W.W.R. 40 (Sask. Q.B.), Wright J. observed that although the Act does not mention an obligation to erect warning signs, the general duty of repair nevertheless includes the duty to warn motorists of a hidden hazard.

conformée à la norme de diligence énoncée à l'art. 192 et dans la jurisprudence portant sur l'interprétation de cet article. Elle a fait état, en particulier, de l'arrêt *Partridge c. Rural Municipality of Langenberg*, [1929] 3 W.W.R. 555, dans lequel la Cour d'appel de la Saskatchewan a déclaré, à la p. 558, que [TRADUCTION] « le chemin doit être tenu dans un état raisonnable d'entretien, de façon que ceux qui doivent l'emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité ». Elle a également cité le passage suivant de l'affaire *Shupe c. Rural Municipality of Pleasantdale*, [1932] 1 W.W.R. 627 (C.A. Sask.), p. 630 : [TRADUCTION] « [I]l faut tenir compte de la localité où est situé le chemin, [. . .] de son emplacement dans celle-ci, se demander s'il sera beaucoup ou peu fréquenté; [. . .] du nombre de chemins à entretenir; des ressources budgétaires dont dispose le conseil à cette fin et des besoins du public qui emprunte ce chemin ». Se fondant sur l'affaire *Galbiati c. City of Regina*, [1972] 2 W.W.R. 40 (B.R. Sask.), la juge Wright a fait observer que, bien que la Loi ne mentionne pas explicitement l'obligation d'installer des panneaux d'avertissement, l'obligation générale d'entretien comporte néanmoins celle de signaler aux automobilistes l'existence d'un danger caché.

89 Having laid out the relevant case law, Wright J. went on to discuss the character of the road. Relying primarily on the evidence of two experts at trial, Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, she found that the sharp right turning curve was a hazard that was not readily apparent to the users of the road. From their testimony she concluded (at para. 85):

Après avoir fait état de la jurisprudence pertinente, la juge Wright a poursuivi en examinant la nature du chemin. S'appuyant principalement sur les témoignages donnés par deux experts au procès, MM. Anderson et Werner, elle a conclu que le virage à droite serré constituait un danger que les usagers du chemin ne pouvaient voir aisément. De leurs témoignages, elle a tiré la conclusion suivante (au par. 85) :

It is a hidden hazard. The location of the Nikolaisen rollover is the most dangerous segment of Snake Hill Road. Approaching the location of the Nikolaisen rollover, limited sight distance, created by uncleared bush, precludes a motorist from being forewarned of an impending sharp right turn immediately followed by a left turn. While there were differing opinions on the *maximum* speed at which this curve can be negotiated, I am satisfied that when limited sight distance is combined with the tight radius of the curve and lack of superelevation, this curve cannot be *safely* negotiated at speeds greater

[TRADUCTION] Il s'agit d'un danger caché. L'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau est situé sur le tronçon le plus dangereux du chemin Snake Hill. À l'approche de cet endroit, des broussailles réduisent la distance de visibilité de l'automobiliste et l'empêchent de voir l'imminence d'un virage à droite serré, qui est immédiatement suivi d'un virage à gauche. Bien que des opinions divergentes aient été émises quant à la vitesse *maximale* à laquelle ce virage peut être pris, je suis d'avis que, vu la distance de visibilité réduite, l'existence d'une courbe serrée et l'absence de surélévation du chemin, ce

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than 60 kilometres per hour when conditions are favourable, or 50 kilometres per hour when wet. [Emphasis in original.]

virage ne peut être pris en sécurité à une vitesse supérieure à 60 kilomètres à l'heure dans des conditions favorables, ou 50 kilomètres à l'heure sur chaussée humide. [En italique dans l'original.]

Wright J. then noted that, while it would not be reasonable to expect the respondent to construct the road to a higher standard or to clear all of the bush away, it was reasonable to expect the respondent to erect and maintain a warning or regulatory sign "so that a motorist, using ordinary care, may be forewarned, adjust speed and take corrective action in advance of entering a dangerous situation" (para. 86).

La juge Wright a ensuite précisé que, bien qu'on ne puisse raisonnablement exiger de l'intimée qu'elle construise le chemin selon une norme plus élevée ou qu'elle enlève toutes les broussailles, il était raisonnable de s'attendre à ce qu'elle installe et maintienne un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation [TRADUCTION] « afin qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales soit prévenu et puisse réduire sa vitesse et prendre des mesures correctives avant d'arriver à l'endroit dangereux » (par. 86).

90 Wright J. then considered s. 192(3) of the Act, which provides that there is no breach of the statutory standard of care unless the municipality knew or should have known of the danger. Wright J. observed that between 1978 and 1990, there were four accidents on Snake Hill Road, three of which occurred "in the same vicinity" as the Nikolaisen rollover, and two of which were reported to the authorities. On the basis of this information, she held that "[i]f the R.M. [Rural Municipality] did not have actual knowledge of the danger inherent in this portion of Snake Hill Road, it should have known" (para. 90). Wright J. also found significant the relatively low volume of traffic on the road, the fact that there were permanent residences on the road, and the fact that the road was frequented by young and perhaps less experienced drivers.

La juge Wright a ensuite analysé le par. 192(3) de la Loi, qui prévoit qu'il n'y a manquement à l'obligation de diligence que si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger. Elle a rappelé que quatre accidents étaient survenus sur le chemin Snake Hill de 1978 à 1990. Trois de ceux-ci se sont produits [TRADUCTION] « aux environs » de l'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau, et deux ont été signalés aux autorités. Sur la base de cette information, elle a conclu que [TRADUCTION] « [s]i la M.R. [municipalité rurale] ne connaissait pas concrètement le danger intrinsèque que comporte cette portion du chemin Snake Hill, elle aurait dû le connaître » (par. 90). La juge Wright a également accordé de l'importance au débit relativement faible de la circulation sur le chemin, au fait que des résidences permanentes étaient situées en bordure de celui-ci et au fait que le chemin était fréquenté par des conducteurs jeunes et peut-être moins expérimentés.

91 In respect to causation, Wright J. found that it was probable that a warning sign would have enabled Mr. Nikolaisen to take corrective action to maintain control of his vehicle despite the fact of his impairment. She concluded (at para. 101):

En ce qui concerne le lien de causalité, la juge Wright a estimé qu'un panneau de signalisation aurait probablement permis à M. Nikolaisen de prendre des mesures correctives et de conserver la maîtrise de son véhicule, même si ses facultés étaient affaiblies. Elle a aussi tiré la conclusion suivante, au par. 101 :

Mr. Nikolaisen's degree of impairment only served to increase the risk of him not reacting, or reacting inappropriately to a sign. Mr. Nikolaisen was not driving recklessly such that he would have intentionally disregarded

[TRADUCTION] Le degré d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen n'a fait qu'accroître le risque qu'il ne réagisse pas du tout ou encore de façon inappropriée à une signalisation. M. Nikolaisen ne conduisait pas de façon si téméraire qu'il

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a warning or regulatory sign. He had moments earlier, when departing the Thiel residence, successfully negotiated a sharp curve which he could see and which was apparent to him.

Wright J. also addressed the appellant's argument that the municipality was in breach of a common law duty of care which was not qualified or limited by any of the restrictions set out under s. 192. She held that *Just v. British Columbia*, [1989] 2 S.C.R. 1228, and the line of authority both preceding and following that decision did not apply to the case before her given the existence of the statutory duty of care. She also found that any qualifying words in s. 192 of the Act pertained to the standard of care and did not impose limitations on the statutory duty of care.

B. *Saskatchewan Court of Appeal*, [2000] 4 W.W.R. 173, 2000 SKCA 12

On appeal, Cameron J.A., writing for a unanimous court, dealt primarily with the trial judge's finding that the respondent's failure to place a warning sign or regulatory sign at the site of the accident constituted a breach of its statutory duty of road repair. He did not find it necessary to rule on the issue of causation given his conclusion that the trial judge erred in finding the respondent negligent.

Cameron J.A. characterized the trial judge's conclusion that the respondent had breached the statutory duty of care as a matter of mixed fact and law. He noted that an appellate court is not to interfere with a trial judge's findings of fact unless the judge made a "palpable and overriding error" which affected his or her assessment of the facts. With respect to errors of law, however, Cameron J.A. remarked that the ability of an appellate court to overturn the finding of the trial judge is "largely unbounded". Regarding errors of mixed fact and law, Cameron J.A. noted that these are typically subject to the same standard of review as findings

aurait intentionnellement fait abstraction d'un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation. Quelques instants plus tôt, au moment de quitter la résidence des Thiel, il avait pris avec succès un virage serré qu'il pouvait clairement voir.

92 La juge Wright s'est également penchée sur l'argument de l'appelant voulant que la municipalité ait manqué à une obligation de diligence de common law qui ne serait pas atténuée ou restreinte par l'une ou l'autre des dispositions de l'art. 192. Elle a estimé que l'arrêt *Just c. Colombie-Britannique*, [1989] 2 R.C.S. 1228, ainsi que la jurisprudence antérieure et postérieure à cette décision ne s'appliquaient pas à l'affaire dont elle était saisie, vu l'existence de l'obligation légale de diligence. Elle a également jugé que les termes restrictifs de l'art. 192 de la Loi visaient la norme de diligence et n'avaient pas pour effet de limiter la portée de l'obligation légale de diligence.

B. *Cour d'appel de la Saskatchewan*, [2000] 4 W.W.R. 173, 2000 SKCA 12

93 En appel, exprimant la décision unanime de la cour, le juge Cameron s'est attaché principalement à la conclusion de la juge de première instance portant que, en omettant d'installer un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation à l'endroit de l'accident, l'intimée avait manqué à son obligation légale d'entretien des routes. Il n'a pas jugé nécessaire de se prononcer sur la question du lien de causalité, vu sa conclusion que la juge de première instance avait commis une erreur en déclarant l'intimée responsable de négligence.

94 Le juge Cameron a qualifié la conclusion de la juge de première instance que l'intimée avait manqué à son obligation légale de diligence de conclusion portant sur une question mixte de fait et de droit. Il a souligné qu'une cour d'appel ne doit pas modifier les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance à moins que ce dernier n'ait commis une « erreur manifeste et dominante » ayant faussé son appréciation des faits. Pour ce qui est des erreurs de droit, toutefois, le juge Cameron a fait remarquer que le pouvoir d'une cour d'appel d'infirmer la conclusion du juge de première instance est [TRADUCTION] « presque illimité ». En ce qui concerne les erreurs

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of fact. One exception to this, according to Cameron J.A., occurs where the trial judge identifies the correct legal test, yet fails to apply one branch of that test to the facts at hand. As support for this proposition, Cameron J.A. cited (at para. 41) Iacobucci J. in *Canada (Director of Investigation and Research) v. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 748, at para. 39:

> [I]f a decision-maker says that the correct test requires him or her to consider A, B, C, and D, but in fact the decision-maker considers only A, B, and C, then the outcome is as if he or she had applied a law that required consideration of only A, B, and C. If the correct test requires him or her to consider D as well, then the decision-maker has in effect applied the wrong law, and so has made an error of law.

95 Turning to the applicable law in this case, Cameron J.A. acknowledged that the standard of care set out in the Act and the jurisprudence interpreting it requires municipalities to post warning signs to warn of hazards that prudent drivers, using ordinary care, would be unlikely to appreciate. Based on the jurisprudence, Cameron J.A. set out (at para. 50) an analytical framework to be used in order to assess if a municipality has breached its duty in this regard. This framework requires the judge:

1. To determine the character and state of the road at the time of the accident. This, of course, is a matter of fact that entails an assessment of the material features of the road where the accident occurred, as well as those factors going to the maintenance standard, namely the location, class of road, patterns of use, and so on.

2. To assess the issue of whether persons requiring to use the road, exercising ordinary car[e], could ordinarily travel upon it safely. This is essentially a reasonable person test, one concerned with how a

mixtes de fait et de droit, le juge Cameron a précisé qu'elles sont normalement assujetties à la même norme de contrôle que les conclusions de fait. Selon le juge Cameron, cette règle générale souffre une exception, qui s'applique dans les cas où, bien que le juge du procès ait retenu le bon critère juridique applicable, il omet d'en appliquer un élément aux faits de l'affaire dont il est saisi. Au soutien de cette affirmation, le juge Cameron a cité, au par. 41, les propos suivants du juge Iacobucci dans l'arrêt *Canada (Directeur des enquêtes et recherches) c. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 R.C.S. 748, par. 39 :

> [Si] un décideur dit que, en vertu du critère applicable, il lui faut tenir compte de A, B, C et D, mais que, dans les faits, il ne prend en considération que A, B et C, alors le résultat est le même que s'il avait appliqué une règle de droit lui dictant de ne tenir compte que de A, B et C. Si le bon critère lui commandait de tenir compte aussi de D, il a en fait appliqué la mauvaise règle de droit et commis, de ce fait, une erreur de droit.

Relativement au droit applicable en l'espèce, le juge Cameron a reconnu que la norme de diligence énoncée dans la Loi et dans la jurisprudence portant sur l'interprétation de cette loi exige des municipalités qu'elles installent des panneaux de mise en garde pour signaler les dangers que les conducteurs prudents et prenant des précautions normales ne pourraient vraisemblablement pas mesurer. Se fondant sur la jurisprudence, le juge Cameron a établi, au par. 50, un cadre analytique permettant de déterminer si une municipalité a manqué à son obligation à cet égard. Suivant ce cadre, le juge doit examiner les aspects suivants :

[TRADUCTION]

1. Le juge doit déterminer la nature et l'état du chemin au moment de l'accident. Il s'agit, bien sûr, d'une question de fait, qui nécessite une appréciation des caractéristiques physiques du chemin à l'endroit où l'accident s'est produit, ainsi que de tous les facteurs se rapportant à la norme d'entretien, à savoir l'emplacement du chemin, le type de chemin dont il s'agit, les utilisations habituelles de celui-ci, et ainsi de suite.

2. Il soit se demander si les personnes qui devaient emprunter le chemin pouvaient généralement, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité. Il s'agit essentiellement du critère de la

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reasonable driver on that particular road would have conducted himself or herself. It is necessary in taking this step to take account of the various elements noted in the authorities referred to earlier, namely the locality of the road, the character and class of the road, the standard to which the municipality could reasonably have been expected to maintain the road, and so forth. These criteria fall to be balanced in the context of the question: how would a reasonable driver have driven upon this particular road? Since this entails the application of a legal standard to a given set of facts, it constitutes a question of mixed fact and law.

3. To determine either tha[t] the road was in a reasonable state of repair or that it was not, depending upon the assessment made while using the second step. If it is determined that the road was not in a reasonable state of repair, then it becomes necessary to go on to determine whether the municipality knew or should have known of the state of disrepair before imputing liability.

According to Cameron J.A., the trial judge did not err in law by failing to set out the proper legal test. She did, however, make an error in law of the type identified by Iacobucci J. in *Southam*, *supra.* In his view, when applying the law to the facts of the case, the trial judge failed to assess the manner in which a reasonable driver, exercising ordinary care, would ordinarily have driven on the road, and the risk, if any, that the unmarked curve might have posed for the ordinary driver. As noted by Cameron J.A., the trial judge "twice alluded to the matter, but failed to come to grips with it" (para. 57).

Cameron J.A. also found that the trial judge had made a "palpable and overriding" error of fact in determining that the respondent had breached the standard of care. According to Cameron J.A., the trial judge's factual error stemmed from her reliance on the expert testimony of Mr. Werner and Mr. Anderson. Cameron J.A. found that the evidence of both experts was based on the fundamental premise

personne raisonnable, qui sert à déterminer comment se serait comporté un conducteur raisonnable sur ce chemin en particulier. À cette étape, il faut tenir compte des nombreux facteurs énoncés dans la jurisprudence mentionnée précédemment, c'est-à-dire l'emplacement du chemin, la nature et le type du chemin, la norme d'entretien à laquelle on pouvait raisonnablement s'attendre d'une municipalité, et ainsi de suite. Ces facteurs doivent être soupesés dans le contexte de la question suivante : Comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait-il conduit son véhicule sur ce chemin en particulier? Puisque cette question suppose l'application d'une norme juridique à un ensemble donné de faits, elle constitue une question mixte de fait et de droit.

3. Il doit déterminer si le chemin était dans un état raisonnable d'entretien, compte tenu des conclusions tirées à la deuxième étape. S'il est établi que le chemin ne se trouvait pas dans un état raisonnable d'entretien, il faut alors déterminer si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état d'entretien avant de conclure à la responsabilité de celle-ci.

96

Selon le juge Cameron, la juge de première instance n'a pas commis d'erreur de droit en ce qui concerne le critère juridique applicable. Elle a cependant commis une erreur de droit du genre de celle exposée par le juge Iacobucci dans l'arrêt *Southam*, précité. À son avis, lorsqu'elle a appliqué le droit aux faits de l'espèce, la juge de première instance a omis, d'une part, de se demander comment un conducteur raisonnable, faisant montre de prudence normale, aurait conduit son véhicule sur ce chemin, et, d'autre part, d'évaluer le risque, s'il en est, que le virage non annoncé aurait pu constituer pour le conducteur moyen. Comme l'a souligné le juge Cameron de la Cour d'appel, la juge de première instance [TRADUCTION] « a évoqué la question à deux reprises, mais elle ne l'a pas abordée » (par. 57).

97

Le juge Cameron a également estimé que la juge de première instance avait commis une erreur de fait « manifeste et dominante » en concluant que l'intimée n'avait pas exercé le degré de diligence requis. Selon le juge Cameron, cette erreur de fait découlait de l'importance accordée par la juge Wright aux témoignages d'experts de MM. Werner et Anderson. À son avis, les témoignages de ces deux experts

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that the ordinary driver could be expected to travel the road at a speed of 80 km/h. In his view, this premise was misconceived and unsupported by the evidence.

reposaient sur la prémisse fondamentale qu'on pouvait s'attendre à ce que le conducteur moyen circule sur le chemin à une vitesse de 80 km/h. Selon lui, cette prémisse était erronée et n'était pas étayée par la preuve.

98 Cameron J.A. concluded that although the trial judge was free to accept the evidence of some witnesses over others, she was not free to accept expert testimony that was based on an erroneous factual premise. According to Cameron J.A., had the trial judge found that a prudent driver, exercising ordinary care for his or her safety, would not ordinarily have driven this section of Snake Hill Road at a speed greater than 60 km/h, then she would have had to conclude that no hidden hazard existed since the curve could be negotiated safely at this speed.

Le juge Cameron a conclu que, bien qu'il fût loisible à la juge de première instance d'accorder davantage foi à certains témoignages qu'à d'autres, il ne lui était pas loisible de retenir un témoignage d'expert fondé sur une prémisse factuelle erronée. Selon lui, si la juge de première instance avait estimé qu'un conducteur prudent prenant des précautions normales pour assurer sa sécurité n'aurait généralement pas roulé sur cette portion du chemin Snake Hill à plus de 60 km/h, alors elle aurait dû conclure à l'absence de danger caché puisque le virage pouvait être pris en sécurité à cette vitesse.

99 Cameron J.A. agreed with the trial judge that a common law duty of care was not applicable in this case. His remarks in this respect are found at para. 44 of his reasons:

Le juge Cameron a souscrit à l'opinion de la juge de première instance que l'obligation de diligence de common law ne s'appliquait pas en l'espèce. Il a fait les commentaires suivants à ce sujet, au par. 44 de ses motifs :

> Concerning the duty of care, it might be noted that unlike statutory provisions empowering municipalities to maintain roads, but imposing no duty upon them to do so, the duty in this instance owes its existence to a statute, rather than the neighbourhood principle of the common law: *Just v. British Columbia*, [1989] 2 S.C.R. 1228 (S.C.C.). The duty is readily seen to extend to all who travel upon the roads.

> [TRADUCTION] En ce qui concerne l'obligation de diligence, il convient de préciser que, contrairement aux dispositions législatives qui habilitent les municipalités à entretenir les chemins, sans toutefois leur imposer l'obligation de le faire, en l'espèce l'obligation doit son existence à une loi, plutôt qu'au principe de common law fondé sur la proximité : *Just c. Colombie-Britannique*, [1989] 2 R.C.S. 1228. On saisit immédiatement que l'obligation de diligence existe en faveur de tous ceux qui circulent sur les routes.

V. Issues

100 A. Did the Court of Appeal properly interfere with the trial judge's finding that the respondent was in breach of its statutory duty of care?

B. Did the trial judge err in finding the respondent knew or should have known of the alleged danger?

C. Did the trial judge err in finding that the accident was caused in part by the respondent's negligence?

V. Les questions en litige

A. La Cour d'appel a-t-elle eu raison de modifier la conclusion de la juge de première instance portant que l'intimée avait manqué à son obligation légale de diligence?

B. La juge de première instance a-t-elle commis une erreur en concluant que l'intimée connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le danger allégué?

C. La juge de première instance a-t-elle commis une erreur en concluant que l'accident a été en partie causé par la négligence de l'intimée?

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D. Does a common law duty of care coexist alongside the statutory duty of care?

D. Est-ce qu'une obligation de diligence de common law coexiste avec l'obligation légale de diligence?

VI. Analysis

VI. L'analyse

A. *Did the Court of Appeal Properly Interfere with the Decision at Trial?*

A. *La Cour d'appel a-t-elle eu raison de modifier la décision de la juge de première instance?*

(1) The Standard of Review

(1) La norme de contrôle

Although the distinctions are not always clear, the issues that confront a trial court fall generally into three categories: questions of law, questions of fact, and questions of mixed law and fact. Put briefly, questions of law are questions about what the correct legal test is; questions of fact are questions about what actually took place between the parties; and questions of mixed law and fact are questions about whether the facts satisfy the legal tests (*Southam, supra*, at para. 35).

101 Bien qu'elles ne soient pas toujours faciles à distinguer, les questions auxquelles doit répondre un tribunal de première instance se classent généralement en trois catégories : les questions de droit, les questions de fait et les questions mixtes de fait et de droit. En résumé, les questions de droit concernent la détermination du critère juridique applicable; les questions de fait portent sur ce qui s'est réellement passé entre les parties et les questions mixtes de fait et de droit consistent à déterminer si les faits satisfont au critère juridique (*Southam*, précité, par. 35).

Of the three categories above, the highest degree of deference is accorded to the trial judge's findings of fact. The Court will not overturn a factual finding unless it is palpably and overridingly, or clearly wrong (*Southam, supra*, at para. 60; *Stein v. The Ship "Kathy K"*, [1976] 2 S.C.R. 802, at p. 808; *Toneguzzo-Norvell (Guardian ad litem of) v. Burnaby Hospital*, [1994] 1 S.C.R. 114, at p. 121). This deference is principally grounded in the recognition that only the trial judge enjoys the opportunity to observe witnesses and to hear testimony first-hand, and is therefore better able to choose between competing versions of events (*Schwartz v. Canada*, [1996] 1 S.C.R. 254, at para. 32). It is however important to recognize that the making of a factual finding often involves more than merely determining the who, what, where and when of the case. The trial judge is very often called upon to draw inferences from the facts that are put before the court. For example, in this case, the trial judge inferred from the fact of accidents having occurred on Snake Hill Road

102 De ces trois catégories, ce sont les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance qui commandent le degré le plus élevé de retenue. La Cour ne modifie les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance que si celui-ci a commis une erreur manifeste ou dominante ou si la conclusion est manifestement erronée (*Southam*, précité, par. 60; *Stein c. Le navire « Kathy K »*, [1976] 2 R.C.S. 802, p. 808; *Toneguzzo-Norvell (Tutrice à l'instance de) c. Burnaby Hospital*, [1994] 1 R.C.S. 114, p. 121). Cette retenue repose principalement sur le fait que, puisqu'il est le seul à avoir l'occasion d'observer les témoins et d'entendre les témoignages de vive voix, le juge de première instance est en conséquence plus à même de choisir entre deux versions divergentes d'un même événement (*Schwartz c. Canada*, [1996] 1 R.C.S. 254, par. 32). Cependant, il est important de reconnaître que tirer une conclusion de fait implique souvent davantage que le simple fait de déterminer qui a fait quoi, ainsi que où et quand il l'a fait. Le juge de première instance est très souvent appelé à faire des inférences à partir des faits qui lui sont

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that the respondent knew or should have known of the hidden danger.

présentés. En l'espèce, par exemple, la juge de première instance a inféré du fait que des accidents s'étaient produits sur le chemin Snake Hill que l'intimée connaissait ou aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger caché.

103 This Court has determined that a trial judge's inferences of fact should be accorded a similar degree of deference as findings of fact (*Geffen v. Goodman Estate*, [1991] 2 S.C.R. 353). In reviewing the making of an inference, the appeal court will verify whether it can reasonably be supported by the findings of fact that the trial judge reached and whether the judge proceeded on proper legal principles. I respectfully disagree with the majority's view that inferences can be rejected only where the inference-drawing process itself is deficient: see *Toronto (City) Board of Education v. O.S.S.T.F., District 15*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 487, at para. 45:

> When a court is reviewing a tribunal's findings of fact or the inferences made on the basis of the evidence, it can only intervene "where the evidence, viewed reasonably, is incapable of supporting a tribunal's findings of fact": *Lester (W. W.) (1978) Ltd. v. United Association of Journeymen and Apprentices of the Plumbing and Pipefitting Industry, Local 740*, [1990] 3 S.C.R. 644, at p. 669 *per* McLachlin J.

An inference can be clearly wrong where the factual basis upon which it relies is deficient or where the legal standard to which the facts are applied is misconstrued. My colleagues recognize themselves that a judge is often called upon to make inferences of mixed law and fact (para. 26). While the standard of review is identical for both findings of fact and inferences of fact, it is nonetheless important to draw an analytical distinction between the two. If the reviewing court were to review only for errors of fact, then the decision of the trial judge would necessarily be upheld in every case where evidence existed to support his or her factual findings. In my view, this Court is entitled to conclude that inferences made by the trial judge were clearly wrong, just as it is entitled to reach this conclusion in respect to findings of fact.

Notre Cour a jugé qu'il fallait appliquer aux inférences de fait du juge de première instance le même degré de retenue qu'à ses conclusions de fait (*Geffen c. Succession Goodman*, [1991] 2 R.C.S. 353). La cour d'appel qui contrôle la validité d'une inférence se demande si celle-ci peut raisonnablement être étayée par les conclusions de fait tirées par le juge de première instance et si celui-ci a appliqué les principes juridiques appropriés. En toute déférence, je ne partage pas l'opinion de la majorité selon laquelle des inférences ne peuvent être rejetées que dans les cas où le processus qui les a produites est lui-même déficient : voir *Conseil de l'éducation de Toronto (Cité) c. F.E.E.E.S.O., district 15*, [1997] 1 R.C.S. 487, par. 45 :

> Lorsqu'une cour de justice contrôle les conclusions de fait d'un tribunal administratif ou les inférences qu'il a tirées de la preuve, elle ne peut intervenir que « lorsque les éléments de preuve, perçus de façon raisonnable, ne peuvent étayer les conclusions de fait du tribunal » : *Lester (W.W.) (1978) Ltd. c. Association unie des compagnons et apprentis de l'industrie de la plomberie et de la tuyauterie, section locale 740*, [1990] 3 R.C.S. 644, à la p. 669, le juge McLachlin.

Une inférence peut être manifestement erronée si ses assises factuelles présentent des lacunes ou si la norme juridique appliquée aux faits est mal interprétée. Mes collègues eux-mêmes reconnaissent qu'un juge est souvent appelé à tirer des inférences mixtes de fait et droit (par. 26). Bien que la norme de contrôle soit la même et pour les conclusions de fait et pour les inférences de fait, il importe néanmoins de faire une distinction analytique entre les deux. Si le tribunal de révision ne faisait que vérifier s'il y a des erreurs de fait, la décision du juge de première instance serait alors nécessairement confirmée dans tous les cas où il existe des éléments de preuve étayant les conclusions de fait de ce dernier. Selon moi, notre Cour a le droit de conclure que les inférences du juge de première instance étaient manifestement erronées, tout comme elle peut le faire à l'égard des conclusions de fait.

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My colleagues take issue with the above statement that an appellate court will verify whether the making of an inference can reasonably be supported by the trial judge's findings of fact, a standard which they believe to be less strict than the "palpable and overriding" standard. I do not agree that a less strict standard is implied. In my view there is no difference between concluding that it was "unreasonable" or "palpably wrong" for a trial judge to draw an inference from the facts as found by him or her and concluding that the inference was not reasonably supported by those facts. The distinction is merely semantic.

By contrast, an appellate court reviews a trial judge's findings on questions of law not merely to determine if they are reasonable, but rather to determine if they are correct; *Moge v. Moge*, [1992] 3 S.C.R. 813, at p. 833; *R. v. Nova Scotia Pharmaceutical Society*, [1992] 2 S.C.R. 606, at p. 647; R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994), at p. 90. The role of correcting errors of law is a primary function of the appellate court; therefore, that court can and should review the legal determinations of the lower courts for correctness.

In the law of negligence, the question of whether the conduct of the defendant has met the appropriate standard of care is necessarily a question of mixed fact and law. Once the facts have been established, the determination of whether or not the standard of care was met by the defendant will in most cases be reviewable on a standard of correctness since the trial judge must appreciate the facts within the context of the appropriate standard of care. In many cases, viewing the facts through the legal lens of the standard of care gives rise to a policy-making or law-setting function that is the purview of both the trial and appellate courts. As stated by Kerans, *supra*, at p. 103, "[t]he evaluation of facts as meeting or not meeting a legal test is a process that involves law-making. Moreover, it is probably correct to say that *every* new attempt to apply a legal rule to a set of

104 Mes collègues ne sont pas d'accord avec l'énoncé susmentionné — savoir celui portant que la cour d'appel se demande si une inférence peut raisonnablement être étayée par les conclusions de fait tirées par le juge de première instance — estimant qu'il s'agit d'une norme de contrôle moins exigeante que celle de l'erreur « manifeste et dominante ». Pour ma part, je ne crois pas que cet énoncé implique l'application d'une norme moins exigeante. À mon avis, il n'y a aucune différence entre le fait de conclure qu'il était « déraisonnable » ou « manifestement erroné » pour un juge de tirer une inférence des faits qu'il a constatés, et le fait de conclure que cette inférence n'était pas raisonnablement étayée par ces faits. La distinction est purement sémantique.

105 En revanche, une cour d'appel ne contrôle pas les conclusions tirées par le juge de première instance à l'égard des questions de droit simplement pour déterminer si elles sont raisonnables, mais plutôt pour déterminer si elles sont correctes : *Moge c. Moge*, [1992] 3 R.C.S. 813, p. 833; *R. c. Nova Scotia Pharmaceutical Society*, [1992] 2 R.C.S. 606, p. 647; R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994), p. 90. Un des rôles principaux d'une cour d'appel consiste à corriger les erreurs de droit et, par conséquent, cette cour peut et doit vérifier si les conclusions juridiques de la juridiction inférieure sont correctes.

106 Dans le contexte du droit relatif à la négligence, la question de savoir si la conduite du défendeur est conforme à la norme de diligence appropriée est forcément une question mixte de fait et de droit. Une fois les faits établis, la décision touchant la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté ou non la norme de diligence est, dans la plupart des cas, contrôlable selon la norme de la décision correcte, puisque le juge de première instance doit apprécier les faits au regard de la norme de diligence appropriée. Dans bien des cas, l'examen des faits à travers le prisme juridique de la norme de diligence implique l'établissement de politiques d'intérêt général ou la création de règles de droit, rôle qui relève autant des cours de première instance que des cours d'appel. Comme l'a dit Kerans, *op. cit.*, p. 103, [TRADUCTION] « [l]'examen de la

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facts involves some measure of interpretation of that rule, and thus more law-making" (emphasis in original).

question de savoir si les faits satisfont ou non à un critère juridique donné est un processus qui implique une fonction créatrice de droit. Qui plus est, il est probablement exact d'affirmer que *chaque* nouvelle tentative d'appliquer une règle de droit à un ensemble de faits emporte une certaine interprétation de cette règle et, partant, l'élaboration de règles de droit additionnelles » (en italique dans l'original).

107 In a negligence case, the trial judge is called on to decide whether the conduct of the defendant was reasonable under all the circumstances. While this determination involves questions of fact, it also requires the trial judge to assess what is reasonable. As stated above, in many cases, this will involve a policy-making or "law-setting" role which an appellate court is better situated to undertake (Kerans, *supra*, at pp. 5-10). For example, in this case, the degree of knowledge that the trial judge should have imputed to the reasonably prudent municipal councillor raised the policy consideration of the type of accident-reporting system that a small rural municipality with limited resources should be expected to maintain. This law-setting role was recognized by the United States Supreme Court in *Bose Corp. v. Consumers Union of U.S., Inc.*, 466 U.S. 485 (1984), at note 17, within the context of an action for defamation:

> A finding of fact in some cases is inseparable from the principles through which it was deduced. At some point, the reasoning by which a fact is "found" crosses the line between application of those ordinary principles of logic and common experience which are ordinarily entrusted to the finder of fact into the realm of a legal rule upon which the reviewing court must exercise its own independent judgment. Where the line is drawn varies according to the nature of the substantive law at issue. Regarding certain largely factual questions in some areas of the law, the stakes — in terms of impact on future cases and future conduct — are too great to entrust them finally to the judgment of the trier of fact.

Dans une affaire de négligence, le juge de première instance est appelé à décider si la conduite du défendeur était raisonnable eu égard à toutes les circonstances. Bien que la prise de cette décision demande l'examen de questions de fait, elle exige également du juge de première instance qu'il établisse ce qui est raisonnable. Comme il a été mentionné plus tôt, dans bien des cas cette décision implique l'établissement de politiques d'intérêt général ou la « création de règles de droit », rôle qu'une cour d'appel est mieux placée pour remplir (Kerans, *op. cit.*, p. 5 à 10). En l'espèce, par exemple, le degré de connaissance que la juge de première instance aurait dû prêter au conseiller municipal raisonnablement prudent soulevait une considération participant d'une politique d'intérêt général, savoir le genre de système d'information sur les accidents qu'une petite municipalité rurale aux ressources budgétaires limitées est censée tenir. Ce rôle créateur de droit a été reconnu par la Cour suprême des États-Unis dans l'arrêt *Bose Corp. c. Consumers Union of U.S., Inc.*, 466 U.S. 485 (1984), à la note 17, dans le contexte d'une action en diffamation :

> [TRADUCTION] Une conclusion de fait est, dans certains cas, indissociable des principes qui ont été appliqués pour y arriver. À un point donné, le raisonnement menant à la « constatation d'un fait » cesse d'être l'application des principes ordinaires de logique et d'expérience générale, qui est généralement l'apanage du juge de première instance, pour devenir l'application d'une règle de droit, tâche où le tribunal de révision doit exercer son propre jugement. Cette ligne de démarcation se déplace selon la nature de la règle de droit substantiel en litige. Dans quelques branches du droit, certaines questions largement factuelles soulèvent des enjeux — incidence sur d'éventuelles affaires et le comportement futur — qui sont trop importants pour être confiés en premier et dernier ressort au juge de première instance.

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My colleagues assert that the question of whether or not the standard of care was met by the defendant in a negligence case is subject to a standard of palpable and overriding error unless it is clear that the trial judge made some extricable error in principle with respect to the characterization of the standard or its application, in which case the error may amount to an error of law (para. 36). I disagree. In many cases, it will not be possible to "extricate" a purely legal question from the standard of care analysis applicable to negligence, which is a question of mixed fact and law. In addition, while some questions of mixed fact and law may not have "any great precedential value" (*Southam*, *supra*, at para. 37), such questions often necessitate a normative analysis that should be reviewable by an appellate court.

108

Mes collègues affirment que la question de savoir si, dans une affaire de négligence, le défendeur a respecté ou non la norme de diligence appropriée est assujettie au critère de l'erreur manifeste et dominante, sauf si le juge de première instance a clairement commis une erreur de principe isolable relativement à la détermination de la norme à appliquer ou à son application, auquel cas l'erreur peut constituer une erreur de droit (par. 36). Je ne suis pas d'accord. Dans bon nombre de cas, il ne sera pas possible d'« isoler » une question de droit pur de l'analyse de la norme de diligence applicable en matière de négligence, qui est une question mixte de fait et de droit. En outre, bien que certaines questions mixtes de fait et de droit puissent ne pas avoir « une grande valeur comme précédents » (*Southam*, précité, par. 37), ces questions impliquent souvent une analyse normative que devrait pouvoir contrôler une cour d'appel.

Consider again the issue of whether the municipality knew or should have known of the alleged danger. As a matter of law, the trial judge must approach the question of whether knowledge should be imputed to the municipality having regard to the duties of the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor. If the trial judge applies a different legal standard, such as the reasonable person standard, it is an error of law. Yet even if the trial judge correctly identifies the applicable legal standard, he or she may still err in the process of assessing the facts through the lens of that legal standard. For example, there may exist evidence that an accident had previously occurred on the portion of the road on which the relevant accident occurred. In the course of considering whether or not that fact satisfies the legal test for knowledge the trial judge must make a number of normative assumptions. The trial judge must consider whether the fact that one accident had previously occurred in the same location would alert the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor to the existence of a hazard. The trial judge must also consider whether the ordinary, reasonable and prudent councillor would have been alerted to the previous accident by an accident-reporting system. In my view, the question of whether the fact of a previous accident having occurred fulfills the applicable knowledge

109

Revenons maintenant à la question de savoir si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le danger allégué. Sur le plan juridique, le juge de première instance doit se demander s'il y a lieu de prêter cette connaissance à la municipalité eu égard aux obligations qui incombent au conseiller municipal moyen, raisonnable et prudent. Si le juge de première instance applique une autre norme juridique, par exemple celle de la personne raisonnable, il commet une erreur de droit. Cependant, même en supposant que le juge de première instance détermine correctement la norme juridique à appliquer, il lui est encore possible de commettre une erreur lorsqu'il apprécie les faits à la lumière de cette norme juridique. Par exemple, il peut exister une preuve indiquant qu'un accident s'était déjà produit sur le tronçon de chemin en cause. Le juge de première instance qui se demande si ce fait satisfait ou non au critère juridique applicable à la question de la connaissance doit poser un certain nombre d'hypothèses normatives. Il doit se demander si le fait qu'un accident se soit déjà produit au même endroit alerterait le conseiller municipal moyen, raisonnable et prudent de l'existence d'un danger. Il doit également se demander si ce conseiller aurait appris l'existence de l'accident antérieur par un système d'information sur les accidents. Selon moi, la question de savoir si le fait qu'un accident se soit produit antérieurement

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requirement is a question of mixed fact and law and it is artificial to characterize it as anything else. As is apparent from the example given, the question may also raise normative issues which should be reviewable by an appellate court on the correctness standard.

satisfait à l'exigence de connaissance applicable est une question mixte de fait et de droit, et il serait artificiel de la qualifier autrement. Comme l'indique clairement l'exemple qui précède, cette question peut également soulever des questions normatives que devrait pouvoir contrôler une cour d'appel selon la norme de la décision correcte.

110 I agree with my colleagues that it is not possible to state as a general proposition that all matters of mixed fact and law are reviewable according to the standard of correctness: citing *Southam, supra*, at para. 37 (para. 28). I disagree, however, that the dicta in *Southam* establishes that a trial judge's conclusions on questions of mixed fact and law in a negligence action should be accorded deference in every case. This Court in *St-Jean v. Mercier*, [2002] 1 S.C.R. 491, 2002 SCC 15, a medical negligence case, distinguished *Southam* on the issue of the standard applicable to questions of mixed fact and law where the tribunal has no particular expertise. Gonthier J., writing for a unanimous Court, stated at paras. 48-49:

> A question "about whether the facts satisfy the legal tests" is one of mixed law and fact. Stated differently, "whether the defendant satisfied the appropriate standard of care is a question of mixed law and fact" (*Southam*, at para. 35).
>
> Generally, such a question, once the facts have been established without overriding and palpable error, is to be reviewed on a standard of correctness since the standard of care is normative and is a question of law within the normal purview of both the trial and appellate courts. Such is the standard for medical negligence. There is no issue of expertise of a specialized tribunal in a particular field which may go to the determination of facts and be pertinent to defining an appropriate standard and thereby call for some measure of deference by a court of general appeal (*Southam, supra*, at para. 45; and *Nova Scotia Pharmaceutical Society, supra*, at p. 647).

Je partage l'opinion de mes collègues selon laquelle on ne peut poser comme principe général que toutes les questions mixtes de fait et de droit sont assujetties à la norme de la décision correcte : citant *Southam*, précité, par. 37 (par. 28). Cependant, je ne crois pas que l'opinion formulée dans *Southam* signifie que, dans une affaire de négligence, les conclusions du juge de première instance sur des questions mixtes de fait et de droit commandent systématiquement une attitude empreinte de retenue. Dans l'arrêt *St-Jean c. Mercier*, [2002] 1 R.C.S. 491, 2002 CSC 15, affaire de négligence médicale, notre Cour a différencié cette affaire de l'arrêt *Southam* sur la question de la norme de contrôle applicable aux questions mixtes de fait et de droit dans les cas où le tribunal ne possède d'expertise particulière. Exposant la décision unanime de la Cour, le juge Gonthier a dit ceci, aux par. 48 et 49 :

> La question qui consiste « à déterminer si les faits satisfont au critère juridique » est une question mixte de droit et de fait ou en d'autres termes, « la question de savoir si le défendeur a respecté la norme de diligence appropriée est une question de droit et de fait » (*Southam*, par. 35).
>
> Une fois les faits établis sans erreur manifeste et dominante, cette question doit généralement être révisée suivant la norme de la décision correcte puisque la norme de diligence est normative et constitue une question de droit qui relève de la compétence habituelle des tribunaux de première instance et d'appel. C'est la norme applicable à la négligence médicale. Il n'est pas question de l'expertise d'un tribunal spécialisé dans un domaine particulier, pouvant toucher la détermination des faits et avoir une incidence sur la définition de la norme appropriée et exiger de ce fait une certaine déférence de la part d'une cour générale d'appel (*Southam*, par. 45; *Nova Scotia Pharmaceutical Society*, précité, p. 647).

111 I also disagree with my colleagues that *Jaegli Enterprises Ltd. v. Taylor*, [1981] 2 S.C.R. 2, is authority for the proposition that when the question

Je ne peux non plus me ranger à l'avis de mes collègues selon lequel l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises Ltd. c. Taylor*, [1981] 2 R.C.S. 2, permet d'affirmer

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of mixed fact and law at issue is a finding of negligence, that finding should be deferred to by appellate courts. In that case the trial judge found that the conduct of the defendant ski instructor met the standard of care expected of him. Moreover, the trial judge found that the accident would have occurred regardless of what the ski instructor had done (*Taylor v. The Queen in Right of British Columbia* (1978), 95 D.L.R. (3d) 82). Seaton J.A. of the British Columbia Court of Appeal disagreed with the trial judge that the ski instructor had met the applicable standard of care (*Taylor (Guardian ad litem of) v. British Columbia* (1980), 112 D.L.R. (3d) 297). Seaton J.A. recognized nevertheless that the "final question" was whether "the instructor's failure to remain was a cause of the accident" (p. 307). On the issue of causation, a question of fact, Seaton J.A. clearly substituted his opinion for that of the trial judge's without regard to the appropriate standard of review. His concluding remarks on the issue of causation at p. 308 highlight his lack of deference to the trial judge's conclusion on causation:

> On balance, I think that the evidence supports the plaintiffs' claim against the instructor, that his conduct in leaving the plaintiff below the crest was one of the causes of the accident.

This Court, which restored the finding of the trial judge, did not clearly state whether it did so on the basis that the appellate court was wrong to interfere with the trial judge's finding of negligence or whether it did so because the appellate court wrongly interfered with the trial judge's conclusions on causation. The reasons suggest the latter. The only portion of the trial judgment that this Court referred to was the finding on causation. Dickson J. (as he then was) remarks in *Jaegli Enterprises*, *supra*, at p. 4:

> At the end of a nine-day trial Mr. Justice Meredith, the presiding judge, delivered a judgment in which he

que, lorsque la question mixte de fait et de droit en litige est la conclusion de négligence tirée par le juge de première instance, les cours d'appel doivent faire preuve de retenue à l'égard de cette conclusion. Dans cette affaire, le juge de première instance avait conclu que le défendeur, un instructeur de ski, avait respecté la norme de diligence à laquelle il était tenu. Il avait aussi conclu que l'accident serait survenu, indépendamment de la conduite de l'instructeur de ski (*Taylor c. The Queen in Right of British Columbia* (1978), 95 D.L.R. (3d) 82). Le juge Seaton de la Cour d'appel de la Colombie-Britannique a exprimé son désaccord avec la conclusion du juge de première instance que l'instructeur de ski avait respecté la norme de diligence applicable (*Taylor (Guardian ad litem of) c. British Columbia* (1980), 112 D.L.R. (3d) 297). Il a néanmoins reconnu que [TRADUCTION] « l'ultime question » consistait à se demander si « l'omission de l'instructeur de rester près de la demanderesse avait été une cause de l'accident » (p. 307). Sur la question du lien de causalité, qui est une question de fait, le juge Seaton a clairement substitué son opinion à celle du juge de première instance sans tenir compte de la norme de contrôle appropriée. Ses remarques finales sur la question de la causalité, à la p. 308, font ressortir son absence de retenue à l'égard de la conclusion du juge de première instance sur ce point :

> [TRADUCTION] Tout bien considéré, j'estime que la preuve étaye la prétention des demandeurs voulant que la conduite de l'instructeur, qui l'a laissée seule sous la crête de la butte, a été l'une des causes de l'accident.

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En rétablissant la décision du juge de première instance, notre Cour n'a pas précisé si elle le faisait parce que la cour d'appel avait eu tort de modifier la conclusion de ce dernier sur la négligence ou parce qu'elle avait erronément modifié ses conclusions sur la causalité. Les motifs donnent à penser que la dernière proposition est la bonne. La seule partie du jugement de première instance mentionnée par notre Cour se rapporte à la conclusion sur le lien de causalité. Le juge Dickson (plus tard Juge en chef) a fait les remarques suivantes dans l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises*, précité, à la p. 4 :

> À la fin d'un procès de neuf jours, le juge Meredith, qui a présidé le procès, a rendu un jugement dans lequel il a

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very carefully considered all of the evidence and concluded that the accident had been caused solely by Larry LaCasse and that the plaintiffs should recover damages, in an amount to be assessed, against LaCasse. The claims against Paul Ankenman, Jaegli Enterprises Limited and the other defendants were dismissed with costs.

examiné soigneusement toute la preuve et a conclu que l'accident était imputable uniquement à Larry LaCasse et que les demandeurs pouvaient recouvrer de LaCasse des dommages-intérêts pour un montant à déterminer. Les réclamations contre Paul Ankenman, Jaegli Enterprises Limited et les autres défendeurs ont été rejetées avec dépens.

113 The Court went on to cite a number of cases, some of which did not involve negligence (see *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. v. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 78), for the general proposition that "it [is] wrong for an appellate court to set aside a trial judgment where [there is not palpable and overriding error, and] the only point at issue [was] the interpretation of the evidence as a whole" (p. 84). Given that the Court focussed on the issue of causation, a question of fact alone, I do not think that *Jaegli Enterprises* establishes that a finding of negligence by the trial judge should be deferred to by appellate courts. In my view, the Court in *Jaegli Enterprises* merely affirmed the longstanding principle that an appellate court should not interfere with a trial judge's finding of fact absent a palpable and overriding error.

La Cour a ensuite cité quelques décisions, dont certaines ne traitent pas de négligence (voir *Schreiber Brothers Ltd. c. Currie Products Ltd.*, [1980] 2 R.C.S. 78), au soutien de la proposition générale qu'« une cour d'appel ne peut à bon droit infirmer une décision de première instance lorsque la seule question en litige porte sur l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve » (p. 84). Étant donné que la Cour s'est attachée à la question du lien de causalité, question de fait seulement, je ne crois pas que l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises* établisse que les cours d'appel doivent faire montre de retenue lorsque le juge de première instance conclut à la négligence. À mon avis, dans l'arrêt *Jaegli Enterprises*, la Cour n'a fait que confirmer le principe bien établi portant qu'une cour d'appel ne doit pas modifier une conclusion de fait du juge de première instance en l'absence d'erreur manifeste et dominante.

(2) Error of Law in the Reasons of the Court of Queen's Bench

(2) L'erreur de droit dans les motifs de la Cour du Banc de la Reine

114 The standard of care set out in s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, as interpreted within the jurisprudence, required the trial judge to examine whether the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred posed a hazard to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. Having identified the correct legal test, the trial judge nonetheless failed to ask herself whether a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have been able to safely drive the portion of the road on which the accident occurred. To neglect entirely one branch of a legal test when applying the facts to the test is to misconstrue the law (*Southam*, *supra*, at para. 39). The Saskatchewan Court of Appeal was therefore right to characterize this failure as an error of law and to consider the factual findings made by the trial judge in light of the appropriate legal test.

Suivant la norme de diligence énoncée à l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, telle qu'elle a été interprétée dans la jurisprudence, la juge de première instance devait se demander si le tronçon du chemin Snake Hill sur lequel s'est produit l'accident constituait un danger pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Après avoir déterminé quel était le critère juridique applicable, la juge de première instance a toutefois omis de se demander si un tel conducteur aurait pu rouler en sécurité sur le tronçon en question. Le fait d'omettre entièrement une étape d'un critère juridique, dans l'application de celui-ci aux faits de l'espèce, équivaut à mal interpréter le droit (*Southam*, précité, par. 39). Par conséquent, la Cour d'appel de la Saskatchewan a donc eu raison de qualifier cette omission d'erreur de droit et de contrôler les conclusions de fait tirées par la juge de première instance à la lumière du critère juridique approprié.

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The long line of jurisprudence interpreting s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989* and its predecessor provisions clearly establishes that the duty of the municipality is to keep the road "in such a reasonable state of repair that those requiring to use it may, exercising ordinary care, travel upon it with safety" (*Partridge*, *supra*, at p. 558; *Levey v. Rural Municipality of Rodgers, No. 133*, [1921] 3 W.W.R. 764 (Sask. C.A.), at p. 766; *Diebel Estate v. Pinto Creek No. 75 (Rural Municipality)* (1996), 149 Sask. R. 68 (Q.B.), at pp. 71-72). Legislation in several other provinces establishes a similar duty of care and courts in these provinces have interpreted it in a similar fashion (*R. v. Jennings*, [1966] S.C.R. 532, at p. 537; *County of Parkland No. 31 v. Stetar*, [1975] 2 S.C.R. 884, at p. 892; *Fafard v. City of Quebec* (1917), 39 D.L.R. 717 (S.C.C.), at p. 718). This Court, in *Jennings*, *supra*, interpreting a similar provision under the Ontario *Highway Improvement Act*, R.S.O. 1960, c. 171, remarked at p. 537 that: "[i]t has been repeatedly held in Ontario that where a duty to keep a highway in repair is imposed by statute the body upon which it is imposed must keep the highway in such a condition that travellers using it with ordinary care may do so with safety".

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La jurisprudence de longue date portant sur l'interprétation de l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989* et des dispositions qu'il a remplacées établit clairement que les municipalités ont l'obligation de tenir les chemins [TRADUCTION] « dans un état raisonnable d'entretien de façon que ceux qui doivent l[es] emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité » (*Partridge*, précité, p. 558; *Levey c. Rural Municipality of Rodgers, No. 133*, [1921] 3 W.W.R. 764 (C.A. Sask.), p. 766; *Diebel Estate c. Pinto Creek No. 75 (Rural Municipality)* (1996), 149 Sask. R. 68 (B.R.), p. 71 et 72). Plusieurs autres provinces ont adopté des lois établissant une obligation de diligence semblable, et les tribunaux de ces provinces ont interprété cette obligation de la même façon (*R. c. Jennings*, [1966] R.C.S. 532, p. 537; *Comté de Parkland n° 31 c. Stetar*, [1975] 2 R.C.S. 884, p. 892; *Fafard c. City of Quebec* (1917), 39 D.L.R. 717 (C.S.C.), p. 718). Interprétant une disposition similaire de la *Highway Improvement Act* de l'Ontario, R.S.O. 1960, ch. 171, notre Cour a indiqué, dans l'arrêt *Jennings*, précité, p. 537, qu'[TRADUCTION] « [i]l a été décidé à maintes reprises en Ontario que, lorsque l'obligation de maintenir une route en bon état d'entretien est légalement imposée à un organisme, celui-ci doit maintenir la route dans un état permettant à ceux qui l'empruntent en prenant des précautions normales d'y circuler en sécurité ».

There is good reason for limiting the municipality's duty to repair to a standard which permits drivers exercising ordinary care to proceed with safety. As stated by this Court in *Fafard*, *supra*, at p. 718: "[a] municipal corporation is not an insurer of travellers using its streets; its duty is to use reasonable care to keep its streets in a reasonably safe condition for ordinary travel by persons exercising ordinary care for their own safety". Correspondingly, appellate courts have long held that it is an error for the trial judge to find a municipality in breach of its duty merely because a danger exists, regardless of whether or not that danger poses a risk to the ordinary user of the road. The type of error to be guarded against was described by Wetmore C.J. in *Williams v.*

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Il existe de bonnes raisons de limiter l'obligation d'entretien des routes incombant aux municipalités au respect d'une norme suffisante pour permettre aux conducteurs qui prennent des précautions normales d'y circuler en sécurité. Comme l'a dit notre Cour dans l'arrêt *Fafard*, précité, p. 718 : [TRADUCTION] « [l]es municipalités ne sont pas les assureurs des automobilistes qui roulent dans leurs rues; leur obligation consiste à faire preuve de diligence raisonnable et de maintenir leurs rues dans un état raisonnablement sécuritaire pour la circulation normale des personnes qui prennent des précautions normales en vue d'assurer leur propre sécurité ». En conséquence, les cours d'appel estiment depuis longtemps que le juge de première instance commet une erreur s'il conclut qu'une municipalité

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Town of North Battleford (1911), 4 Sask. L.R. 75 (*en banc*), at p. 81:

The question in an action of this sort, whether or not the road is kept in such repair that those requiring to use it may, using ordinary care, pass to and fro upon it in safety, is, it seems to me, largely one of fact . . . I would hesitate about setting aside a finding of fact of the trial Judge if he had found the facts necessary for the determination of the case, but he did not so find. He found that the crossing was a "dangerous spot without a light, and that if the utmost care were used no accident might occur, but it was not in such proper or safe state as to render such accident unlikely to occur." He did not consider the question from the standpoint of whether or not those requiring to use the road might, using ordinary care, pass to and fro upon it in safety. The mere fact of the crossing being dangerous is not sufficient . . . . [Emphasis added.]

117 From the jurisprudence cited above, it is clear that the mere existence of a hazard or danger does not in and of itself give rise to a duty on the part of the municipality to erect a sign. Even if a trial judge concludes on the facts that the conditions of the road do, in fact, present a hazard, he or she must still go on to assess whether that hazard would present a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. The ordinary driver is often faced with inherently dangerous driving conditions. Motorists drive in icy or wet conditions. They drive at night on country roads that are not well lit. They are faced with obstacles such as snow ridges and potholes. These obstacles are often not in plain view, but are obscured or "hidden". Common sense dictates that motorists will, however, exercise a degree of caution when faced with dangerous driving conditions. A municipality is expected to provide extra cautionary measures only where the conditions of the road and the surrounding circumstances do not signal to the driver the possibility that a hazard is present. For example, the ordinary driver expects a dirt road to become slippery when wet. By contrast, paved

manque à son obligation du seul fait qu'un danger existe, indépendamment de la question de savoir si ce danger présente ou non un risque pour l'usager ordinaire du chemin. Le genre d'erreur qu'il faut éviter a été décrit ainsi par le juge en chef Wetmore dans l'affaire *Williams c. Town of North Battleford* (1911), 4 Sask. L.R. 75 (*in banco*), p. 81 :

[TRADUCTION] Il me semble que la question qui se pose dans ce genre d'action — soit celle de savoir si le chemin est tenu dans un état d'entretien tel que ceux qui doivent l'emprunter puissent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité — est essentiellement une question de fait [. . .] j'hésiterais à écarter une conclusion de fait du juge de première instance s'il avait relevé l'existence des faits nécessaires pour trancher l'affaire, mais il ne l'a pas fait. Il a conclu que l'intersection était « un endroit dangereux non éclairé, et qu'aucun accident ne s'y produirait si on faisait preuve d'une prudence extrême, mais que cet endroit n'était pas tenu dans un état d'entretien propre à rendre improbable un tel accident ». Il n'a pas examiné la question en se demandant si ceux qui doivent emprunter ce chemin peuvent, en prenant des précautions normales, y circuler en sécurité. Le seul fait que l'intersection soit dangereuse n'est pas suffisant . . . [Je souligne.]

Il ressort clairement de la jurisprudence susmentionnée que la simple existence d'un risque ou danger ne fait pas en soi naître pour la municipalité l'obligation d'installer un panneau de signalisation. Même si, à partir des faits, le juge de première instance arrive à la conclusion que l'état du chemin crée effectivement un risque, il doit poursuivre son analyse et se demander si ce risque présente un danger pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Le conducteur moyen rencontre souvent des conditions de conduite intrinsèquement dangereuses. Les automobilistes conduisent leur véhicule sur des chaussées glacées ou humides. Ils roulent la nuit sur des chemins de campagne mal éclairés. Ils rencontrent des obstacles comme des bancs de neige et des nids-de-poule. Souvent ces obstacles ne sont pas visibles, car ils sont dissimulés ou « cachés ». Le bon sens suggère que les automobilistes font toutefois preuve d'une certaine prudence en présence de conditions de conduite dangereuses. On n'attend de la municipalité qu'elle prenne des mesures d'avertissement supplémentaires que lorsque l'état du chemin et l'ensemble des

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bridge decks on highways are often slick, though they appear completely dry. Consequently, signs will be posted to alert drivers to this unapparent possibility.

autres circonstances ne signalent pas au conducteur la possibilité qu'un danger existe. Par exemple, le conducteur moyen s'attend à ce qu'un chemin de terre devienne glissant lorsqu'il est mouillé. À l'opposé, les tabliers de pont asphaltés qui se trouvent sur les routes sont souvent glissants, bien qu'ils paraissent complètement secs. Par conséquent, des panneaux sont installés pour alerter les conducteurs de cette possibilité non apparente.

118 The appellant in this case argued, at para. 27 of his factum, that the trial judge did, in fact, assess whether a reasonable driver using ordinary care would find the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred to pose a risk. He points in particular to the trial judge's comments at paras. 85-86 that:

> There is a portion of Snake Hill Road that is a hazard to the public. In this regard I accept the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner. Further, it is a hazard that is not readily apparent to users of the road. It is a hidden hazard. . . .
>
> . . . where the existence of . . . bush obstructs the ability of a motorist to be forewarned of a hazard such as that on Snake Hill Road, it is reasonable to expect the R.M. to erect and maintain a warning or regulatory sign so that a motorist, using ordinary care, may be forewarned, adjust speed and take corrective action in advance of entering a dangerous situation. [Emphasis added.]

En l'espèce, l'appelant a plaidé, au par. 27 de son mémoire, que la juge de première instance s'était, en fait, demandé si un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales considérerait que le tronçon du chemin Snake Hill où s'est produit l'accident constitue un risque. Il souligne en particulier les commentaires suivants de la juge de première instance, aux par. 85 et 86 :

> [TRADUCTION] Il y a, sur le chemin Snake Hill, un tronçon qui présente un danger pour le public. À cet égard, je retiens les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner. En outre, il s'agit d'un danger qui n'est pas facilement décelable par les usagers du chemin. Il s'agit d'un danger caché . . .
>
> . . . à l'endroit où la présence des broussailles empêche les automobilistes de voir venir un danger comme celui qui existe sur le chemin Snake Hill, il est raisonnable de s'attendre à ce que la M.R. installe et maintienne un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation afin qu'un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales soit prévenu et puisse réduire sa vitesse et prendre des mesures correctives avant d'arriver à l'endroit dangereux. [Je souligne.]

119 The appellant's argument suggests that the trial judge discharged her duty to apply the facts to the law merely by restating the facts of the case in the language of the legal test. This was not, however, sufficient. Although it is clear from the citation above that the trial judge made a factual finding that the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred presented drivers with a hidden hazard, there is nothing in this portion of her reasons to suggest that she considered whether or not that portion of the road would pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. The finding that a hazard, or even that a hidden hazard, exists does not automatically give rise to the conclusion that the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care could not

L'appelant semble prétendre que la juge de première instance s'est acquittée de son devoir d'appliquer le droit aux faits simplement en intégrant les faits de l'espèce à la formulation du critère juridique. Ce n'était toutefois pas suffisant. Bien qu'il ressorte clairement des passages précités que la juge de première instance a, à partir des faits, conclu que la portion du chemin Snake Hill où s'est produit l'accident exposait les conducteurs à un danger caché, il n'y a rien dans cette partie de ses motifs qui indique qu'elle s'est demandé si cette portion du chemin présentait un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Le fait de conclure à l'existence d'un danger, même caché, n'implique pas forcément que le conducteur

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travel through it safely. A proper application of the test demands that the trial judge ask the question: "How would a reasonable driver have driven on this road?" Whether or not a hazard is "hidden" or a curve is "inherently" dangerous does not dispose of the question. My colleagues state that it was open to the trial judge to draw an inference of knowledge of the hazard simply because the sharp curve was a permanent feature of the road (para. 61). Here again, there is nothing in the reasons of the trial judge to suggest that she drew such an inference or to explain how such an inference accorded with the legal requirements concerning the duty of care.

raisonnable prenant des précautions normales ne peut pas y circuler en sécurité. Pour bien appliquer le critère juridique, le juge de première instance doit se poser la question suivante : « Comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait-il roulé sur ce chemin? » Le fait de conclure qu'il existe ou non un danger « caché » ou qu'une courbe est quelque chose d'« intrinsèquement » dangereux ne vide pas la question. Mes collègues affirment que la juge de première instance pouvait inférer la connaissance du danger du seul fait que la courbe serrée constituait une caractéristique permanente du chemin (par. 61). Ici encore, rien dans les motifs de la juge de première instance n'indique qu'elle a tiré une telle inférence ou n'explique en quoi une telle inférence satisfaisait aux conditions juridiques relatives à l'obligation de diligence.

120 Nor did the trial judge consider the question in any other part of her reasons. Her failure to do so becomes all the more apparent when her analysis (or lack thereof) is compared to that in cases in which the courts applied the appropriate method. The Court of Appeal referred to two such cases by way of example. In *Nelson v. Waverley (Rural Municipality)* (1988), 65 Sask. R. 260 (Q.B.), the plaintiff argued that the defendant municipality should have posted signs warning of a ridge in the middle of the road that resulted from the grading of the road by the municipality. The trial judge concluded that if the driver had exercised ordinary care, he could have travelled along the roadway with safety. Instead, he drove too fast and failed to keep an adequate look-out considering the maintenance that was being performed on the road. In *Diebel Estate*, *supra*, the issue was whether the municipality had a duty under s. 192 to post a sign warning motorists that a rural road ended abruptly in a T-intersection. The question of how a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have driven on that road was asked and answered by the trial judge in the following passage at p. 74:

La juge de première instance n'a pas non plus examiné cette question ailleurs dans ses motifs. Son omission à cet égard devient encore plus évidente lorsqu'on compare son analyse (ou son absence d'analyse) à celle des affaires où les tribunaux ont appliqué la bonne démarche. La Cour d'appel a donné comme exemple deux de ces affaires. Dans *Nelson c. Waverley (Rural Municipality)* (1988), 65 Sask. R. 260 (B.R.), le demandeur prétendait que la municipalité défenderesse aurait dû installer des panneaux signalant la présence, au milieu du chemin, d'un sillon résultant de travaux municipaux de nivellement. Le juge de première instance a estimé que, si le conducteur avait pris des précautions normales, il aurait pu rouler en sécurité sur la chaussée. Au lieu de cela, il a roulé trop vite et manqué de vigilance compte tenu des travaux d'entretien qui étaient effectués sur le chemin. Dans *Diebel Estate*, précité, il s'agissait de déterminer si la municipalité avait, en vertu de l'art. 192, l'obligation d'installer un panneau avertissant les automobilistes qu'une route rurale se terminait de façon abrupte à un croisement en T. Le juge de première instance s'est demandé comment un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales aurait roulé sur ce chemin, et il a répondu ainsi à cette question, à la p. 74 :

His [the expert's] conclusions as to stopping are, however, mathematically arrived at and never having been on

[TRADUCTION] Ses conclusions [celles de l'expert] pour ce qui concerne l'arrêt des automobiles découlent

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the road, from what was described in the course of the trial, I would think the intersection could be a danger at night to a complete stranger to the area, depending on one's reaction time and the possibility of being confused by what one saw rather than recognizing the T intersection to be just that. On the other hand I would think a complete stranger in the area would be absolutely reckless to drive down a dirt road of the nature of this particular road at night at 80 kilometres per hour. [Emphasis added; emphasis in original deleted.]

toutefois d'opérations mathématiques et bien que je n'aie jamais emprunté le chemin en question, d'après les descriptions faites au procès, je suis d'avis que le croisement pourrait constituer un danger la nuit pour quelqu'un qui ne connaît absolument pas l'endroit, eu égard à la vitesse de réaction de chacun et à la possibilité que quelqu'un confonde le croisement en T avec quelque chose d'autre. Par ailleurs, j'estime que quelqu'un ne connaissant aucunement l'endroit agirait de façon tout à fait téméraire en roulant à 80 kilomètres à l'heure la nuit sur un chemin de terre comme celui qui nous intéresse. [Je souligne; soulignement dans l'original omis.]

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The conclusion that Wright J. erred in failing to apply a required aspect of the legal test does not automatically lead to a rejection of her factual findings. This Court's jurisdiction to review questions of law entitles it, where an error of law has been found, to take the factual findings of the trial judge as they are, and to assess these findings anew in the context of the appropriate legal test.

121 Le fait de conclure que la juge Wright a commis une erreur de droit en omettant d'appliquer un élément essentiel du critère juridique n'invalide pas forcément ses conclusions de fait. En effet, la compétence de notre Cour en matière d'examen des questions de droit l'autorise, lorsqu'une telle erreur est décelée, à reprendre telles quelles les conclusions de fait du juge de première instance et à les réévaluer au regard du critère juridique approprié.

In my view, neither Wright J.'s factual findings nor any other evidence in the record that she might have considered had she asked the appropriate question, support the conclusion that the respondent was in breach of its duty. The portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred did not pose a risk to a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care because the conditions of Snake Hill Road in general and the conditions with which motorists were confronted at the exact location of the accident signalled to the reasonable motorist that caution was needed. Motorists who appropriately acknowledged the presence of the several factors which called for caution would have been able to navigate safely the so-called "hidden hazard" without the benefit of a road sign.

122 Selon moi, ni les faits retenus par la juge Wright ni aucun autre élément de preuve au dossier qu'elle aurait pu prendre en considération si elle s'était posé la bonne question n'appuient sa conclusion que l'intimée a manqué à son obligation. La portion du chemin Snake Hill où s'est produit l'accident ne présentait pas de risque pour un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales, car l'état de ce chemin en général et les conditions auxquelles les automobilistes doivent faire face à l'endroit précis de l'accident avertissent l'automobiliste raisonnable que la prudence s'impose. Les automobilistes sachant reconnaître les divers facteurs qui appellent à la prudence auraient pu franchir le soi-disant [TRADUCTION] « danger caché » sans l'aide d'un panneau de signalisation.

The question of how a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have driven on Snake Hill Road necessitates a consideration of the nature and locality of the road. A reasonable motorist will not approach a narrow gravel road in the country in the same way that he or she will approach a paved highway. It is reasonable to expect a motorist to drive more slowly and to pay greater attention to the potential presence of hazards when driving on a

123 Pour savoir comment un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales aurait conduit son véhicule sur le chemin Snake Hill, il faut tenir compte de la nature du chemin et de la configuration des lieux. Un automobiliste raisonnable ne roulera pas sur une étroite route de campagne gravelée de la même façon que sur une route asphaltée. Il est raisonnable de s'attendre à ce qu'un automobiliste conduise moins vite et soit plus attentif à la présence

road that is of a lower standard, particularly when he or she is unfamiliar with it.

de dangers potentiels sur un chemin de catégorie inférieure, particulièrement s'il n'est pas familier avec celui-ci.

124 While the trial judge in this case made some comments regarding the nature of the road, I agree with the Court of Appeal's findings that "[s]he might have addressed the matter more fully, taking into account more broadly the terrain through which the road passed, the class and designation of the road in the scheme of classification, and so on . . . " (para. 55). Instead, the extent of her analysis of the road was limited to the following comments, found at para. 84 of her reasons:

> Snake Hill Road is a low traffic road. It is however maintained by the R.M. so that it is passable year round. There are permanent residences on the road. It is used by farmers for access to their fields and cattle. Young people frequent Snake Hill Road for parties and as such the road is used by those who may not have the same degree of familiarity with it as do residents.

Bien que, en l'espèce, la juge de première instance ait fait certains commentaires sur la nature du chemin, je souscris à la conclusion de la Cour d'appel selon laquelle [TRADUCTION] « [e]lle aurait pu examiner la question de manière plus approfondie, en tenant davantage compte du type de terrain que le chemin traversait, de la nature et de la désignation du chemin selon le système de classification des routes et ainsi de suite . . . » (par. 55). Au lieu de cela, son analyse s'est limitée aux commentaires suivants, au par. 84 de ses motifs :

> [TRADUCTION] Le chemin Snake Hill est un chemin à faible débit de circulation. Il est néanmoins entretenu par la M.R. à longueur d'année afin de le garder carrossable. Des résidences permanentes sont situées en bordure de celui-ci. Les fermiers l'utilisent pour accéder à leurs champs et à leur bétail. Des jeunes gens empruntent le chemin Snake Hill pour se rendre à des fêtes, de sorte qu'il est utilisé par des conducteurs qui ne le connaissent pas toujours aussi bien que les résidents de l'endroit.

125 In my view, the question of how the reasonable driver would have negotiated Snake Hill Road necessitated a somewhat more in-depth analysis of the character of the road. The trial judge's analysis focussed almost entirely on the use of the road, without considering the sort of conditions it presented to drivers. It is perhaps not surprising that the trial judge did not engage in this fuller analysis, given that she did not turn her mind to the question of how a reasonable driver would have approached the road. Had she considered this question, she likely would have engaged in the type of assessment that was made by the Court of Appeal at para. 13 of its judgment:

> The road, about 20 feet in width, was classed as "a bladed trail," sometimes referred to as "a land access road," a classification just above that of "prairie trail". As such, it was not built up, nor gravelled, except lightly at one end of it, but simply bladed across the terrain following the path of least resistance. Nor was it in any way signed.

À mon avis, la question de savoir comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait roulé sur le chemin Snake Hill nécessitait un examen un peu plus approfondi de la nature du chemin. Dans son analyse, la juge de première instance s'est attachée presque exclusivement à l'utilisation qui est faite du chemin, sans prendre en compte le genre de conditions qu'il présente aux conducteurs. Il n'est peut-être pas surprenant qu'elle ne se soit pas livrée à cette analyse approfondie, puisqu'elle ne s'est pas demandé comment un conducteur raisonnable aurait roulé sur ce chemin. Si elle s'était posé cette question, elle aurait vraisemblablement procédé à une évaluation analogue à celle qu'a faite la Cour d'appel au par. 13 de son jugement :

> [TRADUCTION] Le chemin, d'une largeur de 20 pieds environ, a été qualifié de « chemin nivelé », qu'on appelle aussi parfois « chemin d'accès », soit tout juste une catégorie au-dessus d'un « chemin de prairie ». Comme tel, il n'a été ni renforcé ni revêtu de gravier, sauf légèrement à l'une de ses extrémités, il s'agit tout simplement d'un chemin nivelé à même le terrain, suivant le tracé présentant le mois d'obstacles. On n'y a installé aucune signalisation.

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Given the fact that Snake Hill Road is a low standard road, in a category only one or two levels above a prairie trail, one can assume that a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would approach the road with a certain degree of caution.

Having considered the character of the road in general, and having concluded that by its very nature it warranted a certain degree of caution, it is nonetheless necessary to consider the material features of the road at the point at which the accident occurred. Even on roads which are of a lower standard, a reasonable driver exercising due caution may be caught unaware by a particularly dangerous segment of the road. That was, in fact, the central argument that the appellant put forward in this case. According to the appellant's "dual nature" theory, at para. 8 of his factum, the fact that the curvy portion of Snake Hill Road where the accident occurred was flanked by straight segments of road created a risk that a motorist would be lulled into thinking that the curves could be taken at speeds greater than that at which they could actually be taken.

While it is not clear from her reasons that the trial judge accepted the appellant's "dual nature" theory, it appears that her conclusion that the municipality did not meet the standard of care required by it was based largely on her observation of the material features of the road at the location of the Nikolaisen rollover. Relying on the evidence of two experts, Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, she found the portion of the road on which the accident occurred to be a "hazard to the public". In her view, the limited sight distance created by the presence of uncleared bush precluded a motorist from being forewarned of the impending sharp right turn immediately followed by a left turn. Based on expert testimony, she concluded that the curve could not be negotiated at speeds greater than 60 km/h under favourable conditions, or 50 km/h under wet conditions.

Again, I would not reject the trial judge's factual finding that the curve presented motorists with an

Comme le chemin Snake Hill est une route de catégorie inférieure, à peine un ou deux niveaux au-dessus d'un chemin de prairie, on peut présumer qu'un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales y roulerait avec une certaine prudence.

126 Après avoir examiné la nature générale du chemin et avoir conclu que, du fait de cette nature même, une certaine prudence s'imposait, il faut néanmoins prendre en considération les caractéristiques physiques du chemin à l'endroit où l'accident s'est produit. Même sur des chemins de catégorie inférieure, un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales pourrait être pris par surprise sur un tronçon particulièrement dangereux. Il s'agit là, en fait, de l'argument central présenté par l'appelant en l'espèce. Selon sa thèse, dite de la « nature hybride » du chemin, au par. 8 de son mémoire, le fait que la courbe où est survenu l'accident se trouve entre des tronçons en ligne droite risquait d'amener les automobilistes à croire que les virages pouvaient être pris à des vitesses supérieures à celles auxquelles ils pouvaient l'être en réalité.

127 Bien que les motifs de la juge de première instance n'indiquent pas clairement si elle a retenu la thèse de la « nature hybride » du chemin, il semble que sa conclusion selon laquelle la municipalité a manqué à son obligation d'entretien ait reposé largement sur son examen des caractéristiques physiques du chemin, à l'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau. S'appuyant sur les témoignages de deux experts, MM. Anderson et Werner, elle a estimé que la portion du chemin où s'est produit l'accident constituait un [TRADUCTION] « danger pour le public ». Selon elle, le fait que la distance de visibilité ait été réduite par la présence de broussailles empêchait les automobilistes de voir l'imminence d'un virage à droite serré, qui est immédiatement suivi d'un virage à gauche. Sur la base des témoignages d'experts, elle a conclu que le virage ne pouvait être pris à une vitesse supérieure à 60 km/h dans des conditions favorables, ou 50 km/h sur chaussée humide.

128 Je ne rejetterais pas, je le répète, la conclusion de fait selon laquelle la courbe présentait un risque

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inherent hazard. The evidence does not, however, support a finding that a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have been unable to negotiate the curve with safety. As I explained earlier, the municipality's duty to repair is implicated only when an objectively hazardous condition exists, and where it is determined that a reasonable driver arriving at the hazard would be unable to provide for his or her own security due to the features of the hazard.

129 I agree with the trial judge that part of the danger posed by the presence of bushes on the side of the road was that a driver would not be able to predict the radius of the sharp right-turning curve obscured by them. In my view, however, the actual danger inherent in this portion of the road was that the bushes, together with the sharp radius of the curve, prevented an eastbound motorist from being able to see if a vehicle was approaching from the opposite direction. Given this latter situation, it is highly unlikely that any reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would approach the curve at speeds in excess of 50 km/h, a speed which was found by the trial judge to be a safe speed at which to negotiate the curve. Since a reasonable driver would not approach this curve at speeds in excess of which it could safely be taken, I conclude that the curve did not pose a risk to the reasonable driver.

130 One need only refer to the series of photographs of the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred to appreciate the extent to which visual clues existed which would alert a driver to approach the curve with caution (Respondent's Record, vol. II, at pp. 373-76). The photographs, which indicate what the driver would have seen on entering the curve, show the presence of bush extending well into the road. From the photographs, it is clear that a motorist approaching the curve would not fail to appreciate the risk presented by the curve, which is simply that it is impossible to see around it and to gauge what may be coming in the opposite direction. In addition, the danger posed

intrinsèque pour les automobilistes. Toutefois, il n'y a rien dans la preuve qui permette de conclure qu'un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales aurait été incapable de prendre le virage en sécurité. Comme je l'ai expliqué plus tôt, l'obligation d'entretien des municipalités n'est en cause que lorsqu'il existe une situation objectivement dangereuse et qu'il est établi qu'un conducteur raisonnable s'approchant du danger serait incapable d'assurer sa sécurité en raison des caractéristiques de ce danger.

Je partage l'opinion de la juge de première instance selon laquelle une partie du danger créé par les broussailles se trouvant en bordure de la route tenait au fait qu'un conducteur ne pourrait deviner le rayon de courbure prononcé du virage à droite serré qu'elles dissimulaient. À mon sens, toutefois, le véritable danger intrinsèque de ce tronçon du chemin résidait dans le fait que les broussailles, ainsi que le court rayon de courbure du virage, empêchent les automobilistes circulant en direction est de voir si un véhicule s'approche en sens inverse. Par conséquent, il est très peu probable qu'un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales approcherait de ce virage à une vitesse supérieure à 50 km/h, vitesse à laquelle la juge de première instance a conclu qu'il était possible de le prendre en sécurité. Étant donné qu'un conducteur raisonnable n'approcherait pas de ce virage à une vitesse supérieure à celle lui permettant de le prendre en sécurité, je conclus que le virage ne constituait pas un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable.

Il suffit d'examiner les photos du tronçon du chemin Snake Hill où l'accident est survenu pour constater à quel point il existait des indices visuels propres à inciter les conducteurs à s'approcher du virage avec prudence (dossier de l'intimée, vol. II, p. 373-376). Les photos, qui montrent ce que voit le conducteur sur le point d'amorcer le virage, laissent voir la présence de broussailles s'avançant considérablement au-dessus du chemin. Il ressort clairement de ces photographies qu'un automobiliste approchant du virage ne manquerait pas pressentir le risque que présente celui-ci, savoir qu'il est tout simplement impossible de voir de l'autre côté de la courbe ce qui peut arriver en sens inverse. De plus,

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by the inability to see what is approaching in the opposite direction is somewhat heightened by the fact that this road is used by farm operators. At trial, the risk was described in the following terms by Mr. Sparks, an engineer giving expert testimony:

> . . . if you can't, if you can't see far enough down the road to, you know, if there's somebody that's coming around the corner with a tractor and a cultivator and you can't see around the corner, then, you know, drivers would have a fairly strong signal, in my view, that due care and caution would be required.

The expert testimony relied on by the trial judge does not support a finding that the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred would pose a risk to a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. When asked at trial whether motorists, exercising reasonable care, would enter the curve at a slow speed because they could not see what was coming around the corner, Mr. Werner agreed that he, himself, drove the corner "at a slower speed" and that it would be prudent for a driver to slow down given the limited sight distance. Similarly, Mr. Anderson admitted to having taken the curve at 40-45 km/h the first time he drove it because he "didn't want to get into trouble with it". When asked if the reason he approached the curve at that speed was because he could not see around it, he replied in the affirmative: "[t]hat's why I approached it the way I did."

Perhaps most tellingly, Mr. Nikolaisen himself testified that he could not see if a vehicle was coming in the opposite direction as he approached the curve. The following exchange which occurred during counsel's cross-examination of Mr. Nikolaisen at trial is instructive:

> Q. . . . You told my learned friend, Mr. Logue, that your view of the road was quite limited, that is correct? The view ahead on the road is quite limited, is that right?

le danger que constitue l'incapacité de voir ce qui arrive en sens inverse est d'une certaine manière exacerbé par le fait que le chemin est utilisé par des exploitants agricoles. Au procès, ce risque a été décrit ainsi par M. Sparks, ingénieur, qui témoignait à titre d'expert :

> [TRADUCTION] . . . si vous ne pouvez pas voir, si vous ne pouvez pas voir assez loin sur le chemin pour, vous savez, savoir si quelqu'un arrive en sens inverse avec un tracteur tirant une herse et que vous ne pouvez voir, de l'autre côté du virage, alors, vous savez, cela devrait envoyer un message clair aux conducteurs, selon moi, que l'attention et la prudence s'imposent.

131 Le témoignage d'expert retenu par la juge de première instance n'étaye pas sa conclusion que la portion du chemin Snake Hill où s'est produit l'accident présente un risque pour un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Lorsqu'on lui a demandé si un automobiliste prenant des précautions normales amorcerait le virage à vitesse réduite étant donné qu'il ne peut voir ce qui l'attend au détour du chemin, M. Werner a reconnu que lui-même prend le virage [TRADUCTION] « à vitesse réduite » et qu'il serait prudent que les conducteurs ralentissent en raison de la distance de visibilité limitée. De même, M. Anderson a admis avoir pris le virage à 40-45 km/h la première fois qu'il est passé par là, car il [TRADUCTION] « ne voulait pas se placer dans une situation difficile ». Lorsqu'on lui a demandé s'il avait pris le virage à cette vitesse parce qu'il ne pouvait pas voir ce qui l'attendait, il a répondu par l'affirmative : [TRADUCTION] « [c']est la raison pour laquelle je l'ai approché comme je l'ai fait. »

132 Fait encore plus révélateur peut-être, M. Nikolaisen lui-même a témoigné qu'il ne pouvait pas savoir si un véhicule venait en sens inverse lorsqu'il s'approchait du virage. L'échange suivant, durant le contre-interrogatoire de M. Nikolaisen au procès par l'avocat de la partie adverse, est éclairant :

> [TRADUCTION]
>
> Q. . . . Vous avez dit à mon savant collègue, M. Logue, que votre visibilité était plutôt réduite, est-ce exact? La visibilité sur le chemin est plutôt réduite, n'est-ce pas?

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A. As in regards to travelling through the curves, yes, that's right, yeah.

Q. Yes. And you did not know what was coming as you approached the curve, that is correct?

A. That's correct, yes.

Q. There might be a vehicle around that curve coming towards you or someone riding a horse on the road, that is correct?

A. Or a tractor or a cultivator or something, that's right.

Q. Or a tractor or a cultivator. You know as a person raised in rural Saskatchewan that all of those things are possibilities, that is right?

A. That's right, yeah, that is correct.

133 Nor do I accept the appellant's submission that the "dual nature" of the road had the effect of lulling drivers into taking the curve at an inappropriate speed. This theory rests on the assumption that the motorists would drive the straight portions of the road at speeds of up to 80 km/h, leaving them unprepared to negotiate suddenly appearing curves. Yet, while the default speed limit on the road was 80 km/h, there was no evidence to suggest that a reasonable driver would have driven any portion of the road at that speed. While Mr. Werner testified that a driver "would be permitted" to drive at a maximum of 80 km/h, since this was the default (not the posted) speed limit, he later acknowledged that bladed trails in the province are not designed to meet 80 km/h design criteria. I agree with the Court of Appeal that the evidence is that "Snake Hill Road was self-evidently a dirt road or bladed trail" and that it "was obviously not designed to accommodate travel at a general speed of 80 kilometres per hour". As I earlier remarked, the locality of the road and its character and class must be considered when determining whether the reasonable driver would be able to navigate it safely.

R. Lorsqu'on se trouve dans les courbes, oui, c'est exact.

Q. Oui. Et vous ne saviez pas ce qui s'en venait lorsque vous approchiez du virage, est-ce exact?

R. C'est exact, oui.

Q. Il aurait pu y avoir un véhicule venant dans votre direction de l'autre côté de la courbe ou quelqu'un se promenant à cheval sur le chemin, est-ce exact?

R. Ou un tracteur, un cultivateur ou autre chose, c'est vrai.

Q. Ou un tracteur ou un cultivateur. Vous savez, puisque vous avez grandi en milieu rural en Saskatchewan, que toutes ces situations sont autant de possibilités, n'est-ce pas?

R. C'est vrai, oui.

Je ne retiens pas non plus l'argument de l'appelant portant que la « nature hybride » du chemin avait pour effet d'amener les conducteurs à prendre le virage à une vitesse inappropriée. Cette théorie repose sur l'hypothèse que les automobilistes roulent sur les portions en ligne droite du chemin à une vitesse pouvant atteindre 80 km/h, et qu'ils se trouvent en conséquence pris de court lorsqu'ils doivent prendre un virage soudain. Pourtant, bien que la vitesse permise sur le chemin soit 80 km/h, rien dans la preuve n'indiquait qu'un conducteur raisonnable aurait roulé à cette vitesse à quelque endroit du chemin. Après avoir témoigné que les conducteurs [TRADUCTION] « étaient autorisés » à rouler à une vitesse maximale de 80 km/h, cette vitesse étant la vitesse permise par défaut (et non la vitesse affichée), M. Werner a reconnu que les chemins nivelés de la province ne sont pas conçus pour permettre la circulation à une vitesse de 80 km/h. À l'instar de la Cour d'appel, je suis d'avis que la preuve établit que [TRADUCTION] « le chemin Snake Hill était manifestement un chemin de terre ou un chemin nivelé » et qu'il « n'était clairement pas conçu pour permettre une vitesse générale de 80 kilomètres à l'heure ». Comme je l'ai souligné précédemment, la configuration du chemin, de même que sa nature et sa catégorie doivent être prises en considération pour décider si le conducteur raisonnable aurait pu y rouler en sécurité.

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Furthermore, the evidence at trial did not suggest that drivers were somehow fooled by the so-called "dual nature" of the road. The following exchange between counsel for the respondent and Mr. Werner at trial is illustrative of how motorists would view the road:

Q. Now, Mr. Werner, would you not agree that the change in the character of this road as you proceeded from east to west was quite obvious?

A. It was straight, and then you came to a hill, and you really didn't know what might lie beyond the hill.

Q. That's right. But I mean, the fact that the road went from being straight and level to suddenly there was a hill and you couldn't see -- you could see from the point of the top of the hill that the road didn't continue in a straight line, couldn't you?

A. Yes, you could, from the top of the hill, it's a very abrupt hill, yes.

Q. And as you proceeded down though the hill it became quite obvious, did it not, that the character of the road changed?

A. Yes, it changed, yes.

Q. Now you were faced with something other than a straight road?

A. M'hm. Yes.

Q. Now you were on -- and at some point along there the surface of the road changed, did it not?

A. Yes.

Q. And, of course, the road was no longer, I use the term built-up to refer to a road that has grade and it has some drainage. As you proceeded from west to east, you realized, you could see, it was obvious that this was not longer a built-up road?

A. It was a road essentially that was cut out of the topography and had no ditches, and there was an abutment or shoulder right to the driving surface. It was different than the first part.

Q. Yes. And all those differences were obvious, were they not?

En outre, rien dans la preuve présentée au procès n'indiquait que les conducteurs avaient été trompés de quelque façon par la soi-disant « nature hybride » du chemin. L'échange suivant, entre l'avocat de l'intimée et M. Werner, illustre bien la façon dont les automobilistes perçoivent le chemin :

[TRADUCTION]

Q. Maintenant M. Werner, ne seriez-vous pas d'accord pour dire que le changement dans la nature de ce chemin lorsque vous rouliez d'est en ouest était très évident?

R. On roulait en ligne droite, puis on descendait une colline, et on ne savait vraiment pas ce qui pouvait se trouver de l'autre côté de la colline.

Q. C'est vrai. Mais je veux dire, le fait que le chemin suivait d'abord un tracé horizontal et en ligne droite pour soudainement devenir une colline et que vous ne pouviez pas voir -- vous pouviez voir du haut de la colline que le chemin ne continuait pas en ligne droite, n'est-ce pas?

R. Oui, vous pouviez, du haut de la colline, c'est une colline très abrupte, oui.

Q. Et au fur et à mesure que vous descendiez la colline il devenait assez évident, n'est-ce pas, que la nature du chemin changeait?

R. Oui, ça changeait, oui.

Q. Vous vous trouviez alors devant autre chose qu'un chemin en ligne droite?

R. M'hm. Oui.

Q. Vous étiez maintenant sur -- et à un moment donné la surface du chemin changeait, n'est-ce pas?

R. Oui.

Q. Et, évidemment, le chemin n'était plus, j'utilise le terme aménagé pour désigner un chemin possédant une certaine élévation et qui est dans une certaine mesure drainé. Au fur et à mesure que vous rouliez d'ouest en est, vous constatiez, vous pouviez voir, il était évident, qu'il ne s'agissait plus d'un chemin aménagé?

R. Il s'agit essentiellement d'un chemin tracé suivant la topographie des lieux et sans fossés, et il y avait un accotement à droite du conducteur. C'était différent de la portion précédente.

Q. Oui. Et toutes ces différences étaient évidentes, n'est-ce pas?

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A. Well, I -- they were clear, satisfactorily clear to me, yes. [Emphasis added.]

R. Bien, je -- elles étaient évidentes, suffisamment évidentes pour moi, oui. [Je souligne.]

135 Although they may be compelling factors in other cases, in this case the "dual nature" of the road, the radius of the curve, the surface of the road, and the lack of superelevation do not support the conclusion of the trial judge. The question of how a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would approach this road demands common sense. There was no necessity to post a sign in this case for the simple reason that any reasonable driver would have reacted to the presence of natural cues to slow down. The law does not require a municipality to post signs warning motorists of hazards that pose no real risk to a prudent driver. To impose a duty on the municipality to erect a sign in a case such as this is to alter the character of the duty owed by a municipality to drivers. Municipalities are not required to post warnings directed at drunk drivers and thereby deal with their inability to react to the cues that alert the ordinary driver to the presence of a hazard.

Bien qu'ils puissent constituer des facteurs concluants dans d'autres affaires, la « nature hybride » du chemin, le rayon de courbure du virage, le revêtement du chemin et l'absence d'élévation n'étayent pas en l'espèce la conclusion de la juge de première instance. Pour répondre à la question de savoir comment un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales roulerait sur ce chemin, il faut faire appel au bon sens. Il n'était pas nécessaire d'installer un panneau de signalisation en l'espèce, et ce pour la simple raison que n'importe quel conducteur raisonnable aurait réagi aux indices naturels l'invitant à ralentir. Le droit n'oblige pas les municipalités à installer des panneaux signalant aux automobilistes des dangers qui ne font pas courir de risque véritable aux conducteurs prudents. Imposer à la municipalité l'obligation d'installer un panneau dans un cas comme celui qui nous occupe équivaut à modifier la nature de l'obligation qu'ont les municipalités envers les conducteurs. Les municipalités ne sont pas tenues d'aménager des panneaux d'avertissement à l'intention des conducteurs en état d'ébriété et, ainsi, de remédier à leur incapacité de réagir aux indices qui alertent le conducteur moyen de la présence d'un danger.

136 My colleagues assert that the trial judge properly considered all aspects of the applicable legal test, including whether the curve would pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. They say that the trial judge did discuss, both explicitly and implicitly, the conduct of an ordinary or reasonable motorist approaching the curve. Secondly, they note that she referred to the evidence of the experts, Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, both of whom discussed the conduct of an ordinary motorist in this situation. Thirdly, the fact that the trial judge apportioned negligence to Nikolaisen indicates, in their view, that she assessed his conduct against the standard of the ordinary driver, and thus considered the conduct of the latter (para. 40).

Mes collègues affirment que la juge de première instance a dûment pris en considération tous les aspects du critère juridique applicable, y compris la question de savoir si la courbe présentait un risque pour le conducteur moyen qui prend des précautions normales. Ils disent que la juge de première instance a effectivement examiné, explicitement et implicitement, la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen ou raisonnable qui s'approche du virage. Ils font ensuite remarquer qu'elle a fait état du témoignage des experts MM. Anderson et Werner, qui ont tous deux analysé la conduite de l'automobiliste moyen se trouvant dans cette situation. Enfin, le fait qu'elle ait imputé une partie de la responsabilité à M. Nikolaisen indique, à leur avis, qu'elle a évalué sa conduite au regard à la norme du conducteur moyen, et qu'elle a donc pris en compte la façon dont ce dernier aurait conduit (par. 40).

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I respectfully disagree that it is explicit in the trial judge's reasons that she considered whether the portion of the road on which the accident occurred posed a risk to the ordinary driver exercising reasonable care. As I explained above, the fact that the trial judge restated the legal test in the form of a conclusion in no way suggests that she turned her mind to the issue of whether the ordinary driver would have found the curve to be hazardous.

Nor do I agree that a discussion of the conduct of an ordinary motorist in the situation was somehow "implicit" in the trial judge's reasons. In my view, it is highly problematic to presume that a trial judge made factual findings on a particular issue in the absence of any indication in the reasons as to what those findings were. While a trial judge is presumed to know the law, he or she cannot be presumed to have reached a factual conclusion without some indication in the reasons that he or she did in fact come to that conclusion. If the reviewing court is willing to presume that a trial judge made certain findings based on evidence in the record absent any indication in the reasons that the trial judge actually made those findings, then the reviewing court is precluded from finding that the trial judge misapprehended or neglected evidence.

In my view, my colleagues have throughout their reasons improperly presumed that the trial judge reached certain factual findings based on the evidence despite the fact that those findings were not expressed in her reasons. On the issue of whether the curve presented a risk to the ordinary driver, my colleagues note that "in relying on the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner, the trial judge chose not to base her decision on the conflicting evidence of other witnesses" (para. 46). The problem with this statement is that although the trial judge relied on the evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner to conclude that the portion of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred was a hazard, it is impossible from her reasons to discern what, if

137 En toute déférence, je ne crois pas qu'il ressorte explicitement des motifs de la juge de première instance qu'elle s'est demandé si la portion du chemin où s'est produit l'accident constituait un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Comme je l'ai expliqué précédemment, le fait que la juge de première instance ait reformulé le critère juridique sous forme de conclusion n'indique aucunement qu'elle s'est demandé si le conducteur moyen aurait considéré la courbe comme dangereuse.

138 Je n'estime pas non plus que l'examen de la façon de conduire de l'automobiliste moyen dans cette situation ressorte « implicitement » des motifs de la juge de première instance. À mon avis, il est très problématique de présumer qu'un juge de première instance a tiré des conclusions de fait à l'égard d'une question précise alors qu'il n'y a aucune indication dans ses motifs quant à la nature de ces conclusions. Bien que le juge de première instance soit censé connaître le droit, on ne peut présumer qu'il a tiré à une conclusion factuelle en l'absence d'indication dans ses motifs qu'il est effectivement arrivé à cette conclusion. Si le tribunal de révision est prêt à supposer que le juge de première instance a tiré certaines conclusions, sur la foi de la preuve figurant au dossier, bien que rien dans les motifs n'indique qu'il a vraiment tiré ces conclusions, alors le tribunal de révision ne saurait conclure que le juge de première instance a mal interprété des éléments de preuve ou a négligé d'en tenir compte.

139 À mon avis, tout au long de leurs motifs, mes collègues ont à tort présumé que la juge de première instance était arrivée à certaines conclusions de fait fondées sur la preuve, malgré le fait que ces conclusions ne soient pas formulées dans ses motifs. Quant à la question de savoir si le virage présentait un risque pour le conducteur moyen, mes collègues ont fait remarquer qu'« en s'appuyant sur les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner, la juge de première instance a choisi de ne pas fonder sa décision sur les témoignages contradictoires rendus par d'autres témoins » (par. 46). Le problème que pose cet énoncé est que, même si la juge de première instance s'est appuyée sur les témoignages de MM. Anderson et Werner

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any, evidence she relied on to reach the conclusion that the curve presented a risk to the ordinary driver exercising reasonable care. In the absence of any indication that she considered this issue, I am not willing to presume that she did.

140 My colleagues similarly presume findings of fact when discussing the knowledge of the municipality. On this issue, they reiterate that "it is open for a trial judge to prefer some parts of the evidence over others, and to re-assess the trial judge's weighing of the evidence, is, with respect, not within the province of an appellate court" (para. 62). At para. 64 of their reasons, my colleagues review the findings of the trial judge on the issue of knowledge and conclude that the trial judge "drew the inference that the municipality should have been put on notice and investigated Snake Hill Road, in which case it would have become aware of the hazard in question". I think that it is improper to conclude that the trial judge made a finding that the municipality's system of road inspection was inadequate in the absence of any indication in her reasons that she reached this conclusion. My colleagues further suggest that the trial judge did not impute knowledge to the municipality on the basis of the occurrence of prior accidents on Snake Hill Road (para. 65). They even state that it was not necessary for the trial judge to rely on the accidents in order to satisfy s. 192(3) (para. 67). This, in my view, is a reinterpretation of the trial judge's findings that stands in direct contradiction to the reasons that were provided by her. The trial judge discusses other factors pertaining to knowledge only to heighten the significance that she attributes to the fact that accidents had previously occurred on other portions of the road (at para. 90):

pour conclure que la portion du chemin Snake Hill où s'est produit l'accident constituait un danger, il est impossible, à partir de ses motifs, de dire si elle s'est appuyée sur un témoignage — et, dans l'affirmative, sur lequel de ceux-ci — pour conclure que la courbe présentait un risque pour le conducteur moyen qui prend des précautions raisonnables. En l'absence de toute indication que la juge de première instance s'est penchée sur cette question, je ne suis pas disposé à présumer qu'elle l'a fait.

De même, mes collègues supposent l'existence de conclusions factuelles dans leur examen de la question de la connaissance incombant à la municipalité. Sur ce point, ils réitèrent que « le juge de première instance peut préférer certaines parties de la preuve à d'autres, et, en toute déférence, il n'appartient pas au tribunal d'appel de procéder à nouveau à l'appréciation de la preuve, tâche déjà accomplie par le juge de procès » (par. 62). Au paragraphe 64 de leurs motifs, mes collègues examinent les conclusions de la juge de première instance sur la question de la connaissance et concluent qu'elle « a inféré que la municipalité aurait dû être informée de la situation sur le chemin à Snake Hill et aurait dû faire enquête à cet égard, ce qui lui aurait permis de prendre connaissance de l'existence du danger ». Je ne crois pas qu'on puisse à juste titre conclure que la juge de première instance est arrivée à la conclusion que le système d'inspection routière de la municipalité était inadéquat, alors que rien dans ses motifs n'indique qu'elle a tiré cette conclusion. Mes collègues estiment en outre que la juge de première instance n'a pas prêté à la municipalité la connaissance requise sur la base des accidents survenus antérieurement sur le chemin Snake Hill (par. 65). Ils disent même qu'il n'était pas nécessaire de s'appuyer sur ces accidents pour satisfaire aux exigences du par. 192(3) (par. 67). À mon avis, ils donnent à ces conclusions une nouvelle interprétation, qui contredit directement les motifs qu'elle a exposés. La juge de première instance examine d'autres facteurs qui touchent à la connaissance requise, uniquement pour souligner l'importance qu'elle accorde au fait que des accidents sont survenus antérieurement ailleurs sur le chemin (au par. 90) :

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If the R.M. did not have actual knowledge of the danger inherent in this portion of Snake Hill Road, it should have known. While four accidents in 12 years may not in itself be significant, it takes on more significance given the close proximity of three of these accidents, the relatively low volume of traffic, the fact that there are permanent residences on the road and the fact that the road is frequented by young and perhaps less experienced drivers. [Emphasis added.]

[TRADUCTION] Si la M.R. ne connaissait pas concrètement le danger intrinsèque que comporte cette portion du chemin Snake Hill, elle aurait dû le connaître. Le fait que quatre accidents se soient produits en 12 ans n'est peut-être pas significatif en soi, mais il le devient si l'on considère que trois de ces accidents sont survenus à proximité, qu'il s'agit d'une route à débit de circulation relativement faible, que des résidences permanentes sont situées en bordure de celle-ci et que ce chemin est fréquenté par des conducteurs jeunes et peut-être moins expérimentés. [Je souligne.]

141 My colleagues refer to the decision of *Van de Perre v. Edwards*, [2001] 2 S.C.R. 1014, 2001 SCC 60, in which I stated that "an omission [in the trial judge's reasons] is only a material error if it gives rise to the reasoned belief that the trial judge must have forgotten, ignored or misconceived the evidence in a way that affected his conclusion" (para. 15). This case is however distinguishable from *Van de Perre*. In *Van de Perre*, the appellate court improperly substituted its own findings of fact for the trial judge's clear factual conclusions on the basis that the trial judge had not considered all of the evidence. By contrast, in this case my colleagues assert that this Court should not interfere with the "findings of the trial judge" even where no findings were made and where such findings must be presumed from the evidence. The trial judge's failure in this case to reach any conclusion on whether the ordinary driver would have found the portion of the road on which the accident occurred hazardous, in my view, gives rise to the reasoned belief that she ignored the evidence on the issue in a way that affected her conclusion.

Mes collègues citent l'arrêt *Van de Perre c. Edwards*, [2001] 2 R.C.S. 1014, 2001 CSC 60, dans lequel j'ai dit, au par. 15, qu'« une omission [dans les motifs du juge de première instance] ne constitue une erreur importante que si elle donne lieu à la conviction rationnelle que le juge de première instance doit avoir oublié, négligé d'examiner ou mal interprété la preuve de telle manière que sa conclusion en a été affectée ». Cependant, le présent pourvoi peut être distingué de l'affaire *Van de Perre*. Dans cette affaire, la Cour d'appel avait irrégulièrement substitué ses propres conclusions de fait aux conclusions factuelles évidentes du juge de première instance, au motif que celui-ci n'avait pas pris en compte tous les éléments de preuve. Par contraste, dans le présent pourvoi, mes collègues affirment que notre Cour ne doit pas modifier les « conclusions de la juge de première instance », même si aucune conclusion n'a été tirée et s'il faut supposer leur existence à partir de la preuve. En l'espèce, je suis d'avis que l'omission de la juge de première instance de tirer quelque conclusion que ce soit quant à la question de savoir si le conducteur moyen aurait considéré comme dangereux le tronçon du chemin où s'est produit l'accident fait naître la conviction rationnelle que, sur ce point, elle a négligé d'examiner la preuve de telle manière que sa conclusion en a été affectée.

142 Finally, I do not agree that the trial judge's conclusion that Mr. Nikolaisen was negligent equates to an assessment of whether a motorist exercising ordinary care would have found the curve on which the accident occurred to be hazardous. It is clear from the trial judge's reasons that she made a factual finding that the curve could be driven safely at 60 km/h in dry conditions and 50 km/h in wet conditions and that Mr. Nikolaisen approached the curve at an

Enfin, je ne peux souscrire à l'opinion que la conclusion de la juge de première instance selon laquelle M. Nikolaisen a fait preuve de négligence vaut examen de la question de savoir si l'automobiliste moyen prenant des précautions normales aurait estimé que la courbe où s'est produit l'accident était dangereuse. Il ressort clairement des motifs de la juge de première instance qu'elle a tiré les conclusions de fait suivantes : il était possible de prendre

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excessive speed. As earlier stated, what she failed to consider was whether the ordinary driver exercising reasonable care would have approached the curve at a speed at which it could be safely negotiated, or, stated differently, whether the curve posed a real danger to the ordinary driver.

le virage en sécurité à 60 km/h à l'heure sur chaussée sèche et à 50 km/h sur chaussée humide, et M. Nikolaisen s'est approché du virage à une vitesse excessive. Comme je l'ai indiqué plus tôt, elle a omis de se demander si le conducteur moyen qui prend des précautions normales se serait approché du virage à une vitesse qui lui aurait permis de le prendre en sécurité ou, autrement dit, si la courbe présentait un danger réel pour le conducteur moyen.

B. *Did the Trial Judge Err in Finding that the Respondent Municipality Knew or Should Have Known of the Danger Posed by the Municipal Road?*

B. *La juge de première instance a-t-elle commis une erreur en concluant que la municipalité intimée connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le danger que présentait le chemin municipal?*

143 Pursuant to s. 192(3) of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, fault is not to be imputed to the municipality in the absence of proof by the plaintiff that the municipality "knew or should have known of the disrepair".

Conformément au par. 192(3) de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, aucune faute n'est imputée à la municipalité à moins que le demandeur n'établisse que celle-ci « connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin ».

144 The trial judge made no finding that the respondent municipality had actual knowledge of the alleged state of disrepair, but rather imputed knowledge to the respondent on the basis that it should have known of the danger. This is apparent in her findings on knowledge at paras. 89-91 of her reasons:

La juge de première instance n'a pas conclu que la municipalité intimée connaissait concrètement le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétend-on, le chemin, mais elle lui a plutôt prêté cette connaissance pour le motif qu'elle aurait dû connaître l'existence du danger. C'est ce qui ressort de ses conclusions à cet égard, aux par. 89 à 91 de ses motifs :

> Breach of the statutory duty of care imposed by section 192 of the *Rural Municipality Act, supra*, cannot be imputed to the R.M. unless it knew of or ought to have known of the state of disrepair on Snake Hill Road. Between 1978 and 1990 there were four accidents on Snake Hill Road. Three of these accidents occurred in the same vicinity as the Nikolaisen rollover. The precise location of the fourth accident is unknown. While at least three of these accidents occurred when motorists where travelling in the opposite direction of the Nikolaisen vehicle, they occurred on that portion of Snake Hill Road which is the most dangerous — where the road begins to curve, rather than where it is generally straight and flat. At least two of these accidents were reported to authorities.
>
> If the R.M. did not have actual knowledge of the danger inherent in this portion of Snake Hill Road, it should have known. While four accidents in 12 years may not in itself be significant, it takes on more significance

> [TRADUCTION] On ne peut reprocher à la municipalité rurale d'avoir manqué à l'obligation légale de diligence imposée par l'art. 192 de la loi intitulée la *Rural Municipality Act*, précitée, que si la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill. De 1978 à 1990, quatre accidents sont survenus sur ce chemin. Trois de ces accidents ont eu lieu dans le même secteur que celui où le véhicule de Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau. On ne connaît pas le lieu précis du quatrième accident. Bien que, dans au moins trois de ces accidents, les automobilistes aient circulé en sens inverse du véhicule de Nikolaisen, les accidents se sont produits dans la partie la plus dangereuse du chemin Snake Hill — là où commencent les courbes, et non dans la partie où le chemin est généralement droit et plat. Au moins deux de ces accidents ont été signalés aux autorités.
>
> Si la M.R. ne connaissait pas concrètement le danger intrinsèque que comporte cette portion du chemin Snake Hill, elle aurait dû le connaître. Le fait que quatre accidents se soient produits en 12 ans n'est peut-être pas

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given the close proximity of three of these accidents, the relatively low volume of traffic, the fact that there are permanent residences on the road and the fact that the road is frequented by young and perhaps less experienced drivers. I am not satisfied that the R.M. has established that in these circumstances it took reasonable steps to prevent this state of disrepair on Snake Hill Road from continuing.

I find that by failing to erect and maintain a warning and regulatory sign on this portion of Snake Hill Road the R.M. has not met the standard of care which is reasonable in the circumstances. Accordingly, it is in breach of its duty of care to motorists generally, and to Mr. Housen in particular. [Emphasis added.]

Whether the municipality should have known of the disrepair (here, the risk posed in the absence of a sign) involves both questions of law and questions of fact. As a matter of law, the trial judge must approach the question of whether knowledge should be imputed to the municipality with regard to the duties of the ordinary, reasonable and prudent municipal councillor (*Ryan v. Victoria (City)*, [1999] 1 S.C.R. 201, at para. 28). The question is then answered through the trial judge's assessment of the facts of the case.

I find that the trial judge made both errors of law and palpable and overriding errors of fact in determining that the respondent municipality should have known of the alleged state of disrepair. She erred in law by approaching the question of knowledge from the perspective of an expert rather than from the perspective of a prudent municipal councillor. She also erred in law by failing to appreciate that the onus of proving that the municipality knew or should have known of the alleged disrepair remained on the plaintiff throughout. The trial judge clearly erred in fact by drawing the unreasonable inference that the respondent municipality should have known that the portion of the road on which the accident occurred was dangerous from evidence that accidents had occurred on other parts of Snake Hill Road.

significatif en soi, mais il le devient si l'on considère que trois de ces accidents sont survenus à proximité, qu'il s'agit d'une route à débit de circulation relativement faible, que des résidences permanentes sont situées en bordure de celle-ci et que le chemin est fréquenté par des conducteurs jeunes et peut-être moins expérimentés. Je ne suis pas convaincue que la M.R. a établi avoir, dans ces circonstances, pris des mesures raisonnables pour remédier au mauvais état du chemin Snake Hill.

J'estime que, en omettant d'installer et de maintenir un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation dans cette partie du chemin Snake Hill, la M.R. n'a pas satisfait à la norme de diligence qui est raisonnable dans les circonstances. Par conséquent, elle ne s'est pas acquittée de son obligation de diligence à l'égard des automobilistes en général et à l'égard de M. Housen en particulier. [Je souligne.]

145 La question de savoir si la municipalité aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin (en l'occurrence, le risque que présentait l'absence de signalisation) soulève à la fois des questions de droit et des questions de fait. Sur le plan juridique, le juge de première instance doit se demander s'il y a lieu de présumer que la municipalité connaissait ce fait, au regard des obligations qui incombent au conseiller municipal ordinaire, raisonnable et prudent (*Ryan c. Victoria (Ville)*, [1999] 1 R.C.S. 201, par. 28). Le juge de première instance répond ensuite à la question en appréciant les faits de l'espèce dont il est saisi.

146 J'estime que la juge de première instance a commis et des erreurs de droit et des erreurs de fait manifestes et dominantes en statuant que la municipalité intimée aurait dû connaître le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétend-on, le chemin. Elle a commis une erreur de droit lorsqu'elle a examiné la question de la connaissance du point de vue du spécialiste plutôt que du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent. Elle a commis une autre erreur de droit en ne reconnaissant pas que le fardeau de prouver que la municipalité connaissait ou aurait dû connaître le mauvais état du chemin ne cessait jamais d'incomber au demandeur. La juge de première instance a clairement commis une erreur de fait en inférant déraisonnablement que la municipalité intimée aurait dû savoir que la partie du chemin où l'accident s'est produit était dangereuse, compte tenu de la preuve que des accidents avaient eu lieu ailleurs sur le chemin Snake Hill.

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147 The trial judge's failure to determine whether knowledge should be imputed to the municipality from the perspective of what a prudent municipal councillor should have known is implicit in her reasons. The respondent could not be held, for the purposes of establishing knowledge under the statutory test, to the standard of an expert analysing the curve after the accident. Yet this is precisely what the trial judge did. She relied on the expert evidence of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Werner to reach the conclusion that the curve presented a hidden hazard. She also implicitly accepted that the risk posed by the curve was not one that would be readily apparent to a lay person. This is evident in the portion of her judgment where she accepts as a valid excuse for not filing a timely claim against the respondent the appellant counsel's explanation that he did not believe the respondent to be at fault until expert opinions were obtained. The trial judge stated in this regard: "[i]t was only later when expert opinions were obtained that serious consideration was given to the prospect that the nature of Snake Hill Road might be a factor contributing to the accident" (para. 64). Her failure to consider the risk to the prudent driver is also apparent when one considers that she ignored the evidence concerning the way in which the two experts themselves had approached the dangerous curve (see para. 54 above).

Il ressort implicitement des motifs de la juge de première instance qu'elle n'a pas décidé s'il fallait prêter à la municipalité la connaissance requise en considérant cette question du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent. Pour trancher la question de la connaissance requise suivant le critère prévu par la loi, l'intimée ne pouvait être tenue aux mêmes normes qu'un spécialiste analysant la courbe après l'accident. Pourtant, c'est exactement ce qu'a fait la juge de première instance. Elle s'est fondée sur les témoignages d'expert donnés par MM. Anderson et Werner pour conclure que la courbe présentait un danger caché. Elle a également reconnu implicitement que le risque visé par la courbe n'était pas un risque facilement décelable par un profane. Cela ressort clairement du passage de son jugement où elle considère comme une excuse valable pour justifier le dépôt tardif de l'action contre l'intimée l'explication de l'avocat de l'appelant selon laquelle il ne croyait pas que l'intimée était dans son tort jusqu'à ce qu'il prenne connaissance des opinions des experts. La juge de première instance a dit ceci à cet égard : [TRADUCTION] « [c]e n'est que plus tard, après avoir obtenu l'opinion des experts, que la possibilité que la nature du chemin Snake Hill puisse avoir été un facteur ayant contribué à l'accident a été sérieusement envisagée » (par. 64). Son omission de s'interroger sur le risque que courrait le conducteur prudent apparaît elle aussi clairement, lorsqu'on considère qu'elle n'a pas tenu compte de la preuve concernant la façon dont les deux experts avaient eux-mêmes pris le virage dangereux (voir le par. 54 qui précède).

148 Had the trial judge considered the question of whether the municipality should have known of the alleged disrepair from the perspective of the prudent municipal councillor, she would necessarily have reached a different conclusion. There was no evidence that the road conditions which existed posed a risk that the respondent should have been aware of. The respondent had no particular reason to inspect that segment of the road for the presence of hazards. It had not received any complaints from motorists respecting the absence of signs on the road, the lack of superelevation on the curves, or the presence of

Si la juge de première instance avait répondu à la question de savoir si la municipalité aurait dû connaître le mauvais état dans lequel se trouvait, prétend-on, le chemin en se plaçant du point de vue du conseiller municipal prudent, elle serait nécessairement arrivée à une conclusion différente. Il n'y avait aucune preuve établissant que le danger existant créait un risque que l'intimée aurait dû connaître. Cette dernière n'avait aucune raison particulière d'aller inspecter cette portion du chemin pour voir s'il y existait des dangers. Elle n'avait reçu aucune plainte d'automobilistes relativement à l'absence de signalisation, à l'absence de surélévation des

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trees and vegetation which grew up along the sides of the road.

In addition, the question of the respondent's knowledge is linked inextricably to the standard of care. A municipality can only be expected to have knowledge of those hazards which pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care, since these are the only hazards for which there is a duty to repair. The trial judge should not have expected the respondent in this case to have knowledge of the road conditions that existed at the site of the Nikolaisen rollover since that road condition simply did not pose a risk to the reasonable driver. In addition to the evidence that was discussed above in the context of the standard of care, this conclusion is supported by the testimony of the several lay witnesses that testified at trial. Craig Thiel, a resident on the road, testified that he was not aware that Snake Hill Road had a reputation of being a dangerous road, and that he himself had never experienced difficulty with the portion of the road on which the accident occurred. His wife, Toby, also testified that she had experienced no problems with the road.

The trial judge also clearly erred in fact by imputing knowledge to the municipality on the basis of the four accidents that had previously occurred on Snake Hill Road. While her factual findings regarding the accidents themselves have a sound basis in the evidence, these findings simply do not support her conclusion that a prudent municipal councillor ought to have known that a risk existed for the normal prudent driver. As such, the trial judge erred in drawing an unreasonable inference from the evidence that was before her. As stated above, the standard of review for inferences of fact is, above all, one of reasonableness. This is reflected in the following passage from *Joseph Brant Memorial Hospital v. Koziol*, [1978] 1 S.C.R. 491, at pp. 503-4:

. . . "it is a well-known principle that appellate tribunals should not disturb findings of fact made by a trial judge

courbes ou à la présence d'arbres et de végétation en bordure du chemin.

149 En outre, la question de la connaissance de l'intimée est intimement liée à celle de la norme de diligence. Une municipalité est uniquement censée avoir connaissance des dangers qui présentent un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales, puisqu'il s'agit des seuls dangers à l'égard desquels existe une obligation d'entretien. En l'espèce, la juge de première instance n'aurait pas dû attendre de l'intimée qu'elle connaisse le danger qui existait à l'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau, puisque ce danger ne présentait tout simplement pas de risque pour le conducteur raisonnable. Outre les éléments de preuve examinés précédemment relativement à la norme de diligence, les témoignages de plusieurs témoins ordinaires qui ont déposé au procès étayent cette conclusion. Craig Thiel, qui habite le long de ce chemin, a témoigné qu'il ne savait pas que le chemin Snake Hill avait la réputation d'être dangereux et qu'il n'avait lui-même jamais éprouvé de difficulté à conduire à l'endroit du chemin où est survenu l'accident. Sa conjointe, Toby, a également dit ne pas avoir connu de problème sur ce chemin.

150 La juge de première instance a clairement commis une autre erreur de fait en présumant, sur la foi des quatre accidents survenus auparavant sur le chemin Snake Hill, que la municipalité connaissait l'existence du danger. Bien que ses conclusions de fait relativement aux accidents eux-mêmes soient solidement étayées par la preuve, elles n'appuient tout simplement pas sa conclusion qu'un conseiller municipal prudent aurait dû savoir qu'il existait un risque pour le conducteur prudent. En conséquence, la juge de première instance a fait erreur en tirant une inférence déraisonnable de la preuve qui lui était soumise. Comme il a été indiqué plus tôt, la norme de contrôle applicable aux inférences de fait est, d'abord et avant tout, celle de la décision raisonnable. Les propos suivants du juge Spence dans l'arrêt *Joseph Brant Memorial Hospital c. Koziol*, [1978] 1 R.C.S. 491, p. 503-504, illustrent bien ce principe :

. . . « c'est un principe bien connu que les tribunaux d'appel ne doivent pas remettre en cause les conclusions

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if there were credible evidence before him upon which he could reasonably base his conclusion". [Emphasis added.]

de fait du juge de première instance, s'il existait des témoignages dignes de foi sur lesquels le juge pouvait raisonnablement fonder ses conclusions ». [Je souligne.]

151 As I stated above, there was no evidence to suggest that the respondent had actual knowledge that accidents had previously occurred on Snake Hill Road. To the contrary, Mr. Danger, the administrator of the municipality, testified that the first he heard of the accidents was at the trial.

Comme je l'ai mentionné précédemment, il n'y avait aucune preuve indiquant que l'intimée savait concrètement que d'autres accidents étaient survenus auparavant sur le chemin Snake Hill. Au contraire, M. Danger, l'administrateur de la municipalité, a témoigné qu'il avait entendu parler de ces accidents pour la première fois au procès.

152 Implicit in the trial judge's reasons, then, was the expectation that the municipality should have known about the accidents through an accident-reporting system. The appellant put forward that argument explicitly before this Court, placing significant emphasis on the fact that respondent "has no regularized approach to gathering this information, whether from councillors or otherwise". The argument suggests that, had the municipality established a formal system to find out whether accidents had occurred on a given road, it would have known that accidents had occurred on Snake Hill Road and would have taken the appropriate corrective action to ensure that the road was safe for travellers.

Par conséquent, il ressort implicitement des motifs de la juge de première instance que la municipalité aurait censément dû connaître l'existence des accidents grâce à un système d'information en la matière. L'appelant a expressément plaidé cet argument devant notre Cour, insistant fortement sur le fait que l'intimée [TRADUCTION] « ne dispose pas d'un mécanisme structuré de collecte de cette information, que ce soit par l'entremise des conseillers ou d'autres personnes ». Suivant cet argument, on prétend que, si la municipalité avait établi un système officiel lui permettant de savoir si des accidents sont survenus sur une route donnée, elle aurait su que des accidents s'étaient produits sur le chemin Snake Hill et elle aurait pris les mesures correctives appropriées pour faire en sorte que le chemin soit sécuritaire pour les usagers.

153 I find the above argument to be flawed in two important respects. First, the argument that the other accidents on Snake Hill Road were relevant in this case is based on the assumption that there was an obligation on the respondent municipality to have a "regularized" accident-reporting system, and that the informal system that was in place was somehow deficient. In my view, the appellant did not meet its onus to show that the system relied on by the municipality to discharge its obligations under s. 192 of the *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989* was deficient. The evidence shows that, prior to 1988, there was no formal system of accident reporting in place. There was, nonetheless, an informal system whereby the municipal councillors were responsible for finding out if there were road hazards. Information that hazards existed came to the attention of the councillors via complaints, and from their own familiarity

J'estime que l'argument susmentionné présente deux lacunes importantes. Premièrement, l'argument selon lequel les autres accidents survenus sur le chemin Snake Hill étaient pertinents en l'espèce repose sur la présomption que la municipalité intimée avait l'obligation d'avoir un système « structuré » d'information sur les accidents, et que le système informel en place était d'une certaine manière déficient. À mon avis, l'appelant ne s'est pas acquitté du fardeau qui lui incombait de démontrer que le système sur lequel la municipalité se fondait pour remplir ses obligations au titre de l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, était déficient. La preuve établit que, avant 1988, il n'existait pas de système officiel d'information sur les accidents. Il existait néanmoins, un système informel dans le cadre duquel les conseillers municipaux étaient chargés de s'enquérir de l'existence de dangers

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with the roads within the township under their jurisdiction. The trial judge made a palpable error in finding that this informal system was deficient in the absence of any evidence of the practice of other municipalities at the time that the accidents occurred and what might have been a reasonable system, particularly given the fact that the rural municipality in question had only six councillors. There is no evidence that a rural municipality of this type requires the sort of sophisticated information-gathering process that may be required in a city, where accidents occur with greater frequency and where it is less likely that word of mouth will suffice to bring hazards to the attention of the councillors.

sur les routes. Les conseillers étaient informés de l'existence de dangers par suite des plaintes qu'ils recevaient et par leur propre expérience des routes situées dans les cantons qu'ils représentaient. La juge de première instance a commis une erreur manifeste en concluant que ce système informel était déficient, alors qu'aucune preuve n'indiquait quelles étaient les pratiques suivies par d'autres municipalités à cet égard au moment des accidents, ni n'expliquait en quoi aurait consisté un système raisonnable, compte tenu particulièrement du fait que la municipalité rurale concernée ne comptait que six conseillers. Il n'y a aucune preuve indiquant qu'une municipalité rurale de ce genre a besoin du genre de mécanisme élaboré de collecte de renseignements dont peut avoir besoin une grande ville, où les accidents sont plus fréquents et où il est peu probable que le bouche à oreille soit suffisant pour porter les dangers à l'attention des conseillers.

154 The respondent municipality now has a more formalized system of accident reporting. Since 1988, Saskatchewan Highways and Transportation annually provides the municipalities with a listing of all motor vehicle accidents which occur within the municipality and which are reported to the police. While I agree that this system may provide the municipality with a better chance of locating hazards in some circumstances, I do not accept that the adoption of this system is relevant on the facts of this case. Only one accident, which occurred in 1990, was reported to the respondent under this system. The appellant adduced no evidence to suggest that this accident occurred at the same location as the Nikolaisen rollover, or that this accident occurred as a result of the conditions of the road rather than the negligence of the driver.

La municipalité intimée possède maintenant un système plus officiel d'information sur les accidents. Depuis 1988, en effet, le ministère de la Voirie et du Transport de la Saskatchewan communique annuellement à chaque municipalité la liste de tous les accidents d'automobile survenus sur son territoire et signalés aux policiers. Bien que ce système puisse, j'en conviens, permettre aux municipalités de mieux repérer les dangers dans certaines circonstances, je ne crois pas que son adoption soit pertinente eu égard aux faits de l'espèce. Un seul accident, survenu en 1990, a été signalé à l'intimée par le truchement de ce système. L'appelant n'a produit aucun élément de preuve indiquant que cet accident est survenu au même endroit que celui où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau, ou qu'il était attribuable à l'état de la route plutôt qu'à la négligence du conducteur.

155 Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, it was simply illogical for the trial judge to infer from the fact of the earlier accidents that the respondent should have known that the site of the Nikolaisen rollover posed a risk to prudent drivers. The three accidents, which took place in 1978, 1985, and 1987, occurred on different curves, while the vehicles involved were proceeding in the opposite

Deuxièmement, élément peut-être plus important encore, il était tout simplement illogique pour la juge de première instance d'inférer de l'existence des accidents antérieurs que l'intimée aurait dû savoir que l'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau présentait un risque pour les conducteurs prudents. Les trois accidents — qui sont survenus en 1978, 1985 et 1987

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direction. The accidents of 1978 and 1987 occurred on the first right-turning curve in the road with the drivers travelling westbound, at the bottom of the hill. The accident in 1985 took place on the next curve in the road with the driver also travelling westbound, again on a different curve from the one where the Nikolaisen rollover took place. If anything, these accidents signal that the municipality should have been concerned with the curves that were, when travelling westbound, to the east of the site of the Nikolaisen rollover. The evidence disclosed no accidents that had occurred at the precise location of the accident that is the subject of this case.

— se sont produits dans des courbes différentes, et les véhicules concernés circulaient en sens inverse. L'accident de 1978 et celui de 1987 ont eu lieu dans le premier virage à droite au pied de la colline, les automobilistes roulant alors en direction ouest. L'accident de 1985 s'est produit dans la deuxième courbe, toujours en direction ouest, encore une fois dans une courbe différente de celle où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau. Si ces accidents indiquent quoi que ce soit, c'est plutôt que la municipalité aurait dû se préoccuper des courbes qui, pour les véhicules circulant en direction ouest, se trouvent à l'est de l'endroit où le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen a fait un tonneau. La preuve n'a révélé aucun accident qui se serait produit à l'endroit précis où est survenu l'accident qui nous intéresse.

156 Furthermore, the mere occurrence of an accident does not in and of itself indicate a duty to post a sign. In many cases, accidents happen not because of the conditions of the road, but rather because of the negligence of the driver. Illustrative in this regard is Mr. Agrey's accident on Snake Hill Road in 1978. Mr. Agrey testified that, just prior to the accident, he had turned his attention away from the road to talk to one of the passengers in the vehicle. Another passenger shouted to him to "look out", but by the time he was alerted it was too late to properly navigate the turn. Mr. Agrey was charged and fined for his carelessness. As was discussed in the context of the standard of care, a municipality is not obligated to make safe the roads for all drivers, regardless of the care and attention that they are exercising when driving. It need only keep roads in such a state of repair as will allow a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care to drive with safety.

Qui plus est, le simple fait qu'un accident se produise n'emporte pas en soi l'obligation d'installer un panneau signalisateur. Dans bien des cas, les accidents surviennent non pas à cause de l'état de la route, mais plutôt à cause de la négligence du conducteur. Un bon exemple de cela est l'accident dont a été victime M. Agrey sur le chemin Snake Hill en 1978. Ce dernier a témoigné que, juste avant l'accident, il avait quitté des yeux la route pour parler à l'un des passagers du véhicule. Un autre passager lui a crié de faire attention, mais il était déjà trop tard pour bien exécuter le virage. Accusé de conduite imprudente, M. Agrey a été déclaré coupable et condamné à une amende. Comme on l'a vu plus tôt, dans le contexte de la norme de diligence, une municipalité n'a pas l'obligation de rendre les chemins sécuritaires pour tous les conducteurs, indépendamment de la prudence et de l'attention avec lesquelles ils conduisent. Elle est seulement tenue de maintenir les chemins dans un état propre à permettre au conducteur raisonnable qui prend des précautions normales d'y circuler en sécurité.

157 In addition to the substantial errors discussed above, I would also note that, in my view, the trial judge was inattentive to the onus of proof on this issue. When reviewing the evidence pertaining to other accidents on Snake Hill Road, the trial judge remarked, at para. 31: "Cst. Forbes does not recall

Outre les erreurs substantielles examinées précédemment, je tiens également à souligner que, selon moi, la juge de première instance ne s'est pas souciée du fardeau de preuve sur cette question. Lorsqu'elle a examiné la preuve relative aux autres accidents survenus sur le chemin Snake Hill, la juge

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any other accident on Snake Hill Road during her time at the Shellbrook RCMP Detachment, from 1987 until 1996. Cpl. Healey had heard of one other accident. Forbes and Healey are only two of nine members of the RCMP Detachment at Shellbrook" (emphasis added). By this comment, the trial judge seems to imply that there may have been more accidents on Snake Hill Road that had been reported and that the respondent should have known about this. With all due respect to the trial judge, if there had been accidents other than the ones that were raised at trial, it was up to the appellant to bring evidence of these accidents forward, either by calling the RCMP members to whom they had been reported, or by calling those who were involved in the accidents, or by any other available means. Furthermore, the significance that the trial judge attributed to the other accidents that occurred on Snake Hill Road was dependent on her assumption that the respondent should have had a formal accident-reporting system in place. The respondent did not bear the onus of demonstrating that it was not obliged to have such a system; there was, rather, a positive onus on the appellant to demonstrate that such a system was required and that the informal reporting system was inadequate.

de première instance a fait les remarques suivantes au par. 31 : [TRADUCTION] « La gendarme Forbes ne se souvient pas de quelque autre accident sur le chemin Snake Hill durant la période où elle était affectée au détachement de la GRC de Shellbrook, de 1987 à 1996. Le caporal Healey avait entendu parler d'un autre accident. Forbes et Healey ne sont que deux des neuf membres du détachement de la GRC à Shellbrook » (je souligne). Par cette remarque, la juge de première instance semble laisser entendre que d'autres accidents sur le chemin Snake Hill ont pu avoir été signalés et que l'intimée aurait dû le savoir. En toute déférence pour la juge de première instance, s'il y avait eu d'autres accidents que ceux qui ont été mentionnés au procès, il appartenait à l'appelant d'en faire la preuve, soit en faisant témoigner les membres de la GRC à qui les accidents avaient été signalés ou encore les personnes en cause dans ces accidents, soit en utilisant tout autre moyen à sa disposition. En outre, l'importance que la juge de première instance a accordée aux autres accidents survenus sur le chemin Snake Hill dépendait du postulat que l'intimée aurait dû posséder un système officiel d'information sur les accidents. L'intimée n'était pas tenue de prouver qu'elle n'avait pas l'obligation de disposer d'un tel système. Il incombait plutôt à l'appelant d'établir que ce genre de système était nécessaire et que le système informel existant était insuffisant.

C. *Did the Trial Judge Err in Finding that the Accident was Caused in Part by the Failure of the Respondent Municipality to Erect a Sign Near the Curve?*

C. *La juge de première instance a-t-elle commis une erreur en concluant que l'accident avait été causé, en partie, par le défaut de la municipalité intimée d'installer un panneau de signalisation près de la courbe?*

158

The trial judge's findings on causation are found at para. 101 of her judgment, where she states:

> I find that this accident occurred as a result of Mr. Nikolaisen entering the curve on Snake Hill Road at a speed slightly in excess of that which would allow successful negotiation. The accident occurred at the most dangerous segment of Snake Hill Road where a warning or regulatory sign should have been erected and maintained to warn motorists of an impending and hidden hazard. Mr. Nikolaisen's degree of impairment only

Les conclusions de la juge de première instance au sujet du lien de causalité figurent au par. 101 de son jugement, où elle dit ceci :

> [TRADUCTION] J'estime que l'accident s'est produit parce que M. Nikolaisen s'est engagé dans le virage sur le chemin Snake Hill à une vitesse légèrement supérieure à celle qui lui aurait permis de réussir la manœuvre. L'accident est survenu dans la portion la plus dangereuse du chemin Snake Hill, à un endroit où un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation aurait dû être installé et maintenu pour avertir les automobilistes de

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served to increase the risk of him not reacting, or reacting inappropriately to a sign. Mr. Nikolaisen was not driving recklessly such that he would have intentionally disregarded a warning or regulatory sign. He had moments earlier, when departing the Thiel residence, successfully negotiated a sharp curve which he could see and which was apparent to him. I am satisfied on a balance of probabilities that had Mr. Nikolaisen been forewarned of the curve, he would have reacted and taken appropriate corrective action such that he would not have lost control of his vehicle when entering the curve.

l'imminence d'un danger caché. Le degré d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen n'a fait qu'accroître le risque qu'il ne réagisse pas du tout ou encore de façon inappropriée à une signalisation. M. Nikolaisen ne conduisait pas de façon si téméraire qu'il aurait intentionnellement fait abstraction d'un panneau d'avertissement ou de signalisation. Quelques instants plus tôt, au moment de quitter la résidence des Thiel, il avait pris avec succès un virage serré qu'il pouvait clairement voir. Je suis convaincue, selon la prépondérance des probabilités, que si on avait prévenu M. Nikolaisen de l'existence de la courbe, il aurait réagi et pris des mesures appropriées, qui l'auraient empêché de perdre la maîtrise de son véhicule en s'engageant dans le virage.

159 The trial judge's above findings in respect to causation represent conclusions on matters of fact. Consequently, this Court will only interfere if it finds that in coming to these conclusions she made a manifest error, ignored conclusive or relevant evidence, misunderstood the evidence, or drew erroneous conclusions from it (*Toneguzzo-Norvell*, *supra*, at p. 121).

Les conclusions susmentionnées de la juge de première instance touchant le lien de causalité sont des conclusions portant sur des questions de fait. Par conséquent, notre Cour n'interviendra que si elle estime que, pour arriver à ses conclusions, la juge a commis une erreur manifeste, n'a pas tenu compte d'un élément de preuve déterminant ou pertinent, a mal compris la preuve ou en a tiré des conclusions erronées (*Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité, p. 121).

160 In coming to her conclusion on causation, the trial judge made several of the types of errors that this Court referred to in *Toneguzzo-Norvell*. To the extent that the trial judge relied on the evidence of Mr. Laughlin, the only expert to have testified on the issue of causation, I find that she either misunderstood his evidence or drew erroneous conclusions from it. The only other testimony in respect to causation was anecdotal evidence pertaining to Mr. Nikolaisen's level of impairment provided by Craig Thiel, Toby Thiel and Paul Housen. Although their testimonies provided some evidence in respect to causation, for reasons I will discuss, it was not evidence on which the trial judge could reasonably rely. Nor do I find that the trial judge was entitled to rely on evidence that Mr. Nikolaisen successfully negotiated the curve from the Thiel driveway onto Snake Hill Road. The inference that the trial judge drew from this fact was unreasonable and ignored evidence that Mr. Nikolaisen swerved even on this curve. In addition, the trial judge clearly erred by ignoring other relevant evidence in respect to causation, in particular the fact that Mr. Nikolaisen had driven on the

En arrivant à sa conclusion sur le lien de causalité, la juge de première instance a commis plusieurs des erreurs mentionnées par notre Cour dans l'arrêt *Toneguzzo-Norvell*, précité. Dans la mesure où la juge de première instance s'est fondée sur le témoignage de M. Laughlin, le seul expert à avoir témoigné sur la question du lien de causalité, j'estime qu'elle a mal interprété son témoignage ou qu'elle en a tiré des conclusions erronées. Les éléments anecdotiques des témoignages de Craig Thiel, Toby Thiel et Paul Housen concernant le degré d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen constituent la seule autre preuve testimoniale sur le lien de causalité. Bien que leurs témoignages aient fourni quelques éléments de preuve touchant cette question, il ne s'agit pas, pour des raisons que j'examinerai plus loin, d'éléments sur lesquels la juge de première instance pouvait raisonnablement s'appuyer. Je n'estime pas non plus qu'elle pouvait se fonder sur la preuve que M. Nikolaisen avait réussi à prendre le virage permettant d'accéder au chemin Snake Hill depuis l'entrée des Thiel. L'inférence que la juge de première instance a tirée de ce fait était déraisonnable et faisait abstraction de la preuve selon laquelle

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road three times in the 18 to 20 hours preceding the accident.

le véhicule de M. Nikolaisen avait fait une embardée même dans cette courbe. En outre, la juge de première instance a clairement commis une erreur en ne prenant pas en considération d'autres éléments de preuve pertinents concernant le lien de causalité, en particulier le fait que M. Nikolaisen avait roulé à trois reprises sur le chemin en question au cours des 18 à 20 heures ayant précédé l'accident.

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I cannot agree with the trial judge that the testimony of Mr. Laughlin, a forensic alcohol specialist employed by the RCMP supports the finding that Mr. Nikolaisen would have reacted to a sign forewarning of the impending right-turning curve on which the accident occurred. The preponderance of Mr. Laughlin's testimony establishes that persons at the level of impairment which Mr. Nikolaisen was found to be at when the accident occurred would be unlikely to react to a warning sign. In addition, Mr. Laughlin's testimony points overwhelmingly to the conclusion that alcohol was the causal factor which led to this accident. The trial judge erred by misapprehending one comment in Mr. Laughlin's testimony and ignoring the significance of his testimony when taken as a whole.

Je ne partage pas l'avis de la juge de première instance voulant que le témoignage de M. Laughlin, spécialiste judiciaire en matière d'alcool au service de la GRC, étaye la conclusion que M. Nikolaisen aurait réagi à un panneau lui signalant l'imminence du virage droite où s'est produit l'accident. Le témoignage de M. Laughlin établit de façon prépondérante que des personnes dans un état d'ébriété aussi avancé que celui de M. Nikolaisen au moment de l'accident ne réagiraient vraisemblablement pas à un panneau d'avertissement. De plus, le témoignage de M. Laughlin mène irrésistiblement à la conclusion que l'alcool a été le facteur causal de l'accident. La juge de première instance a commis une erreur à cet égard, car elle a mal interprété un élément de la déposition de M. Laughlin et elle a omis de tenir compte de l'importance de son témoignage, considéré globalement.

162

Based on blood samples obtained by Constable Forbes approximately three hours after the accident occurred, Mr. Laughlin predicted that Mr. Nikolaisen's blood alcohol level at the time of the accident ranged from 180 to 210 milligrams percent. Mr. Laughlin commented at length on the effect that this level of blood alcohol could be expected to have on a person's ability to drive, testifying:

> Well, My Lady, this alcohol level that I've calculated here is a very high alcohol level. The critical mental faculties [that] are important in operating a motor vehicle will be impaired by the alcohol. And any skill that depends on these mental faculties will be affected. These include anticipation, judgment, attention, concentration, the ability to divide attention among two or more areas of interest. Because these are affected to such a degree, it would be unsafe for anybody to operate a motor vehicle with this level of alcohol in their body.

À la lumière des échantillons de sang prélevés par la gendarme Forbes environ trois heures après l'accident, M. Laughlin a estimé que, au moment de l'accident, l'alcoolémie de M. Nikolaisen se situait entre 180 et 210 mg par 100 ml de sang. Dans son témoignage, M. Laughlin a commenté en détail l'incidence d'une telle alcoolémie sur la capacité d'une personne de conduire :

> [TRADUCTION] Bien, Madame, l'alcoolémie que j'ai calculée en l'espèce est très élevée. Les facultés mentales essentielles qui jouent un rôle important dans la conduite d'un véhicule automobile sont affaiblies par l'alcool. Et toute habileté tributaire de ces facultés mentales est affectée, notamment l'anticipation, le jugement, l'attention, la concentration, la capacité de partager son attention entre deux choses ou plus. Et parce qu'elles sont affectées à ce point, il serait risqué pour quiconque possède un tel taux d'alcool dans son sang de conduire un véhicule automobile.

When asked about his knowledge of research pertaining to the effects of alcohol on the risk of being involved in an automobile accident, Mr. Laughlin had this to say:

At this level the moderate user of alcohol risk of causing crash is tremendously high, probably 100 times that of a sober driver, or even higher. And in some cases at this level, I've seen scientific literature indicating that the risk of causing a fatal crash is 2 to 300 times that of a sober driver. . . . if an impaired person is an experienced drinker there — it won't be that high. However, there will be an increased risk compared to a sober state. . . . But above 100 milligrams percent, regardless of tolerance, a person will be impaired with respect to driving ability.

Following these comments, Mr. Laughlin discussed the ability of a severely impaired person to react to the presence of a hazard when driving:

My Lady, I would like to add that the driving task is a demanding one and involves many multi-various tasks occurring at the same time. The hazard for a person under the influence of alcohol is it takes longer to notice a hazard or danger if one should occur; it takes longer to decide what corrective action is appropriate, and it takes longer to execute that decision and the person may tend to make incorrect decisions. So there is increased risk in that process. As well, if the impairment has progressed to the point where the motor skills are affected, the execution of that decision is impaired. So it's not a very graceful attempt at a corrective action. As well, some people tend to make more risks under the influence of alcohol. They do not apply sound reasoning and judgment. They are not able to properly assess the impairment of their driving skills, they are not able to properly assess the risk, not able to properly assess the changing road and weather conditions and adjust for that. But even if they do recognize those as hazards, they may tend to take more risks than a sober driver would.

163 The above comments support the conclusion that the accident occurred as a result of Mr. Nikolaisen's impairment and not as a result of any failure on the part of the respondent. Indeed, when the portions of Mr. Laughlin's testimony that the trial judge relied

Interrogé sur l'état des recherches touchant l'incidence de l'alcool sur le risque d'accident automobile, voici ce qu'a dit M. Laughlin :

[TRADUCTION] À ce taux-là, le risque qu'une personne qui consomme modérément de l'alcool provoque un accident est extrêmement élevé, probablement 100 fois plus élevé que le conducteur à jeun, ou plus encore. Et dans certains cas, à ce taux-là, j'ai lu des textes scientifiques dans lesquels on indiquait que le risque de provoquer un accident mortel est de 200 à 300 fois plus élevé que celui d'un conducteur à jeun. [. . .] [S]i la personne en état d'ébriété est quelqu'un qui a l'habitude de boire, le risque n'est pas aussi élevé. Cependant, il est plus grand que si la personne avait été à jeun. [. . .] Mais au dessus de 100 mg par 100 ml de sang, peu importe le degré de tolérance à l'alcool, une personne a les facultés affaiblies pour ce qui concerne sa capacité de conduire.

Après avoir fait ces remarques, M. Laughlin a décrit la capacité d'une personne en état d'ébriété avancé de réagir à la présence d'un danger lorsqu'elle conduit.

[TRADUCTION] Madame, j'aimerais ajouter que conduire un véhicule est une activité exigeante, qui demande d'accomplir une multiplicité de tâches simultanément. Le danger pour la personne qui conduit en état d'ébriété réside dans le fait qu'il lui faut plus de temps pour déceler la présence d'un risque ou d'un danger; il lui faut plus de temps pour décider quelle mesure corrective est requise, et elle prend plus de temps à mettre cette décision à exécution; de plus, une telle personne peut avoir tendance à prendre de mauvaises décisions. Ce processus accroît donc le risque. Aussi, si l'ébriété est avancée au point où les habiletés motrices sont affaiblies, l'exécution de la décision s'en trouve compromise. Il s'ensuit donc une tentative plutôt malhabile de corriger la situation. De plus, certaines personnes tendent à prendre davantage de risques lorsqu'elles sont en état d'ébriété. Elles ne font pas preuve de discernement et de jugement. Elles sont incapables d'évaluer correctement les changements dans l'état de la route et les conditions météorologiques et d'adapter leur conduite en conséquence. Mais même si elles reconnaissent qu'il s'agit effectivement de dangers, elles peuvent avoir tendance à prendre davantage de risques que le conducteur à jeun.

Les remarques qui précèdent étayent la conclusion que l'accident s'est produit en raison de l'état d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen et non de quelque manquement de la part de l'intimée. De fait, lorsque les extraits du témoignage de M. Laughlin sur lesquels

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on are considered in their context, they do not support her conclusion that Mr. Nikolaisen would have been able to react to a sign had one been posted. When asked by counsel whether it was possible for an individual with Mr. Nikolaisen's blood alcohol level to perceive and react to a road sign, Mr. Laughlin responded:

> Yes, it's possible that a person will see and react to it and maybe react properly. It's possible that they will react improperly or may miss it altogether. I think what's key here is that at this level of alcohol, it's more likely that the person under this level of alcohol will either miss the sign or not react properly compared to the sober driver. That the driver with this level of alcohol will make more mistakes than will the sober driver. [Emphasis added.]

In the passage above, it is clear that Mr. Laughlin is merely admitting that anything is possible, while solidly expressing the view that drivers at this level of intoxication are more likely to not react to a sign or other warning. This view is also apparent in the following passage, in which Mr. Laughlin expands on the ability of an intoxicated driver to react to signs and other road conditions:

> What happens with respect to perception under the influence of alcohol is a driver tends to concentrate on the central field of vision, and miss certain indicators on the periphery, that's called tunnel vision. As well, drivers tend to concentrate on the lower part of that central field of view and therefore they don't have a very long preview distance in the course of operating a motor vehicle and looking down the road. And so studies indicate that under the influence of alcohol drivers tend to miss more signs, warnings, indicators, especially those in the peripheral field of view or farther down the road. [Emphasis added.]

164 In argument before this Court, the appellant emphasized that although Mr. Laughlin was the only expert to testify with respect to causation, lay witnesses testified that Mr. Nikolaisen was not visibly impaired prior to leaving the Thiel residence.

s'est fondée la juge de première instance sont examinés dans leur contexte, ils n'appuient pas la conclusion de cette dernière que M. Nikolaisen aurait été capable de réagir à un panneau de signalisation s'il y en avait eu un. Répondant à la question d'un avocat lui demandant s'il était possible qu'une personne ayant l'alcoolémie de M. Nikolaisen voit un panneau de signalisation et y réagisse, M. Laughlin a dit ceci :

> [TRADUCTION] Oui, il est possible qu'une personne le voit et y réagisse et peut-être qu'elle réagisse adéquatement. Il est possible qu'elle ne réagisse pas adéquatement ou qu'elle ne le voit même pas. J'estime que l'élément fondamental à retenir ici est qu'il est probable que la personne ayant atteint cette alcoolémie ne voit pas le panneau, ou ne réagisse pas adéquatement, comparativement au conducteur à jeun. Que le conducteur avec cette alcoolémie commette plus d'erreurs que le conducteur à jeun. [Je souligne.]

Il est clair, dans le passage qui précède, que M. Laughlin reconnaît simplement que tout est possible, tout en avançant avec conviction qu'il y a une plus forte probabilité que les conducteurs ayant atteint ce degré d'ébriété ne réagissent pas à un panneau de signalisation ou à une autre mesure d'avertissement. Cette opinion ressort également clairement de l'extrait suivant, où il donne des précisions supplémentaires sur la capacité d'une personne en état d'ébriété de réagir aux panneaux de signalisation et à d'autres éléments sur les routes :

> [TRADUCTION] Sur le plan de la perception, le conducteur en état d'ébriété a tendance à se concentrer sur son champ visuel central et à manquer certains indices en périphérie, c'est ce qu'on appelle la vision tubulaire. En outre, les conducteurs ont tendance à se concentrer sur la partie inférieure de ce champ visuel central et, en conséquence, ils ne voient pas très loin devant eux sur la route lorsqu'il sont au volant. Et, par conséquent, les recherches indiquent que les conducteurs en état d'ébriété ont tendance à manquer davantage de panneaux de signalisation, d'avertissements, d'indices, particulièrement ceux situés dans leur champ visuel périphérique ou plus loin sur la route. [Je souligne.]

Au cours des plaidoiries devant notre Cour, l'appelant a souligné que, bien que M. Laughlin ait été le seul expert entendu au sujet du lien de causalité, les témoins ordinaires ont attesté que M. Nikolaisen n'avait pas les facultés visiblement

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It is not clear from the trial judge's reasons that she relied on testimony to this effect given by Craig Thiel, Toby Thiel and Paul Housen. To the extent that she did rely on such evidence to establish that the accident was caused in part by the respondent's negligence, I find this reliance to be unreasonable. Whereas the lay witnesses in this case were qualified to give their opinion on whether they, as ordinary drivers, could safely negotiate the segment of Snake Hill Road on which the accident occurred, they were not qualified to assess the degree of Mr. Nikolaisen's impairment. The reason for their lack of qualification in this regard was explained by Mr. Laughlin in the following response to counsel's question on whether it is possible to draw a conclusion from the fact that an individual does not exhibit any impairment of their motor skills and speech:

> No, Your Honour, because, My Lady, when you're looking at motor skill impairment or for signs of motor skill impairment, you're looking for signs of intoxication, not impairment. Remember I mentioned that the first components affected by alcohol are cognitive and mental faculties. These are all important in driving. However, it is very difficult when you look at an individual who has been consuming alcohol to tell that they have impaired in attention or divided attention, or concentration, or judgment. So as an indicator of impairment, motor skills are not reliable. And if you think about the *Criminal Code* process, they've been abandoned 30 years ago as a useful indicator of impairment. No longer do we rely on police officers subjective assessment of person's motor skills to determine impairment. [Emphasis added.]

165 It is also clear from the trial judge's reasons that she relied to some extent on evidence that Mr. Nikolaisen successfully negotiated the curve at the point where the driveway to the Thiel residence intersected the road. I agree with the respondent that this fact is simply not relevant. The ability of Mr. Nikolaisen to negotiate this curve does not establish that his driving ability was not impaired. As noted by the respondent, at para. 101 of its factum, he may

affaiblies avant de quitter la résidence des Thiel. Les motifs de la juge de première instance n'indiquent pas clairement si elle s'est appuyée sur les témoignages de Craig Thiel, Toby Thiel et Paul Housen à cet égard. Dans la mesure où elle se serait fondée sur cette preuve pour conclure que l'accident avait été causé en partie par la négligence de l'intimée, j'estime qu'il était déraisonnable de le faire. En l'espèce, bien que compétents pour exprimer leur opinion sur la question de savoir s'ils pourraient, en tant que conducteurs moyens, manœuvrer en toute sécurité sur le tronçon du chemin Snake Hill où l'accident s'est produit, les témoins ordinaires n'étaient pas compétents pour évaluer le degré d'ébriété de M. Nikolaisen. La raison de leur absence de compétence à cet égard a été expliquée en ces termes par M. Laughlin, dans la réponse suivante qu'il a donnée à l'un des avocats qui lui demandait s'il était possible de tirer des conclusions du fait qu'une personne ne démontre ni signe d'affaiblissement de ses habiletés motrices ni problème d'élocution :

> [TRADUCTION] Non, votre Honneur, puisque, Madame, lorsqu'on vérifie s'il y a affaiblissement des habiletés motrices ou des signes de cet affaiblissement, on cherche des indices d'ébriété, et non d'affaiblissement des facultés. Rappelez-vous que j'ai dit que les premières facultés affectées par l'alcool sont les facultés cognitives et mentales. Elles sont toutes importantes lorsqu'il s'agit de conduire un véhicule. Cependant, lorsqu'on examine une personne qui a consommé de l'alcool, il est très difficile de dire si son attention ou sa capacité de diviser son attention, ou si sa concentration ou son jugement sont réduits. En conséquence les habiletés motrices ne sont pas des indices fiables d'affaiblissement des facultés. Et si on pense au processus prévu par le *Code criminel*, on a cessé d'y recourir depuis 30 ans en tant qu'indices utiles de l'affaiblissement des facultés. On ne se fie plus à l'appréciation subjective policier quant aux habiletés motrices d'une personne pour déterminer si les facultés de celle-ci sont affaiblies. [Je souligne.]

Il appert également des motifs de la juge de première instance qu'elle s'est dans une certaine mesure fondée sur la preuve indiquant que M. Nikolaisen avait réussi à prendre le virage à l'intersection de l'entrée de la résidence des Thiel et du chemin Snake Hill. Je partage l'avis de l'intimée selon lequel ce fait n'est tout simplement pas pertinent. La capacité de M. Nikolaisen de prendre ce virage n'établit pas que sa capacité de conduire

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have been driving more slowly at this point, or he may simply have been lucky. More importantly, this evidence contributes nothing to the issue of whether or not Mr. Nikolaisen would have reacted to a sign on the curve where the accident occurred, had one been present. There was no sign on the curve one faces upon leaving the driveway, just as there was no sign on the curve where the accident took place.

n'était pas affaiblie. Comme l'a souligné l'intimée, au par. 101 de son mémoire, il a pu réduire sa vitesse à cet endroit, ou simplement avoir eu de la chance. Facteur plus important encore cette preuve n'aide d'aucune façon à déterminer si M. Nikolaisen aurait réagi à un panneau placé à l'approche de la courbe où s'est produit l'accident, si un tel panneau avait existé. Il n'y avait aucun panneau aux abords de la courbe située à la sortie de l'entrée, tout comme il n'y en avait pas aux abords de celle où s'est produit l'accident.

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At any rate, the trial judge's reliance on Mr. Nikolaisen's successful negotiation of the curve at the location of the Thiel driveway ignores relevant evidence that he had swerved or "fish-tailed" when leaving the Thiel residence. A reasonable inference to be drawn from this evidence is that while Mr. Nikolaisen was able to negotiate this curve, he did not do so free from difficulty. While this evidence may not be significant in and of itself, it should have been enough to alert the trial judge to the problems inherent in the inference she drew from his ability to navigate this earlier curve.

Quoi qu'il en soit, en se fondant sur le fait que M. Nikolaisen avait pris avec succès le virage devant l'entrée des Thiel, la juge de première instance a fait abstraction de l'élément de preuve pertinent indiquant que l'arrière de son véhicule avait zigzagué à son départ de la résidence des Thiel. On peut raisonnablement inférer de cette preuve que, quoique M. Nikolaisen ait été en mesure de prendre ce virage, il n'y est pas parvenu sans difficulté. Bien que cette preuve ne soit pas nécessairement importante en soi, elle aurait dû néanmoins alerter la juge de première instance quant aux problèmes intrinsèques de l'inférence qu'elle tirait de la capacité de M. Nikolaisen de prendre ce premier virage.

167

In addition to ignoring the relevant evidence of the fish-tail marks, the trial judge failed to consider the relevance of the fact that Mr. Nikolaisen had travelled Snake Hill Road three times in the 18 to 20 hours preceding the accident. In her review of the evidence, she noted at para. 8 of her reasons that: "Mr. Nikolaisen was unfamiliar with Snake Hill Road. While he had in the preceding 24 hours travelled the road three times, only once was in the same direction that he was travelling upon leaving the Thiel residence."

En plus de ne pas avoir tenu compte de la preuve pertinente que constituaient les traces des zigzags, la juge de première instance n'a pas considéré pertinent le fait que M. Nikolaisen avait circulé sur le chemin Snake Hill à trois reprises au cours des 18 à 20 heures ayant précédé l'accident. Dans son examen de la preuve, elle a souligné, au par. 8 de ses motifs, que [TRADUCTION] « M. Nikolaisen ne connaissait pas bien le chemin Snake Hill. Bien qu'il ait emprunté ce chemin à trois reprises au cours des 24 heures précédentes, il ne l'a fait qu'une seule fois dans la même direction que celle qu'il a prise en quittant la résidence des Thiel. »

168

I simply cannot see how the trial judge found accidents which occurred when motorists were travelling in the opposite direction relevant to the issue of the respondent's knowledge of a risk to motorists while at the same time suggesting that the fact that Mr. Nikolaisen had driven the road in the opposite direction twice was irrelevant to the issue of whether

Je ne vois tout simplement pas comment la juge de première instance a pu conclure que les accidents qu'ont eu des automobilistes circulant en sens inverse étaient pertinents pour statuer sur la connaissance par l'intimée de l'existence d'un risque d'accident, tout en suggérant du même souffle que le fait que M. Nikolaisen ait roulé à deux reprises

or not he would have recognized that the curve posed a risk or that he would have reacted to a warning sign. This discrepancy aside, I find the fact that Mr. Nikolaisen had travelled Snake Hill Road in the same direction when he left the Thiel residence to go to the Jamboree the evening before the accident highly relevant to the causation issue. The finding that the outcome would have been different had Mr. Nikolaisen been forewarned of the curve ignores the fact that he already knew that the curve was there. I agree with the respondent that the obvious reason Mr. Nikolaisen was unable to safely negotiate the curve on the afternoon of the 18th, despite having negotiated this curve and others without difficulty in the preceding 18 to 20 hours was the combined effect of his drinking, lack of sleep and lack of food.

en sens inverse sur le chemin en question n'était pas pertinent pour déterminer s'il aurait reconnu que la courbe présentait un risque ou s'il aurait réagi à un panneau d'avertissement. Indépendamment de cette contradiction, j'estime que le fait que M. Nikolaisen ait roulé dans la même direction sur le chemin Snake Hill après avoir quitté la résidence des Thiel pour se rendre au jamboree, la veille de l'accident, est fort pertinent en ce qui concerne le lien de causalité. La conclusion que le résultat aurait été différent si une signalisation avait prévenu M. Nikolaisen de l'existence de la courbe ne tient pas compte du fait qu'il savait déjà qu'elle existait. Je souscris à l'opinion de l'intimée que la raison évidente pour laquelle M. Nikolaisen n'a pas réussi à prendre le virage en toute sécurité dans l'après-midi du 18, alors qu'il avait déjà pris ce virage et d'autres sans difficulté au cours des 18 à 20 heures précédentes, était l'effet combiné de sa consommation d'alcool, de son manque de sommeil et du fait qu'il n'avait pas mangé.

169 In conclusion on the issue of causation, I wish to clarify that the fact that the trial judge referred to some evidence to support her findings on this issue does not insulate those findings from review by this Court. The standard of review for findings of fact is reasonableness, not absolute deference. Such a standard entitles the appellate court to assess whether or not it was clearly wrong for the trial judge to rely on some evidence when other evidence points overwhelmingly to the opposite conclusion. The logic of this approach was aptly explained by Kerans, *supra*, in the following passage at p. 44:

Pour conclure sur la question du lien de causalité, j'aimerais préciser que le fait que la juge de première instance ait mentionné certains éléments de preuve au soutien de ses conclusions sur ce point n'a pas pour effet de soustraire ces conclusions au pouvoir de contrôle de notre Cour. La norme de contrôle applicable aux conclusions de fait est celle de la décision raisonnable et non celle de la retenue absolue. Cette norme permet au tribunal d'appel de se demander si le juge de première instance a clairement fait erreur en décidant comme il l'a fait sur le fondement de certains éléments de preuve alors que d'autres éléments mènent irrésistiblement à la conclusion inverse. Kerans, *op. cit.*, p. 44, a habilement exposé la logique de cette démarche dans le passage suivant :

> The key to the problem is whether the reviewer is to look merely for "evidence to support" the finding. Some evidence might indeed support the finding, but other evidence may point overwhelmingly the other way. A court might be able to say that reliance on the "some" in the face of the "other" was not what the reasonable trier of fact would do; indeed, it might say that, in all the circumstances it was convinced that to rely on the one in the face of the other was quite unreasonable. To say that "some evidence" is enough, then, without regard to that "other

> [TRADUCTION] La solution au problème réside dans la réponse à la question de savoir si le tribunal de révision doit simplement se demander s'il existe « des éléments de preuve étayant » la conclusion. Il est possible que certains éléments de preuve étayent effectivement la conclusion alors que d'autres éléments conduisent irrésistiblement à la conclusion inverse. Un tribunal pourrait être en mesure de dire qu'un juge des faits raisonnable ne s'appuierait pas sur « certains » éléments vu l'existence des « autres »; de fait, il pourrait dire que, eu égard à

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evidence" is to turn one's back on review for reasonableness.

l'ensemble des circonstances, il est convaincu qu'il était tout à fait déraisonnable de se fonder sur certains éléments compte tenu des autres. En conséquence, affirmer que « certains éléments de preuve » suffisent, sans égard aux « autres éléments », revient à abandonner l'examen du caractère raisonnable.

D. *Did the Courts Below Err in Finding that no Common Law Duty of Care Exists Alongside the Statutory Duty Imposed Under Section 192 of The Rural Municipality Act, 1989?*

D. *Les juridictions inférieures ont-elles commis une erreur en concluant qu'aucune obligation de diligence de common law ne coexiste avec l'obligation légale imposée par l'art. 192 de la Rural Municipality Act, 1989?*

170

The appellant urges this Court to find that a common law duty of care exists alongside the statutory duty of care imposed on the respondent by s. 192 of *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*. According to the appellant, the application of the common law duty of care would free the Court from the need to focus on how a reasonable driver exercising ordinary care would have navigated the road in question. The appellant submits that the Court would instead apply the "classic reasonableness formulation" which, in its view, would require the Court to take into account the likelihood of a known or foreseeable harm, the gravity of that harm, and the burden or cost of preventing that harm. The appellant argues that the respondent would be held liable under this test.

L'appelant invite notre Cour à conclure qu'une obligation de diligence de common law coexiste avec l'obligation légale de diligence imposée à l'intimée par l'art. 192 de la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*. Selon l'appelant, l'application de l'obligation de diligence de common law dispenserait la Cour de la nécessité de se demander comment un conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales aurait roulé sur le chemin en cause. L'appelant soutient que la Cour pourrait plutôt appliquer le [TRADUCTION] « critère classique de la conduite raisonnable », lequel, à son avis, l'obligerait à tenir compte des éléments suivants : la probabilité qu'un préjudice connu ou prévisible survienne, la gravité de ce préjudice et le fardeau ou le coût qu'il faudrait assumer pour le prévenir. L'appelant prétend que, suivant ce critère, l'intimée serait tenue responsable.

171

The courts below rejected the above argument when it was put to them by the appellant. I would not interfere with their ruling on this issue for the reason that it is unnecessary for this Court to impose a common law duty of care where a statutory one clearly exists. In any event, the application of the common law test would not affect the outcome in these proceedings.

Les juridictions inférieures ont rejeté l'argument susmentionné de l'appelant. Je ne modifierais pas leur décision sur cette question, car il est inutile que notre Cour impose une obligation de diligence de common law lorsqu'il existe clairement une obligation d'origine législative. Quoi qu'il en soit, l'application du critère prévu par la common law ne modifierait pas l'issue de la présente instance.

172

I agree with the respondent's submissions that in this case, where the legislature has clearly imposed a statutory duty of care on the respondents, it would be redundant and unnecessary to find that a common law duty of care exists. The two-part test to establish a common law duty of care set out in *Kamloops (City of) v. Nielsen*, [1984] 2 S.C.R. 2, simply has no application where the legislature has defined a statutory duty. As was stated by this Court in *Brown*

Je souscris à l'argument de l'intimée selon lequel, en l'espèce, il serait redondant et inutile de conclure qu'elle est assujettie à une obligation de diligence de common law alors que le législateur lui a clairement imposé une obligation légale de diligence. Le critère à deux volets énoncé dans l'arrêt *Kamloops (Ville de) c. Nielsen*, [1984] 2 R.C.S. 2, pour statuer sur l'existence d'une obligation de diligence de common law, ne s'applique tout

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v. British Columbia (Minister of Transportation and Highways), [1994] 1 S.C.R. 420, at p. 424:

. . . if a statutory duty to maintain existed as it does in some provinces, it would be unnecessary to find a private law duty on the basis of the neighbourhood principle in *Anns v. Merton London Borough Council*, [1978] A.C. 728. Moreover, it is only necessary to consider the policy/operational dichotomy in connection with the search for a private law duty of care.

All of the authorities cited by the appellant as support for the imposition of an independent common law duty of care can be distinguished from the case at hand on the basis that no statutory duty of care existed (*Just, supra*; *Brown, supra*; *Swinamer v. Nova Scotia (Attorney General)*, [1994] 1 S.C.R. 445; *Ryan, supra*).

173 In addition, I find that the outcome in this case would not be different if the case were determined according to ordinary negligence principles. First, were the Court to engage in a common law analysis, it would still look to the statutory standard of care as laid out in *The Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, as interpreted by the case law in order to assess the scope of liability owed by the respondent to the appellant. As this Court stated in *Ryan, supra*, at para. 29:

Statutory standards can, however, be highly relevant to the assessment of reasonable conduct in a particular case, and in fact may render reasonable an act or omission which would otherwise appear to be negligent. This allows courts to consider the legislative framework in which people and companies must operate, while at the same time recognizing that one cannot avoid the underlying obligation of reasonable care simply by discharging statutory duties.

174 Moreover, even under the common law analysis, this Court would be called upon to question the type of hazards that the respondent, in this case, ought to have foreseen. Whatever the approach, it is only rea-

simplement pas lorsque le législateur a prescrit l'obligation dans la loi. Comme l'a indiqué notre Cour dans l'arrêt *Brown c. Colombie-Britannique (Ministre des Transports et de la Voirie)*, [1994] 1 R.C.S. 420, p. 424 :

. . . s'il existait une obligation d'entretien imposée par la loi comme c'est le cas dans certaines provinces, il serait inutile de rechercher une obligation en droit privé en se fondant sur le principe du prochain établi dans l'arrêt *Anns c. Merton London Borough Council*, [1978] A.C. 728. En outre, il est nécessaire d'examiner la dichotomie politique générale-opérations seulement en ce qui concerne la recherche d'une obligation de diligence en droit privé.

Tous les arrêts invoqués par l'appelant pour justifier sa prétention que la municipalité devrait être assujettie à une obligation indépendante de diligence de common law peuvent être distingués de la présente affaire, étant donné qu'il n'existait aucune obligation légale de diligence dans ces affaires (*Just*, précitée; *Brown*, précitée; *Swinamer c. Nouvelle-Écosse (Procureur général)*, [1994] 1 R.C.S. 445; *Ryan*, précitée).

En outre, j'estime que le résultat serait le même en l'espèce si l'affaire était tranchée d'après les principes ordinaires de la négligence. Tout d'abord, si la Cour faisait l'analyse prévue par la common law, elle appliquerait quand même la norme légale de diligence établie dans la *Rural Municipality Act, 1989*, telle qu'elle a été interprétée par la jurisprudence, pour déterminer l'étendue de la responsabilité de l'intimée envers l'appelant. Comme l'a dit notre Cour dans l'arrêt *Ryan*, précité, par. 29 :

Cependant, les normes législatives peuvent être hautement pertinentes pour déterminer ce qui constitue une conduite raisonnable dans un cas particulier, et elles peuvent, en fait, rendre raisonnable un acte ou une omission qui, autrement, paraîtrait négligent. En conséquence, les tribunaux peuvent examiner le cadre législatif dans lequel les personnes et les sociétés doivent agir, tout en reconnaissant qu'il est impossible de se soustraire à l'obligation sous-jacente de diligence raisonnable simplement en s'acquittant de ses obligations légales.

De plus, même dans le cadre de l'analyse requise par la common law, notre Cour devrait s'interroger sur le type de dangers que l'intimée aurait dû prévoir en l'espèce. Indépendamment de l'approche choisie,

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sonable to expect a municipality to foresee accidents which occur as a result of the conditions of the road, and not, as in this case, as a result of the condition of the driver.

il n'est que raisonnable d'attendre d'une municipalité qu'elle prévoit les accidents qui surviennent en raison de l'état du chemin, et non, comme en l'espèce, ceux qui résultent de l'état du conducteur.

175

The courts have long restricted the standard of care under the statutory duty to require municipalities to repair only those hazards which would pose a risk to the reasonable driver exercising ordinary care. Compelling reasons exist to maintain this interpretation. The municipalities within the province of Saskatchewan have some 175,000 kilometres of roads under their care and control, 45,000 kilometres of which fall within the "bladed trail" category. These municipalities, for the most part, do not boast large, permanent staffs with extensive time and budgetary resources. To expand the repair obligation of municipalities to require them to take into account the actions of unreasonable or careless drivers when discharging this duty would signify a drastic and unworkable change to the current standard. Accordingly, it is a change that I would not be prepared to make.

Depuis longtemps, les tribunaux limitent l'étendue de la norme de diligence découlant de l'existence d'un devoir légal de diligence à l'obligation pour les municipalités d'éliminer seulement les dangers qui présenteraient un risque pour le conducteur raisonnable prenant des précautions normales. Des raisons impérieuses militent en faveur du maintien de cette interprétation. Les municipalités de la province de la Saskatchewan assument l'entretien et la surveillance de quelque 175 000 kilomètres de route, dont 45 000 kilomètres font partie de la catégorie des « chemins nivelés ». La plupart de ces municipalités ne disposent ni d'effectifs permanents considérables ni de ressources importantes en temps et en argent. Élargir l'obligation d'entretien des municipalités en exigeant qu'elles tiennent compte, dans l'exécution de cette obligation, des actes des conducteurs déraisonnables ou imprudents, entraînerait une modification radicale et irréalisable de la norme actuelle. Il s'agit en conséquent d'un changement que je ne serais pas disposé à apporter.

VII. Disposition

In the result, the judgment of the Saskatchewan Court of Appeal is affirmed and the appeal is dismissed with costs.

Appeal allowed with costs, GONTHIER, BASTARACHE, BINNIE *and* LEBEL JJ. *dissenting.*

Solicitors for the appellant: Robertson Stromberg, Saskatoon; Quon Ferguson MacKinnon, Saskatoon.

Solicitors for the respondent: Gerrand Rath Johnson, Regina.

VII. Dispositif

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En définitive, le jugement de la Cour de l'appel de la Saskatchewan est confirmé et le pourvoi est rejeté avec dépens.

Pourvoi accueilli avec dépens, les juges GONTHIER, BASTARACHE, BINNIE *et* LEBEL *sont dissidents.*

Procureurs de l'appelant : Robertson Stromberg, Saskatoon; Quon Ferguson MacKinnon, Saskatoon.

Procureurs de l'intimée : Gerrand Rath Johnson, Regina.

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TAB 4

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Jaegli Enterprises Limited
(*Defendant-Respondent*) *Appellant*;

and

Paul Ankenman (*Defendant-Respondent*) *Appellant*;

and

Teresa Taylor, by her guardian *ad litem*, Jim Taylor and the said Jim Taylor, and Deborah Taylor (*Plaintiffs-Appellants*) *Respondents*;

and

Her Majesty The Queen in right of the Province of British Columbia, The Honourable the Minister of the Department of Recreation and Travel Industry, Grace McCarthy, and Herb Green
(*Defendants-Respondents*).

1981: May 22; 1981: June 22.

Present: Dickson, Estey, McIntyre, Chouinard and Lamer JJ.

ON APPEAL FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL FOR BRITISH COLUMBIA

Torts — Negligence — Appeal from the Court of Appeal's overturning trial decision and finding respondents liable.

Courts — Appellate court overturning decision at trial and finding respondents liable for negligence — No palpable error at trial — Interpretation of evidence as a whole in issue.

Teresa Taylor was seriously injured during a ski lesson by a skier (LaCasse) who came over the crest of a knoll and accidentally collided with her. Through her parents, she sued LaCasse for skiing out of control, the instructor (Ankenman) for negligence in conducting the ski lesson and his employer (Jaegli Enterprises Limited), and other defendants as owners and occupiers of the ski hill for negligence in permitting a danger or trap to exist where plaintiff was injured. At trial, LaCasse was found solely responsible; he subsequently abandoned an appeal. Plaintiffs' appeal from the dismissal of the action against the other defendants was allowed with respect to Ankenman and Jaegli Enterprises Limited but dismissed against the other defendants. Ankenman and

Jaegli Enterprises Limited
(*Défenderesse-intimée*) *Appelante*;

et

Paul Ankenman (*Défendeur-intimé*) *Appelant*;

et

Teresa Taylor, représentée *ad litem* par Jim Taylor et ledit Jim Taylor, et Deborah Taylor (*Demandeurs-appelants*) *Intimés*;

et

Sa Majesté La Reine du chef de la province de la Colombie-Britannique, The Honourable the Minister of the Department of Recreation and Travel Industry, Grace McCarthy, et Herb Green (*Défendeurs-intimés*).

1981: 22 mai; 1981: 22 juin.

Présents: Les juges Dickson, Estey, McIntyre, Chouinard et Lamer.

EN APPEL DE LA COUR D'APPEL DE LA COLOMBIE-BRITANNIQUE

Responsabilité délictuelle — Négligence — Pourvoi contre l'arrêt de la Cour d'appel qui a infirmé la décision de première instance et conclu à la responsabilité des intimés.

Tribunaux — Une cour d'appel qui infirme la décision de première instance et conclut à la négligence des intimés — Aucune erreur manifeste en première instance — L'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve est en litige.

Teresa Taylor a subi des blessures graves pendant un cours de ski lorsqu'un skieur (LaCasse) a franchi la crête d'une butte et l'a heurtée accidentellement. Par l'intermédiaire de ses parents, elle a poursuivi LaCasse pour avoir skié sans savoir où il allait, le moniteur (Ankenman) pour négligence en donnant un cours de ski et son employeur (Jaegli Enterprises Limited) ainsi que les autres défendeurs en leur qualité de propriétaires et d'occupants de la pente de ski, pour négligence du fait qu'ils ont permis la présence d'un danger ou d'un piège à l'endroit où la demanderesse a été blessée. En première instance, on a conclu à la responsabilité exclusive de LaCasse; ce dernier, ayant interjeté appel, s'est par la suite désisté. L'appel des appelants attaquant le rejet de

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Jaegli Enterprises Limited appealed with leave to this Court.

Held: The appeal should be allowed.

It was wrong for an appellate court to set aside a trial judgment where there was not palpable and overriding error, and the only point at issue was the interpretation of the evidence as a whole. It could not be said that the trial judge was plainly wrong in finding as a fact that Ankenman was not negligent.

Schreiber Brothers Limited v. Currie Products Limited and Gulf Oil Canada Limited, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 78; *Stein v. "Kathy K."*, [1976] 2 S.C.R. 802; *Lewis v. Todd*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 694; (1980), 115 D.L.R. (3d) 257, referred to.

APPEAL from a judgment of the Court of Appeal for British Columbia[1], allowing an appeal from the judgment of Meredith J. dismissing the action as against some of the defendants. Appeal allowed.

L. G. Finch and *J. A. Hardy*, for the appellant Jaegli Enterprises Limited.

Harvey Grey, Q.C., and *Chris Hinkson*, for the appellant Paul Ankenman.

B. W. F. McLoughlin, Q.C., and *J. G. Tollestrup* for the respondents Teresa Taylor, by her guardian *ad litem* Jim Taylor and the said Jim Taylor, and Deborah Taylor.

The judgment of the Court was delivered by

DICKSON J.—On April 8, 1976 Teresa Taylor and a friend were taking a ski lesson from Paul Ankenman on the slopes of Gibson Pass, in Manning Park, British Columbia when Larry LaCasse came over the crest of a knoll and accidentally collided with her, causing her grievous injuries. Through her parents she sued LaCasse for skiing out of control, Ankenman for negligence in conducting the ski lesson, Jaegli Enterprises as Ankenman's employer, and other defendants as occupiers and operators of the ski hill for negli-

[1] (1980), 112 D.L.R. (3d) 297.

l'action contre les autres défendeurs a été accueilli à l'égard d'Ankenman et de Jaegli Enterprises Limited mais rejeté contre les autres défendeurs. Avec la permission de la Cour, Ankenman et Jaegli Enterprises Limited se pourvoient.

Arrêt: Le pourvoi est accueilli.

Une cour d'appel commet une erreur lorsqu'elle infirme un jugement de première instance s'il n'y a pas une erreur manifeste et dominante, et si l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve est le seul point en litige. On ne peut dire que le juge de première instance a commis une erreur manifeste en concluant qu'en fait Ankenman n'a pas été négligent.

Jurisprudence: *Schreiber Brothers Limited c. Currie Products Limited et Gulf Oil Canada Limitée*, [1980] 2 R.C.S. 78; *Stein c. «Kathy K.»*, [1976] 2 R.C.S. 802; *Lewis c. Todd*, [1980] 2 R.C.S. 694; (1980), 115 D.L.R. (3d) 257.

POURVOI à l'encontre d'un arrêt de la Cour d'appel de la Colombie-Britannique[1], qui a accueilli un appel contre la décision du juge Meredith qui a rejeté l'action contre certains défendeurs. Pourvoi accueilli.

L. G. Finch et *J. A. Hardy*, pour l'appelante Jaegli Enterprises Limited.

Harvey Grey, c.r., et *Chris Hinkson*, pour l'appelant Paul Ankenman.

B. W. F. McLoughlin, c.r., et *J. G. Tollestrup*, pour les intimés Teresa Taylor, représentée *ad litem* par Jim Taylor et ledit Jim Taylor, et Deborah Taylor.

Version française du jugement de la Cour rendu par

LE JUGE DICKSON—Le 8 avril 1976, Teresa Taylor, accompagnée d'une amie, suivait un cours de ski dispensé par Paul Ankenman sur les pentes de Gibson Pass, dans le parc Manning, en Colombie-Britannique, lorsque Larry LaCasse a franchi la crête d'une butte et l'a heurtée accidentellement, lui occasionnant des blessures graves. Par l'intermédiaire de ses parents, elle a poursuivi LaCasse pour avoir skié sans savoir où il allait, Ankenman pour négligence en donnant un cours de ski, Jaegli Enterprises en sa qualité d'employeur

[1] (1980), 112 D.L.R. (3d) 297.

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gence in permitting a danger or trap to exist where Teresa was injured. At the end of a nine-day trial Mr. Justice Meredith, the presiding judge, delivered a judgment in which he very carefully considered all of the evidence and concluded that the accident had been caused solely by Larry LaCasse and that the plaintiffs should recover damages, in an amount to be assessed, against LaCasse. The claims against Paul Ankenman, Jaegli Enterprises Limited and the other defendants were dismissed with costs. LaCasse appealed but abandoned his appeal. The plaintiffs appealed the dismissal of the action against the other defendants. The appeal was allowed (Seaton and MacDonald JJ.A., Craig J.A. dissenting) against Paul Ankenman and Jaegli Enterprises Limited and liability apportioned against them jointly and severally to the extent of twenty per cent. The appeal against the other defendants was dismissed. The present appeal is brought, with leave of this Court, by Jaegli Enterprises Limited and Paul Ankenman from the order of the Court of Appeal for British Columbia.

We are all of the opinion that the appeal should be allowed. We would adopt the reasons of Mr. Justice Craig on appeal. Mr. Justice Craig referred to several judgments of this Court including *Schreiber Brothers Limited v. Currie Products Limited and Gulf Oil Canada Limited*[2] (pronounced March 27, 1980) and *Stein v. "Kathy K."*[3] (to which might now be added *Lewis v. Todd*[4] for the proposition that it is wrong for an appellate court to set aside a trial judgment where there is not palpable and overriding error, and the only point at issue is the interpretation of the evidence as a whole. Mr. Justice Craig concluded:

> Although I do not necessarily subscribe to everything the trial Judge said in this case, I am, having regard to these statements of authority, unable to say that the trial Judge was plainly wrong in finding as a fact that the respondent Ankenman was not negligent.

[2] [1980] 2 S.C.R. 78.
[3] [1976] 2 S.C.R. 802.
[4] [1980] 2 S.C.R. 694; (1980), 115 D.L.R. (3d) 257.

de Ankenman et les autres défendeurs en leur qualité d'occupants et d'exploitants de la pente de ski, pour négligence du fait qu'ils ont permis la présence d'un danger ou d'un piège à l'endroit où Teresa a été blessée. A la fin d'un procès de neuf jours, le juge Meredith, qui a présidé le procès, a rendu un jugement dans lequel il a examiné soigneusement toute la preuve et a conclu que l'accident était imputable uniquement à Larry LaCasse et que les demandeurs pouvaient recouvrer de LaCasse des dommages-intérêts pour un montant à déterminer. Les réclamations contre Paul Ankenman, Jaegli Enterprises Limited et les autres défendeurs ont été rejetées avec dépens. LaCasse a interjeté appel, mais s'est désisté. Les demandeurs ont attaqué en appel le rejet de l'action contre les autres défendeurs. L'appel a été accueilli (les juges Seaton et MacDonald, le juge Craig dissident) contre Paul Ankenman et Jaegli Enterprises Limited qui ont été tenus responsables conjointement et solidairement pour vingt pour cent des dommages. L'appel contre les autres défendeurs a été rejeté. Avec la permission de cette Cour, Jaegli Enterprises Limited et Paul Ankenman attaquent l'arrêt de la Cour d'appel de la Colombie-Britannique.

Nous sommes tous d'avis d'accueillir le pourvoi. Nous souscrivons aux motifs de jugement du juge Craig en appel. Le juge Craig a mentionné plusieurs arrêts de cette Cour y compris *Schreiber Brothers Limited c. Currie Products Limited et Gulf Oil Canada Limited*[2] (rendu le 27 mars 1980) et *Stein c. «Kathy K.»*[3] (auxquels on peut maintenant ajouter *Lewis c. Todd*[4] pour dire qu'une cour d'appel commet une erreur lorsqu'elle infirme un jugement de première instance s'il n'y a pas une erreur manifeste et dominante, et si l'interprétation de l'ensemble de la preuve est le seul point en litige. Le juge Craig a conclu:

> [TRADUCTION] Même si je n'accepte pas nécessairement tout ce que le juge de première instance a dit en l'espèce, je ne puis dire, compte tenu de cette jurisprudence, que le juge de première instance a commis une erreur manifeste en concluant qu'en fait l'intimé Ankenman n'a pas été négligent.

[2] [1980] 2 R.C.S. 78.
[3] [1976] 2 R.C.S. 802.
[4] [1980] 2 R.C.S. 694; (1980), 115 D.L.R. (3d) 257.

We agree.

The appeal should be allowed. The judgment of the Court of Appeal for British Columbia should be set aside in so far as it apportions liability to the respondent Paul Ankenman and through him, to his employer, Jaegli Enterprises Limited. The judgment at trial should be restored. In the circumstances of the case there should be no costs to any party in this Court or in the Court of Appeal.

Appeal allowed.

Solicitors for the appellant Jaegli Enterprises Limited: Guild, Yale & Co., Vancouver.

Solicitors for the appellant Paul Ankenman: Harper, Grey & Co., Vancouver.

Solicitors for the respondents Teresa Taylor, by her guardian ad litem Jim Taylor and the said Jim Taylor, and Deborah Taylor: Lawrence & Shaw, Vancouver.

Solicitors for the defendants at trial Her Majesty The Queen in right of the Province of British Columbia, The Honourable the Minister of the Department of Recreation and Travel Industry, Grace McCarthy, and Herb Green: Ladner, Downs, Vancouver.

Nous souscrivons à ces motifs.

Nous sommes d'avis d'accueillir le pourvoi et d'infirmer l'arrêt de la Cour d'appel de la Colombie-Britannique dans la mesure où il attribue une part de responsabilité à l'intimé Paul Ankenman et par son intermédiaire, à son employeur Jaegli Enterprises Limited. Nous sommes d'avis de rétablir le jugement de première instance. Vu les circonstances en l'espèce, il n'y aura pas d'adjudication de dépens aux parties en cette Cour ni en Cour d'appel.

Pourvoi accueilli.

Procureurs de l'appelante Jaegli Enterprises Limited: Guild, Yale & Co., Vancouver.

Procureurs de l'appelant Paul Ankenman: Harper, Grey & Co., Vancouver.

Procureurs des intimés Teresa Taylor, représentée ad litem par Jim Taylor et ledit Jim Taylor, et Deborah Taylor: Lawrence & Shaw, Vancouver.

Procureurs des défendeurs au procès Sa Majesté La Reine du chef de la province de la Colombie-Britannique, The Honourable the Minister of the Department of Recreation and Travel Industry, Grace McCarthy, et Herb Green: Ladner, Downs, Vancouver.

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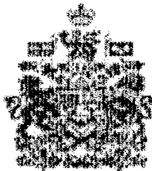
TAB 5



SUPREME COURT OF CANADA

2014 SCC 53 (CanLII)

CITATION: Sattva Capital Corp. *v.* Creston Moly Corp., 2014 SCC 53

DATE: 20140801
DOCKET: 35026

BETWEEN:

Sattva Capital Corporation (formerly Sattva Capital Inc.)
Appellant
and
Creston Moly Corporation (formerly Georgia Ventures Inc.)
Respondent
- and -
Attorney General of British Columbia and BCICAC Foundation
Interveners

CORAM: McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Rothstein, Moldaver, Karakatsanis and Wagner JJ.

REASONS FOR JUDGMENT: (paras. 1 to 125) Rothstein J. (McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Moldaver, Karakatsanis and Wagner JJ. concurring)

NOTE: This document is subject to editorial revision before its reproduction in final form in the *Canada Supreme Court Reports*.

SATTVA CAPITAL CORP. *v.* CRESTON MOLY CORP.

Sattva Capital Corporation (formerly Sattva Capital Inc.) *Appellant*

v.

Creston Moly Corporation (formerly Georgia Ventures Inc.) *Respondent*

and

Attorney General of British Columbia and
BCICAC Foundation *Interveners*

Indexed as: Sattva Capital Corp. *v.* Creston Moly Corp.

2014 SCC 53

File No.: 35026.

2013: December 12; 2014: August 1.

Present: McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Rothstein, Moldaver, Karakatsanis and Wagner JJ.

ON APPEAL FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL FOR BRITISH COLUMBIA

2014 SCC 53 (CanLII)

Arbitration — Appeals — Commercial arbitration awards — Parties entering into agreement providing for payment of finder's fee in shares — Parties disagreeing as to date on which to price shares for payment of finder's fee and entering into arbitration — Leave to appeal arbitral award sought pursuant to s. 31(2) of the Arbitration Act — Leave to appeal denied but granted on appeal to Court of Appeal — Appeal of award dismissed but dismissal reversed by Court of Appeal — Whether Court of Appeal erred in granting leave to appeal — What is appropriate standard of review to be applied to commercial arbitral decisions made under Arbitration Act — Arbitration Act, R.S.B.C. 1996, c. 55, s. 31(2).

Contracts — Interpretation — Parties entering into agreement providing for payment of finder's fee in shares — Parties disagreeing as to date on which to price the shares for payment of finder's fee and entering into arbitration — Whether arbitrator reasonably construed contract as a whole — Whether contractual interpretation is question of law or of mixed fact and law.

S and C entered into an agreement that required C to pay S a finder's fee in relation to the acquisition of a molybdenum mining property by C. The parties agreed that under this agreement, S was entitled to a finder's fee of US$1.5 million and was entitled to be paid this fee in shares of C. However, they disagreed on which date should be used to price the shares and therefore the number of shares to which S was entitled. S argued that the share price was dictated by the date set out in the Market Price definition in the agreement and therefore that it should receive

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approximately 11,460,000 shares priced at $0.15. C claimed that the agreement's "maximum amount" proviso prevented S from receiving shares valued at more than US$1.5 million on the date the fee was payable, and therefore that S should receive approximately 2,454,000 shares priced at $0.70. The parties entered into arbitration pursuant to the B.C. *Arbitration Act* and the arbitrator found in favour of S. C sought leave to appeal the arbitrator's decision pursuant to s. 31(2) of the *Arbitration Act*, but leave was denied on the basis that the question on appeal was not a question of law. The Court of Appeal reversed the decision and granted C's application for leave to appeal, finding that the arbitrator's failure to address the meaning of the agreement's "maximum amount" proviso raised a question of law. The superior court judge on appeal dismissed C's appeal, holding that the arbitrator's interpretation of the agreement was correct. The Court of Appeal allowed C's appeal, finding that the arbitrator reached an absurd result. S appeals the decisions of the Court of Appeal that granted leave and that allowed the appeal.

Held: The appeal should be allowed and the arbitrator's award reinstated.

Appeals from commercial arbitration decisions are narrowly circumscribed under the *Arbitration Act*. Under s. 31(1), they are limited to questions of law, and leave to appeal is required if the parties do not consent to the appeal. Section 31(2)(*a*) sets out the requirements for leave at issue in the present case: the court may grant leave if it determines that the result is important to the parties and the determination of the point of law may prevent a miscarriage of justice.

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In the case at bar, the Court of Appeal erred in finding that the construction of the finder's fee agreement constituted a question of law. Such an exercise raises a question of mixed fact and law, and therefore, the Court of Appeal erred in granting leave to appeal.

The historical approach according to which determining the legal rights and obligations of the parties under a written contract was considered a question of law should be abandoned. Contractual interpretation involves issues of mixed fact and law as it is an exercise in which the principles of contractual interpretation are applied to the words of the written contract, considered in light of the factual matrix of the contract.

It may be possible to identify an extricable question of law from within what was initially characterized as a question of mixed fact and law, however, the close relationship between the selection and application of principles of contractual interpretation and the construction ultimately given to the instrument means that the circumstances in which a question of law can be extricated from the interpretation process will be rare. The goal of contractual interpretation, to ascertain the objective intentions of the parties, is inherently fact specific. Accordingly, courts should be cautious in identifying extricable questions of law in disputes over contractual interpretation. Legal errors made in the course of contractual interpretation include the application of an incorrect principle, the failure to consider a required element of a legal test, or the failure to consider a relevant factor. Concluding that C's

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application for leave to appeal raised no question of law is sufficient to dispose of this appeal, however the Court found it salutary to continue with its analysis.

In order to rise to the level of a miscarriage of justice for the purposes of s. 31(2)(*a*), an alleged legal error must pertain to a material issue in the dispute which, if decided differently, would affect the result of the case. According to this standard, a determination of a point of law "may prevent a miscarriage of justice" only where the appeal itself has some possibility of succeeding. An appeal with no chance of success will not meet the threshold of "may prevent a miscarriage of justice" because there would be no chance that the outcome of the appeal would cause a change in the final result of the case.

At the leave stage, it is not appropriate to consider the full merits of a case and make a final determination regarding whether an error of law was made. However, some preliminary consideration of the question of law by the leave court is necessary to determine whether the appeal has the potential to succeed and thus to change the result in the case. The appropriate threshold for assessing the legal question at issue under s. 31(2) is whether it has arguable merit, meaning that the issue raised by the applicant cannot be dismissed through a preliminary examination of the question of law.

Assessing whether the issue raised by an application for leave to appeal has arguable merit must be done in light of the standard of review on which the merits of the appeal will be judged. This requires a preliminary assessment of the standard

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of review. The leave court's assessment of the standard of review is only preliminary and does not bind the court which considers the merits of the appeal.

The words "may grant leave" in s. 31(2) of the *Arbitration Act* confer on the court residual discretion to deny leave even where the requirements of s. 31(2) are met. Discretionary factors to consider in a leave application under s. 31(2)(*a*) include: conduct of the parties, existence of alternative remedies, undue delay and the urgent need for a final answer. These considerations could be a sound basis for declining leave to appeal an arbitral award even where the statutory criteria have been met. However, courts should exercise such discretion with caution.

Appellate review of commercial arbitration awards is different from judicial review of a decision of a statutory tribunal, thus the standard of review framework developed for judicial review in *Dunsmuir v. New Brunswick*, 2008 SCC 9, [2008] 1 S.C.R. 190, and the cases that followed it is not entirely applicable to the commercial arbitration context. Nevertheless, judicial review of administrative tribunal decisions and appeals of arbitration awards are analogous in some respects. As a result, aspects of the *Dunsmuir* framework are helpful in determining the appropriate standard of review to apply in the case of commercial arbitration awards.

In the context of commercial arbitration, where appeals are restricted to questions of law, the standard of review will be reasonableness unless the question is one that would attract the correctness standard, such as constitutional questions or questions of law of central importance to the legal system as a whole and outside the

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adjudicator's expertise. The question at issue here does not fall into one of those categories and thus the standard of review in this case is reasonableness.

In the present case, the arbitrator reasonably construed the contract as a whole in determining that S is entitled to be paid its finder's fee in shares priced at \$0.15. The arbitrator's decision that the shares should be priced according to the Market Price definition gives effect to both that definition and the "maximum amount" proviso and reconciles them in a manner that cannot be said to be unreasonable. The arbitrator's reasoning meets the reasonableness threshold of justifiability, transparency and intelligibility.

A court considering whether leave should be granted is not adjudicating the merits of the case. It decides only whether the matter warrants granting leave, not whether the appeal will be successful, even where the determination of whether to grant leave involves a preliminary consideration of the question of law at issue. For this reason, comments by a leave court regarding the merits cannot bind or limit the powers of the court hearing the actual appeal.

Cases Cited

Referred to: *British Columbia Institute of Technology (Student Assn.) v. British Columbia Institute of Technology*, 2000 BCCA 496, 192 D.L.R. (4th) 122; *King v. Operating Engineers Training Institute of Manitoba Inc.*, 2011 MBCA 80, 270 Man. R. (2d) 63; *Thorner v. Major*, [2009] UKHL 18, [2009] 3 All E.R. 945;

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Prenn v. Simmonds, [1971] 3 All E.R. 237; *Reardon Smith Line Ltd. v. Hansen-Tangen*, [1976] 3 All E.R. 570; *Jiro Enterprises Ltd. v. Spencer*, 2008 ABCA 87 (CanLII); *QK Investments Inc. v. Crocus Investment Fund*, 2008 MBCA 21, 290 D.L.R. (4th) 84; *Dow Chemical Canada Inc. v. Shell Chemicals Canada Ltd.*, 2010 ABCA 126, 25 Alta. L.R. (5th) 221; *Minister of National Revenue v. Costco Wholesale Canada Ltd.*, 2012 FCA 160, 431 N.R. 78; *WCI Waste Conversion Inc. v. ADI International Inc.*, 2011 PECA 14, 309 Nfld. & P.E.I.R. 1; *269893 Alberta Ltd. v. Otter Bay Developments Ltd.*, 2009 BCCA 37, 266 B.C.A.C. 98; *Hayes Forest Services Ltd. v. Weyerhaeuser Co.*, 2008 BCCA 31, 289 D.L.R. (4th) 230; *Bell Canada v. The Plan Group*, 2009 ONCA 548, 96 O.R. (3d) 81; *Canada (Director of Investigation and Research) v. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 748; *Housen v. Nikolaisen*, 2002 SCC 33, [2002] 2 S.C.R. 235; *Jesuit Fathers of Upper Canada v. Guardian Insurance Co. of Canada*, 2006 SCC 21, [2006] 1 S.C.R. 744; *Tercon Contractors Ltd. v. British Columbia (Transportation and Highways)*, 2010 SCC 4, [2010] 1 S.C.R. 69; *Moore Realty Inc. v. Manitoba Motor League*, 2003 MBCA 71, 173 Man. R. (2d) 300; *Investors Compensation Scheme Ltd. v. West Bromwich Building Society*, [1998] 1 All E.R. 98; *Glaswegian Enterprises Inc. v. B.C. Tel Mobility Cellular Inc.* (1997), 101 B.C.A.C. 62; *Eli Lilly & Co. v. Novopharm Ltd.*, [1998] 2 S.C.R. 129; *United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, Local 579 v. Bradco Construction Ltd.*, [1993] 2 S.C.R. 316; *Gutierrez v. Tropic International Ltd.* (2002), 63 O.R. (3d) 63; *Domtar Inc. v. Belkin Inc.* (1989), 39 B.C.L.R. (2d) 257; *Quan v. Cusson*, 2009 SCC 62, [2009] 3 S.C.R. 712; *Quick Auto Lease Inc. v. Nordin*, 2014 MBCA 32, 303 Man. R. (2d) 262; *R. v. Fedossenko*, 2013

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Michael A. Feder and *Tammy Shoranick*, for the appellant.

Darrell W. Roberts, Q.C., and *David Mitchell*, for the respondent.

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Jonathan Eades and *Micah Weintraub*, for the intervener the Attorney General of British Columbia.

David Wotherspoon and *Gavin R. Cameron*, for the intervener the BCICAC Foundation.

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The judgment of the Court was delivered by

ROTHSTEIN J. —

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APPENDIX I

Relevant Provisions of the Sattva-Creston Finder's Fee Agreement

APPENDIX II

Section 3.3 of TSX Venture Exchange Policy 5.1: Loans, Bonuses, Finder's Fees and Commissions

APPENDIX III

Commercial Arbitration Act, R.S.B.C. 1996, c. 55 (as it read on January 12, 2007) (now the *Arbitration Act*)

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[1] When is contractual interpretation to be treated as a question of mixed fact and law and when should it be treated as a question of law? How is the balance between reviewability and finality of commercial arbitration awards under the

Commercial Arbitration Act, R.S.B.C. 1996, c. 55 (now the *Arbitration Act*, hereinafter the "*AA*"), to be determined? Can findings made by a court granting leave to appeal with respect to the merits of an appeal bind the court that ultimately decides the appeal? These are three of the issues that arise in this appeal.

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I. Facts

[2] The issues in this case arise out of the obligation of Creston Moly Corporation (formerly Georgia Ventures Inc.) to pay a finder's fee to Sattva Capital Corporation (formerly Sattva Capital Inc.). The parties agree that Sattva is entitled to a finder's fee of US$1.5 million and is entitled to be paid this fee in shares of Creston, cash or a combination thereof. They disagree on which date should be used to price the Creston shares and therefore the number of shares to which Sattva is entitled.

[3] Mr. Hai Van Le, a principal of Sattva, introduced Creston to the opportunity to acquire a molybdenum mining property in Mexico. On January 12, 2007, the parties entered into an agreement (the "Agreement") that required Creston to pay Sattva a finder's fee in relation to the acquisition of this property. The relevant provisions of the Agreement are set out in Appendix I.

[4] On January 30, 2007, Creston entered into an agreement to purchase the property for US$30 million. On January 31, 2007, at the request of Creston, trading of Creston's shares on the TSX Venture Exchange ("TSXV") was halted to prevent speculation while Creston completed due diligence in relation to the purchase. On

March 26, 2007, Creston announced it intended to complete the purchase and trading resumed the following day.

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[5] The Agreement provides that Sattva was to be paid a finder's fee equal to the maximum amount that could be paid pursuant to s. 3.3 of Policy 5.1 in the TSXV Policy Manual. Section 3.3 of Policy 5.1 is incorporated by reference into the Agreement at s. 3.1 and is set out in Appendix II of these reasons. The maximum amount pursuant to s. 3.3 of Policy 5.1 in this case is US$1.5 million.

[6] According to the Agreement, by default, the fee would be paid in Creston shares. The fee would only be paid in cash or a combination of shares and cash if Sattva made such an election. Sattva made no such election and was therefore entitled to be paid the fee in shares. The finder's fee was to be paid no later than five working days after the closing of the transaction purchasing the molybdenum mining property.

[7] The dispute between the parties concerns which date should be used to determine the price of Creston shares and thus the number of shares to which Sattva is entitled. Sattva argues that the share price is dictated by the Market Price definition at s. 2 of the Agreement, i.e. the price of the shares "as calculated on close of business day before the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition". The press release announcing the acquisition was released on March 26, 2007. Prior to the halt in trading on January 31, 2007, the last closing price of Creston shares was $0.15. On this interpretation, Sattva would receive approximately 11,460,000 shares (based on the finder's fee of US$1.5 million).

[8] Creston claims that the Agreement's "maximum amount" proviso means that Sattva cannot receive cash or shares valued at more than US$1.5 million on the date the fee is payable. The shares were payable no later than five days after May 17, 2007, the closing date of the transaction. At that time, the shares were priced at $0.70 per share. This valuation is based on the price an investment banking firm valued Creston at as part of underwriting a private placement of shares on April 17, 2007. On this interpretation, Sattva would receive approximately 2,454,000 shares, some 9 million fewer shares than if the shares were priced at $0.15 per share.

[9] The parties entered into arbitration pursuant to the *AA*. The arbitrator found in favour of Sattva. Creston sought leave to appeal the arbitrator's decision pursuant to s. 31(2) of the *AA*. Leave was denied by the British Columbia Supreme Court (2009 BCSC 1079 (CanLII) ("SC Leave Court")). Creston successfully appealed this decision and was granted leave to appeal the arbitrator's decision by the British Columbia Court of Appeal (2010 BCCA 239, 7 B.C.L.R. (5th) 227 ("CA Leave Court")).

[10] The British Columbia Supreme Court judge who heard the merits of the appeal (2011 BCSC 597, 84 B.L.R. (4th) 102 ("SC Appeal Court")) upheld the arbitrator's award. Creston appealed that decision to the British Columbia Court of Appeal (2012 BCCA 329, 36 B.C.L.R. (5th) 71 ("CA Appeal Court")). That court overturned the SC Appeal Court and found in favour of Creston. Sattva appeals the decisions of the CA Leave Court and CA Appeal Court to this Court.

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II. Arbitral Award

[11] The arbitrator, Leon Getz, Q.C., found in favour of Sattva, holding that it was entitled to receive its US$1.5 million finder's fee in shares priced at $0.15 per share.

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[12] The arbitrator based his decision on the Market Price definition in the Agreement:

> What, then, was the "Market Price" within the meaning of the Agreement? The relevant press release is that issued on March 26 . . . . Although there was no closing price on March 25 (the shares being on that date halted), the "last closing price" within the meaning of the definition was the $0.15 at which the [Creston] shares closed on January 30, the day before trading was halted "pending news" . . . . This conclusion requires no stretching of the words of the contractual definition; on the contrary, it falls literally within those words. [para. 22]

[13] Both the Agreement and the finder's fee had to be approved by the TSXV. Creston was responsible for securing this approval. The arbitrator found that it was either an implied or an express term of the Agreement that Creston would use its best efforts to secure the TSXV's approval and that Creston did not apply its best efforts to this end.

[14] As previously noted, by default, the finder's fee would be paid in shares unless Sattva made an election otherwise.The arbitrator found that Sattva never made such an election. Despite this, Creston represented to the TSXV that the finder's fee

was to be paid in cash. The TSXV conditionally approved a finder's fee of US$1.5 million to be paid in cash. Sattva first learned that the fee had been approved as a cash payment in early June 2007. When Sattva raised this matter with Creston, Creston responded by saying that Sattva had the choice of taking the finder's fee in cash or in shares priced at $0.70.

[15] Sattva maintained that it was entitled to have the finder's fee paid in shares priced at $0.15. Creston asked its lawyer to contact the TSXV to clarify the minimum share price it would approve for payment of the finder's fee. The TSXV confirmed on June 7, 2007 over the phone and August 9, 2007 via email that the minimum share price that could be used to pay the finder's fee was $0.70 per share. The arbitrator found that Creston "consistently misrepresented or at the very least failed to disclose fully the nature of the obligation it had undertaken to Sattva" (para. 56(k)) and "that in the absence of an election otherwise, Sattva is entitled under that Agreement to have that fee paid in shares at $0.15" (para. 56(g)). The arbitrator found that the first time Sattva's position was squarely put before the TSXV was in a letter from Sattva's solicitor on October 9, 2007.

[16] The arbitrator found that had Creston used its best efforts, the TSXV could have approved the payment of the finder's fee in shares priced at $0.15 and such a decision would have been consistent with its policies. He determined that there was "a substantial probability that [TSXV] approval would have been given" (para. 81). He assessed that probability at 85 percent.

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[17] The arbitrator found that Sattva could have sold its Creston shares after a four-month holding period at between $0.40 and $0.44 per share, netting proceeds of between $4,583,914 and $5,156,934. The arbitrator took the average of those two amounts, which came to $4,870,424, and then assessed damages at 85 percent of that number, which came to $4,139,860, and rounded it to $4,140,000 plus costs.

[18] After this award was made, Creston made a cash payment of US$1.5 million (or the equivalent in Canadian dollars) to Sattva. The balance of the damages awarded by the arbitrator was placed in the trust account of Sattva's solicitors.

III. Judicial History

A. *British Columbia Supreme Court — Leave to Appeal Decision, 2009 BCSC 1079*

[19] The SC Leave Court denied leave to appeal because it found the question on appeal was not a question of law as required under s. 31 of the *AA*. In the judge's view, the issue was one of mixed fact and law because the arbitrator relied on the "factual matrix" in coming to his conclusion. Specifically, determining how the finder's fee was to be paid involved examining "the TSX's policies concerning the maximum amount of the finder's fee payable, as well as the discretionary powers granted to the Exchange in determining that amount" (para. 35).

[20] The judge found that even had he found a question of law was at issue he would have exercised his discretion against granting leave because of Creston's

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conduct in misrepresenting the status of the finder's fee to the TSXV and Sattva, and "on the principle that one of the objectives of the [*AA*] is to foster and preserve the integrity of the arbitration system" (para. 41).

B. *British Columbia Court of Appeal — Leave to Appeal Decision, 2010 BCCA 239*

[21] The CA Leave Court reversed the SC Leave Court and granted Creston's application for leave to appeal the arbitral award. It found the SC Leave Court "err[ed] in failing to find that the arbitrator's failure to address the meaning of s. 3.1 of the Agreement (and in particular the 'maximum amount' provision) raised a question of law" (para. 23). The CA Leave Court decided that the construction of s. 3.1 of the Agreement, and in particular the "maximum amount" proviso, was a question of law because it did not involve reference to the facts of what the TSXV was told or what it decided.

[22] The CA Leave Court acknowledged that Creston was "less than forthcoming in its dealings with Mr. Le and the [TSXV]" but said that "these facts are not directly relevant to the question of law it advances on the appeal" (para. 27). With respect to the SC leave judge's reference to the preservation of the integrity of the arbitration system, the CA Leave Court said that the parties would have known when they chose to enter arbitration under the *AA* that an appeal on a question of law was possible. Additionally, while the finality of arbitration is an important factor in exercising discretion, when "a question of law arises on a matter of importance and a miscarriage of justice might be perpetrated if an appeal were not available, the

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integrity of the process requires, at least in the circumstances of this case, that the right of appeal granted by the legislation also be respected" (para. 29).

C. *British Columbia Supreme Court — Appeal Decision, 2011 BCSC 597*

[23] Armstrong J. reviewed the arbitrator's decision on a correctness standard. He dismissed the appeal, holding the arbitrator's interpretation of the Agreement was correct.

[24] Armstrong J. found that the plain and ordinary meaning of the Agreement required that the US$1.5 million fee be paid in shares priced at $0.15. He did not find the meaning to be absurd simply because the price of the shares at the date the fee became payable had increased in relation to the price determined according to the Market Price definition. He was of the view that changes in the price of shares over time are inevitable, and that the parties, as sophisticated business persons, would have reasonably understood a fluctuation in share price to be a reality when providing for a fee payable in shares. According to Armstrong J., it is indeed because of market fluctuations that it is necessary to choose a specific date to price the shares in advance of payment. He found that this was done by defining "Market Price" in the Agreement, and that the fee remained US$1.5 million in $0.15 shares as determined by the Market Price definition regardless of the price of the shares at the date that the fee was payable.

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[25] According to Armstrong J., that the price of the shares may be more than the Market Price definition price when they became payable was foreseeable as a "natural consequence of the fee agreement" (para. 62). He was of the view that the risk was borne by Sattva, since the price of the shares could increase, but it could also decrease such that Sattva would have received shares valued at less than the agreed upon fee of US$1.5 million.

[26] Armstrong J. held that the arbitrator's interpretation which gave effect to both the Market Price definition and the "maximum amount" proviso should be preferred to Creston's interpretation of the agreement which ignored the Market Price definition.

[27] In response to Creston's argument that the arbitrator did not consider s. 3.1 of the Agreement which contains the "maximum amount" proviso, Armstrong J. noted that the arbitrator explicitly addressed the "maximum amount" proviso at para. 23 of his decision.

D. *British Columbia Court of Appeal — Appeal Decision, 2012 BCCA 329*

[28] The CA Appeal Court allowed Creston's appeal, ordering that the payment of US$1.5 million that had been made by Creston to Sattva on account of the arbitrator's award constituted payment in full of the finder's fee. The court reviewed the arbitrator's decision on a standard of correctness.

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[29] The CA Appeal Court found that both it and the SC Appeal Court were bound by the findings made by the CA Leave Court. There were two findings that were binding: (1) it would be anomalous if the Agreement allowed Sattva to receive US$1.5 million if it received its fee in cash, but shares valued at approximately $8 million if Sattva took its fee in shares; and (2) the arbitrator ignored this anomaly and did not address s. 3.1 of the Agreement.

[30] The Court of Appeal found that it was an absurd result to find that Sattva is entitled to an $8 million finder's fee in light of the fact that the "maximum amount" proviso in the Agreement limits the finder's fee to US$1.5 million. The court was of the view that the proviso limiting the fee to US$1.5 million "when paid" should be given paramount effect (para. 47). In its opinion, giving effect to the Market Price definition could not have been the intention of the parties, nor could it have been in accordance with good business sense.

IV. Issues

[31] The following issues arise in this appeal:

(a) Is the issue of whether the CA Leave Court erred in granting leave under s. 31(2) of the *AA* properly before this Court?

(b) Did the CA Leave Court err in granting leave under s. 31(2) of the *AA*?

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(c) If leave was properly granted, what is the appropriate standard of review to be applied to commercial arbitral decisions made under the *AA*?

(d) Did the arbitrator reasonably construe the Agreement as a whole?

(e) Did the CA Appeal Court err in holding that it was bound by comments regarding the merits of the appeal made by the CA Leave Court?

V. Analysis

A. *The Leave Issue Is Properly Before This Court*

[32] Sattva argues, in part, that the CA Leave Court erred in granting leave to appeal from the arbitrator's decision. In Sattva's view, the CA Leave Court did not identify a question of law, a requirement to obtain leave pursuant to s. 31(2) of the *AA*. Creston argues that this issue is not properly before this Court. Creston makes two arguments in support of this point.

[33] First, Creston argues that this issue was not advanced in Sattva's application for leave to appeal to this Court. This argument must fail. Unless this

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Court places restrictions in the order granting leave, the order granting leave is "at large". Accordingly, appellants may raise issues on appeal that were not set out in the leave application. However, the Court may exercise its discretion to refuse to deal with issues that were not addressed in the courts below, if there is prejudice to the respondent, or if for any other reason the Court considers it appropriate not to deal with a question.

[34] Here, this Court's order granting leave to appeal from both the CA Leave Court decision and the CA Appeal Court decision contained no restrictions (2013 CanLII 11315). The issue — whether the proposed appeal was on a question of law — was expressly argued before, and was dealt with in the judgments of, the SC Leave Court and the CA Leave Court. There is no reason Sattva should be precluded from raising this issue on appeal despite the fact it was not mentioned in its application for leave to appeal to this Court.

[35] Second, Creston argues that the issue of whether the CA Leave Court identified a question of law is not properly before this Court because Sattva did not contest this decision before all of the lower courts. Specifically, Creston states that Sattva did not argue that the question on appeal was one of mixed fact and law before the SC Appeal Court and that it conceded the issue on appeal was a question of law before the CA Appeal Court. This argument must also fail. At the SC Appeal Court, it was not open to Sattva to reargue the question of whether leave should have been granted. The SC Appeal Court was bound by the CA Leave Court's finding that leave

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should have been granted, including the determination that a question of law had been identified. Accordingly, Sattva could hardly be expected to reargue before the SC Appeal Court a question that had been determined by the CA Leave Court. There is nothing in the *AA* to indicate that Sattva could have appealed the leave decision made by a panel of the Court of Appeal to another panel of the same court. The fact that Sattva did not reargue the issue before the SC Appeal Court or CA Appeal Court does not prevent it from raising the issue before this Court, particularly since Sattva was also granted leave to appeal the CA Leave Court decision by this Court.

[36] While this Court may decline to grant leave where an issue sought to be argued before it was not argued in the courts appealed from, that is not this case. Here, whether leave from the arbitrator's decision had been sought by Creston on a question of law or a question of mixed fact and law had been argued in the lower leave courts.

[37] Accordingly, the issue of whether the CA Leave Court erred in finding a question of law for the purposes of granting leave to appeal is properly before this Court.

B. *The CA Leave Court Erred in Granting Leave Under Section 31(2) of the AA*

(1) Considerations Relevant to Granting or Denying Leave to Appeal Under the *AA*

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[38] Appeals from commercial arbitration decisions are narrowly circumscribed under the *AA*. Under s. 31(1), appeals are limited to either questions of law where the parties consent to the appeal or to questions of law where the parties do not consent but where leave to appeal is granted. Section 31(2) of the *AA*, reproduced in its entirety in Appendix III, sets out the requirements for leave:

> (2) In an application for leave under subsection (1) (b), the court may grant leave if it determines that
>
> (a) the importance of the result of the arbitration to the parties justifies the intervention of the court and the determination of the point of law may prevent a miscarriage of justice,
>
> (b) the point of law is of importance to some class or body of persons of which the applicant is a member, or
>
> (c) the point of law is of general or public importance.

[39] The B.C. courts have found that the words "may grant leave" in s. 31(2) of the *AA* give the courts judicial discretion to deny leave even where the statutory requirements have been met (*British Columbia Institute of Technology (Student Assn.) v. British Columbia Institute of Technology*, 2000 BCCA 496, 192 D.L.R. (4th) 122 ("*BCIT*"), at paras. 25-26). Appellate review of an arbitrator's award will only occur where the requirements of s. 31(2) are met and where the leave court does not exercise its residual discretion to nonetheless deny leave.

[40] Although Creston's application to the SC Leave Court sought leave pursuant to s. 31(2)(a), (b) and (c), it appears the arguments before that court and throughout focused on s. 31(2)(a). The SC Leave Court's decision quotes a lengthy

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passage from *BCIT* that focuses on the requirements of s. 31(2)(a). The SC Leave Court judge noted that both parties conceded the first requirement of s. 31(2)(a): that the issue be of importance to the parties. The CA Leave Court decision expressed concern that denying leave might give rise to a miscarriage of justice — a criterion only found in s. 31(2)(a). Finally, neither the lower courts' leave decisions nor the arguments before this Court reflected arguments about the question of law being important to some class or body of persons of which the applicant is a member (s. 31(2)(b)) or being a point of law of general or public importance (s. 31(2)(c)). Accordingly, the following analysis will focus on s. 31(2)(a).

(2) The Result Is Important to the Parties

[41] In order for leave to be granted from a commercial arbitral award, a threshold requirement must be met: leave must be sought on a question of law. However, before dealing with that issue, it will be convenient to quickly address another requirement of s. 31(2)(a) on which the parties agree: whether the importance of the result of the arbitration to the parties justifies the intervention of the court. Justice Saunders explained this criterion in *BCIT* as requiring that the result of the arbitration be "sufficiently important", in terms of principle or money, to the parties to justify the expense and time of court proceedings (para. 27). The parties in this case have agreed that the result of the arbitration is of importance to each of them. In view of the relatively large monetary amount in dispute and in light of the fact that the parties have agreed that the result is important to them, I accept that the

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importance of the result of the arbitration to the parties justifies the intervention of the court. This requirement of s. 31(2)(a) is satisfied.

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(3) <u>The Question Under Appeal Is Not a Question of Law</u>

(a) *When Is Contractual Interpretation a Question of Law?*

[42] Under s. 31 of the *AA*, the issue upon which leave is sought must be a question of law. For the purpose of identifying the appropriate standard of review or, as is the case here, determining whether the requirements for leave to appeal are met, reviewing courts are regularly required to determine whether an issue decided at first instance is a question of law, fact, or mixed fact and law.

[43] Historically, determining the legal rights and obligations of the parties under a written contract was considered a question of law (*King v. Operating Engineers Training Institute of Manitoba Inc.*, 2011 MBCA 80, 270 Man. R. (2d) 63, at para. 20, *per* Steel J.A.; K. Lewison, *The Interpretation of Contracts* (5th ed. 2011 & Supp. 2013), at pp. 173-76; and G. R. Hall, *Canadian Contractual Interpretation Law* (2nd ed. 2012), at pp. 125-26). This rule originated in England at a time when there were frequent civil jury trials and widespread illiteracy. Under those circumstances, the interpretation of written documents had to be considered questions of law because only the judge could be assured to be literate and therefore capable of reading the contract (Hall, at p. 126; and Lewison, at pp. 173-74).

[44] This historical rationale no longer applies. Nevertheless, courts in the United Kingdom continue to treat the interpretation of a written contract as always being a question of law (*Thorner v. Major*, [2009] UKHL 18, [2009] 3 All E.R. 945, at paras. 58 and 82-83; and Lewison, at pp. 173-77). They do this despite the fact that U.K. courts consider the surrounding circumstances, a concept addressed further below, when interpreting a written contract (*Prenn v. Simmonds*, [1971] 3 All E.R. 237 (H.L.); and *Reardon Smith Line Ltd. v. Hansen-Tangen*, [1976] 3 All E.R. 570 (H.L.)).

[45] In Canada, there remains some support for the historical approach. See for example *Jiro Enterprises Ltd. v. Spencer*, 2008 ABCA 87 (CanLII), at para. 10; *QK Investments Inc. v. Crocus Investment Fund*, 2008 MBCA 21, 290 D.L.R. (4th) 84, at para. 26; *Dow Chemical Canada Inc. v. Shell Chemicals Canada Ltd.*, 2010 ABCA 126, 25 Alta. L.R. (5th) 221, at paras. 11-12; and *Minister of National Revenue v. Costco Wholesale Canada Ltd.*, 2012 FCA 160, 431 N.R. 78, at para. 34. However, some Canadian courts have abandoned the historical approach and now treat the interpretation of written contracts as an exercise involving either a question of law or a question of mixed fact and law. See for example *WCI Waste Conversion Inc. v. ADI International Inc.*, 2011 PECA 14, 309 Nfld. & P.E.I.R. 1, at para. 11; *269893 Alberta Ltd. v. Otter Bay Developments Ltd.*, 2009 BCCA 37, 266 B.C.A.C. 98, at para. 13; *Hayes Forest Services Ltd. v. Weyerhaeuser Co.*, 2008 BCCA 31, 289 D.L.R. (4th) 230, at para. 44; *Bell Canada v. The Plan Group*, 2009 ONCA 548, 96

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O.R. (3d) 81, at paras. 22-23 (majority reasons, *per* Blair J.A.) and paras. 133-35 (*per* Gillese J.A. in dissent, but not on this point); and *King*, at paras. 20-23.

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[46] The shift away from the historical approach in Canada appears to be based on two developments. The first is the adoption of an approach to contractual interpretation which directs courts to have regard for the surrounding circumstances of the contract — often referred to as the factual matrix — when interpreting a written contract (Hall, at pp. 13, 21-25 and 127; and J. D. McCamus, *The Law of Contracts* (2nd ed. 2012), at pp. 749-51). The second is the explanation of the difference between questions of law and questions of mixed fact and law provided in *Canada (Director of Investigation and Research) v. Southam Inc.*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 748, at para. 35, and *Housen v. Nikolaisen*, 2002 SCC 33, [2002] 2 S.C.R. 235, at paras. 26 and 31-36.

[47] Regarding the first development, the interpretation of contracts has evolved towards a practical, common-sense approach not dominated by technical rules of construction. The overriding concern is to determine "the intent of the parties and the scope of their understanding" (*Jesuit Fathers of Upper Canada v. Guardian Insurance Co. of Canada*, 2006 SCC 21, [2006] 1 S.C.R. 744, at para. 27 *per* LeBel J.; see also *Tercon Contractors Ltd. v. British Columbia (Transportation and Highways)*, 2010 SCC 4, [2010] 1 S.C.R. 69, at paras. 64-65 *per* Cromwell J.). To do so, a decision-maker must read the contract as a whole, giving the words used their ordinary and grammatical meaning, consistent with the surrounding circumstances

known to the parties at the time of formation of the contract. Consideration of the surrounding circumstances recognizes that ascertaining contractual intention can be difficult when looking at words on their own, because words alone do not have an immutable or absolute meaning:

> No contracts are made in a vacuum: there is always a setting in which they have to be placed. . . . In a commercial contract it is certainly right that the court should know the commercial purpose of the contract and this in turn presupposes knowledge of the genesis of the transaction, the background, the context, the market in which the parties are operating.
>
> (*Reardon Smith Line*, at p. 574, *per* Lord Wilberforce)

[48] The meaning of words is often derived from a number of contextual factors, including the purpose of the agreement and the nature of the relationship created by the agreement (see *Moore Realty Inc. v. Manitoba Motor League*, 2003 MBCA 71, 173 Man. R. (2d) 300, at para. 15, *per* Hamilton J.A.; see also Hall, at p. 22; and McCamus, at pp. 749-50). As stated by Lord Hoffmann in *Investors Compensation Scheme Ltd. v. West Bromwich Building Society*, [1998] 1 All E.R. 98 (H.L.):

> The meaning which a document (or any other utterance) would convey to a reasonable man is not the same thing as the meaning of its words. The meaning of words is a matter of dictionaries and grammars; the meaning of the document is what the parties using those words against the relevant background would reasonably have been understood to mean. [p. 115]

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[49] As to the second development, the historical approach to contractual interpretation does not fit well with the definition of a pure question of law identified in *Housen* and *Southam*. Questions of law "are questions about what the correct legal test is" (*Southam*, at para. 35). Yet in contractual interpretation, the goal of the exercise is to ascertain the objective intent of the parties — a fact-specific goal — through the application of legal principles of interpretation. This appears closer to a question of mixed fact and law, defined in *Housen* as "applying a legal standard to a set of facts" (para. 26; see also *Southam*, at para. 35). However, some courts have questioned whether this definition, which was developed in the context of a negligence action, can be readily applied to questions of contractual interpretation, and suggest that contractual interpretation is primarily a legal affair (see for example *Bell Canada*, at para. 25).

[50] With respect for the contrary view, I am of the opinion that the historical approach should be abandoned. Contractual interpretation involves issues of mixed fact and law as it is an exercise in which the principles of contractual interpretation are applied to the words of the written contract, considered in light of the factual matrix.

[51] The purpose of the distinction between questions of law and those of mixed fact and law further supports this conclusion. One central purpose of drawing a distinction between questions of law and those of mixed fact and law is to limit the intervention of appellate courts to cases where the results can be expected to have an

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impact beyond the parties to the particular dispute. It reflects the role of courts of appeal in ensuring the consistency of the law, rather than in providing a new forum for parties to continue their private litigation. For this reason, *Southam* identified the degree of generality (or "precedential value") as the key difference between a question of law and a question of mixed fact and law. The more narrow the rule, the less useful will be the intervention of the court of appeal:

> If a court were to decide that driving at a certain speed on a certain road under certain conditions was negligent, its decision would not have any great value as a precedent. In short, as the level of generality of the challenged proposition approaches utter particularity, the matter approaches pure application, and hence draws nigh to being an unqualified question of mixed law and fact. See R. P. Kerans, *Standards of Review Employed by Appellate Courts* (1994), at pp. 103-108. Of course, it is not easy to say precisely where the line should be drawn; though in most cases it should be sufficiently clear whether the dispute is over a general proposition that might qualify as a principle of law or over a very particular set of circumstances that is not apt to be of much interest to judges and lawyers in the future. [para. 37]

[52] Similarly, this Court in *Housen* found that deference to fact-finders promoted the goals of limiting the number, length, and cost of appeals, and of promoting the autonomy and integrity of trial proceedings (paras. 16-17). These principles also weigh in favour of deference to first instance decision-makers on points of contractual interpretation. The legal obligations arising from a contract are, in most cases, limited to the interest of the particular parties. Given that our legal system leaves broad scope to tribunals of first instance to resolve issues of limited application, this supports treating contractual interpretation as a question of mixed fact and law.

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[53] Nonetheless, it may be possible to identify an extricable question of law from within what was initially characterized as a question of mixed fact and law (*Housen*, at paras. 31 and 34-35). Legal errors made in the course of contractual interpretation include "the application of an incorrect principle, the failure to consider a required element of a legal test, or the failure to consider a relevant factor" (*King*, at para. 21). Moreover, there is no question that many other issues in contract law do engage substantive rules of law: the requirements for the formation of the contract, the capacity of the parties, the requirement that certain contracts be evidenced in writing, and so on.

[54] However, courts should be cautious in identifying extricable questions of law in disputes over contractual interpretation. Given the statutory requirement to identify a question of law in a leave application pursuant to s. 31(2) of the *AA*, the applicant for leave and its counsel will seek to frame any alleged errors as questions of law. The legislature has sought to restrict such appeals, however, and courts must be careful to ensure that the proposed ground of appeal has been properly characterized. The warning expressed in *Housen* to exercise caution in attempting to extricate a question of law is relevant here:

> Appellate courts must be cautious, however, in finding that a trial judge erred in law in his or her determination of negligence, as it is often difficult to extricate the legal questions from the factual. It is for this reason that these matters are referred to as questions of "mixed law and fact". Where the legal principle is not readily extricable, then the matter is one of "mixed law and fact" . . . . [para. 36]

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[55] Although that caution was expressed in the context of a negligence case, it applies, in my opinion, to contractual interpretation as well. As mentioned above, the goal of contractual interpretation, to ascertain the objective intentions of the parties, is inherently fact specific. The close relationship between the selection and application of principles of contractual interpretation and the construction ultimately given to the instrument means that the circumstances in which a question of law can be extricated from the interpretation process will be rare. In the absence of a legal error of the type described above, no appeal lies under the *AA* from an arbitrator's interpretation of a contract.

(b) *The Role and Nature of the "Surrounding Circumstances"*

[56] I now turn to the role of the surrounding circumstances in contractual interpretation and the nature of the evidence that can be considered. The discussion here is limited to the common law approach to contractual interpretation; it does not seek to apply to or alter the law of contractual interpretation governed by the *Civil Code of Québec*.

[57] While the surrounding circumstances will be considered in interpreting the terms of a contract, they must never be allowed to overwhelm the words of that agreement (*Hayes Forest Services*, at para. 14; and Hall, at p. 30). The goal of examining such evidence is to deepen a decision-maker's understanding of the mutual and objective intentions of the parties as expressed in the words of the contract. The interpretation of a written contractual provision must always be grounded in the text

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and read in light of the entire contract (Hall, at pp. 15 and 30-32). While the surrounding circumstances are relied upon in the interpretive process, courts cannot use them to deviate from the text such that the court effectively creates a new agreement (*Glaswegian Enterprises Inc. v. B.C. Tel Mobility Cellular Inc.* (1997), 101 B.C.A.C. 62).

[58] The nature of the evidence that can be relied upon under the rubric of "surrounding circumstances" will necessarily vary from case to case. It does, however, have its limits. It should consist only of objective evidence of the background facts at the time of the execution of the contract (*King*, at paras. 66 and 70), that is, knowledge that was or reasonably ought to have been within the knowledge of both parties at or before the date of contracting. Subject to these requirements and the parol evidence rule discussed below, this includes, in the words of Lord Hoffmann, "absolutely anything which would have affected the way in which the language of the document would have been understood by a reasonable man" (*Investors Compensation Scheme*, at p. 114). Whether something was or reasonably ought to have been within the common knowledge of the parties at the time of execution of the contract is a question of fact.

(c) *Considering the Surrounding Circumstances Does Not Offend the Parol Evidence Rule*

[59] It is necessary to say a word about consideration of the surrounding circumstances and the parol evidence rule. The parol evidence rule precludes

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admission of evidence outside the words of the written contract that would add to, subtract from, vary, or contradict a contract that has been wholly reduced to writing (*King*, at para. 35; and Hall, at p. 53). To this end, the rule precludes, among other things, evidence of the subjective intentions of the parties (Hall, at pp. 64-65; and *Eli Lilly & Co. v. Novopharm Ltd.*, [1998] 2 S.C.R. 129, at paras. 54-59, *per* Iacobucci J.). The purpose of the parol evidence rule is primarily to achieve finality and certainty in contractual obligations, and secondarily to hamper a party's ability to use fabricated or unreliable evidence to attack a written contract (*United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, Local 579 v. Bradco Construction Ltd.*, [1993] 2 S.C.R. 316, at pp. 341-42, *per* Sopinka J.).

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[60] The parol evidence rule does not apply to preclude evidence of the surrounding circumstances. Such evidence is consistent with the objectives of finality and certainty because it is used as an interpretive aid for determining the meaning of the written words chosen by the parties, not to change or overrule the meaning of those words. The surrounding circumstances are facts known or facts that reasonably ought to have been known to both parties at or before the date of contracting; therefore, the concern of unreliability does not arise.

[61] Some authorities and commentators suggest that the parol evidence rule is an anachronism, or, at the very least, of limited application in view of the myriad of exceptions to it (see for example *Gutierrez v. Tropic International Ltd.* (2002), 63 O.R. (3d) 63 (C.A.), at paras. 19-20; and Hall, at pp. 53-64). For the purposes of this

appeal, it is sufficient to say that the parol evidence rule does not apply to preclude evidence of surrounding circumstances when interpreting the words of a written contract.

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(d) *Application to the Present Case*

[62] In this case, the CA Leave Court granted leave on the following issue: "Whether the Arbitrator erred in law in failing to construe the whole of the Finder's Fee Agreement . . ." (A.R., vol. 1, at p. 62).

[63] As will be explained below, while the requirement to construe a contract as a whole is a question of law that could — if extricable — satisfy the threshold requirement under s. 31 of the *AA*, I do not think this question was properly extricated in this case.

[64] I accept that a fundamental principle of contractual interpretation is that a contract must be construed as a whole (McCamus, at pp. 761-62; and Hall, at p. 15). If the arbitrator did not take the "maximum amount" proviso into account, as alleged by Creston, then he did not construe the Agreement as a whole because he ignored a specific and relevant provision of the Agreement. This is a question of law that would be extricable from a finding of mixed fact and law.

[65] However, it appears that the arbitrator did consider the "maximum amount" proviso. Indeed, the CA Leave Court acknowledges that the arbitrator had

considered that proviso, since it notes that he turned his mind to the US$1.5 million maximum amount, an amount that can only be calculated by referring to the TSXV policy referenced in the "maximum amount" proviso in s. 3.1 of the Agreement. As I read its reasons, rather than being concerned with whether the arbitrator ignored the maximum amount proviso, which is what Creston alleges in this Court, the CA Leave Court decision focused on how the arbitrator construed s. 3.1 of the Agreement, which included the maximum amount proviso (paras. 25-26). For example, the CA Leave Court expressed concern that the arbitrator did not address the "incongruity" in the fact that the value of the fee would vary "hugely" depending on whether it was taken in cash or shares (para. 25).

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[66] With respect, the CA Leave Court erred in finding that the construction of s. 3.1 of the Agreement constituted a question of law. As explained by Justice Armstrong in the SC Appeal Court decision, construing s. 3.1 and taking account of the proviso required relying on the relevant surrounding circumstances, including the sophistication of the parties, the fluctuation in share prices, and the nature of the risk a party assumes when deciding to accept a fee in shares as opposed to cash. Such an exercise raises a question of mixed fact and law. There being no question of law extricable from the mixed fact and law question of how s. 3.1 and the proviso should be interpreted, the CA Leave Court erred in granting leave to appeal.

[67] The conclusion that Creston's application for leave to appeal raised no question of law would be sufficient to dispose of this appeal. However, as this Court

rarely has the opportunity to address appeals of arbitral awards, it is, in my view, useful to explain that, even had the CA Leave Court been correct in finding that construction of s. 3.1 of the Agreement constituted a question of law, it should have nonetheless denied leave to appeal as the application also failed the miscarriage of justice and residual discretion stages of the leave analysis set out in s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA*.

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(4) May Prevent a Miscarriage of Justice

(a) *Miscarriage of Justice for the Purposes of Section 31(2)(a) of the AA*

[68] Once a question of law has been identified, the court must be satisfied that the determination of that point of law on appeal "may prevent a miscarriage of justice" in order for it to grant leave to appeal pursuant to s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA*. The first step in this analysis is defining miscarriage of justice for the purposes of s. 31(2)(a).

[69] In *BCIT*, Justice Saunders discussed the miscarriage of justice requirement under s. 31(2)(a). She affirmed the definition set out in *Domtar Inc. v. Belkin Inc.* (1989), 39 B.C.L.R. (2d) 257 (C.A.), which required the error of law in question to be a material issue that, if decided differently, would lead to a different result: ". . . if the point of law were decided differently, the arbitrator would have been led to a different result. In other words, was the alleged error of law material to the decision; does it go to its heart?" (*BCIT*, at para. 28). See also *Quan v. Cusson*,

2009 SCC 62, [2009] 3 S.C.R. 712, which discusses the test of whether "some substantial wrong or miscarriage of justice has occurred" in the context of a civil jury trial (para. 43).

[70] Having regard to *BCIT* and *Quan*, I am of the opinion that in order to rise to the level of a miscarriage of justice for the purposes of s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA*, an alleged legal error must pertain to a material issue in the dispute which, if decided differently, would affect the result of the case.

[71] According to this standard, a determination of a point of law "may prevent a miscarriage of justice" only where the appeal itself has some possibility of succeeding. An appeal with no chance of success will not meet the threshold of "may prevent a miscarriage of justice" because there would be no chance that the outcome of the appeal would cause a change in the final result of the case.

[72] At the leave stage, it is not appropriate to consider the full merits of a case and make a final determination regarding whether an error of law was made. However, some preliminary consideration of the question of law is necessary to determine whether the appeal has the potential to succeed and thus to change the result in the case.

[73] *BCIT* sets the threshold for this preliminary assessment of the appeal as "more than an arguable point" (para. 30). With respect, once an arguable point has been made out, it is not apparent what more is required to meet the "more than an

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arguable point" standard. Presumably, the leave judge would have to delve more deeply into the arguments around the question of law on appeal than would be appropriate at the leave stage to find *more* than an arguable point. Requiring this closer examination of the point of law, in my respectful view, blurs the line between the function of the court considering the leave application and the court hearing the appeal.

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[74] In my opinion, the appropriate threshold for assessing the legal question at issue under s. 31(2) is whether it has arguable merit. The arguable merit standard is often used to assess, on a preliminary basis, the merits of an appeal at the leave stage (see for example *Quick Auto Lease Inc. v. Nordin*, 2014 MBCA 32, 303 Man. R. (2d) 262, at para. 5; and *R. v. Fedossenko*, 2013 ABCA 164 (CanLII), at para. 7). "Arguable merit" is a well-known phrase whose meaning has been expressed in a variety of ways: "a reasonable prospect of success" (*Quick Auto Lease*, at para. 5; and *Enns v. Hansey*, 2013 MBCA 23 (CanLII), at para. 2); "some hope of success" and "sufficient merit" (*R. v. Hubley*, 2009 PECA 21, 289 Nfld. & P.E.I.R. 174, at para. 11); and "credible argument" (*R. v. Will*, 2013 SKCA 4, 405 Sask. R. 270, at para. 8). In my view, the common thread among the various expressions used to describe arguable merit is that the issue raised by the applicant cannot be dismissed through a preliminary examination of the question of law. In order to decide whether the award should be set aside, a more thorough examination is necessary and that examination is appropriately conducted by the court hearing the appeal once leave is granted.

[75] Assessing whether the issue raised by an application for leave to appeal has arguable merit must be done in light of the standard of review on which the merits of the appeal will be judged. This requires a preliminary assessment of the applicable standard of review. As I will later explain, reasonableness will almost always apply to commercial arbitrations conducted pursuant to the *AA*, except in the rare circumstances where the question is one that would attract a correctness standard, such as a constitutional question or a question of law of central importance to the legal system as a whole and outside the adjudicator's expertise. Therefore, the leave inquiry will ordinarily ask whether there is any arguable merit to the position that the arbitrator's decision on the question at issue is unreasonable, keeping in mind that the decision-maker is not required to refer to all the arguments, provisions or jurisprudence or to make specific findings on each constituent element, for the decision to be reasonable (*Newfoundland and Labrador Nurses' Union v. Newfoundland and Labrador (Treasury Board)*, 2011 SCC 62, [2011] 3 S.C.R. 708, at para. 16). Of course, the leave court's assessment of the standard of review is only preliminary and does not bind the court which considers the merits of the appeal. As such, this should not be taken as an invitation to engage in extensive arguments or analysis about the standard of review at the leave stage.

[76] In *BCIT*, Saunders J.A. considered the stage of s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA* at which an examination of the merits of the appeal should occur. At the behest of one of the parties, she considered examining the merits under the miscarriage of justice criterion. However, she decided that a consideration of the merits was best done at the

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residual discretion stage. Her reasons indicate that this decision was motivated by the desire to take a consistent approach across s. 31(2)(a), (b) and (c):

> Where, then, if anywhere, does consideration of the merits of the appeal belong? Mr. Roberts for the Student Association contends that any consideration of the merits of the appeal belongs in the determination of whether a miscarriage of justice may occur; that is, under the second criterion. I do not agree. In my view, the apparent merit or lack of merit of an appeal is part of the exercise of the residual discretion, and applies equally to all three subsections, (*a*) through (*c*). Just as an appeal woefully lacking in merit should not attract leave under (*b*) (of importance to a class of people including the applicant) or (*c*) (of general or public importance), so too it should not attract leave under (*a*). Consideration of the merits, for consistency in the section as a whole, should be made as part of the exercise of residual discretion. [para. 29]

[77] I acknowledge the consistency rationale. However, in my respectful opinion, the desire for a consistent approach to s. 31(2)(a), (b) and (c) cannot override the text of the legislation. Unlike s. 31(2)(b) and (c), s. 31(2)(a) requires an assessment to determine whether allowing leave to appeal "may prevent a miscarriage of justice". It is my opinion that a preliminary assessment of the question of law is an implicit component in a determination of whether allowing leave "may prevent a miscarriage of justice".

[78] However, in an application for leave to appeal pursuant to s. 31(2)(b) or (c), neither of which contain a miscarriage of justice requirement, I agree with Justice Saunders in *BCIT* that a preliminary examination of the merits of the question of law should be assessed at the residual discretion stage of the analysis as considering the

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merits of the proposed appeal will always be relevant when deciding whether to grant leave to appeal under s. 31.

[79] In sum, in order to establish that "the intervention of the court and the determination of the point of law may prevent a miscarriage of justice" for the purposes of s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA*, an applicant must demonstrate that the point of law on appeal is material to the final result and has arguable merit.

(b) *Application to the Present Case*

[80] The CA Leave Court found that the arbitrator may have erred in law by not interpreting the Agreement as a whole, specifically in ignoring the "maximum amount" proviso. Accepting that this is a question of law for these purposes only, a determination of the question would be material because it could change the ultimate result arrived at by the arbitrator. The arbitrator awarded $4.14 million in damages on the basis that there was an 85 percent chance the TSXV would approve a finder's fee paid in $0.15 shares. If Creston's argument is correct and the $0.15 share price is foreclosed by the "maximum amount" proviso, damages would be reduced to US$1.5 million, a significant reduction from the arbitrator's award of damages.

[81] As s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA* is the relevant provision in this case, a preliminary assessment of the question of law will be conducted in order to determine if a miscarriage of justice could have occurred had Creston been denied leave to appeal. Creston argues that the fact that the arbitrator's conclusion results in Sattva

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receiving shares valued at considerably more than the US$1.5 million maximum dictated by the "maximum amount" proviso is evidence of the arbitrator's failure to consider that proviso.

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[82] However, the arbitrator did refer to s. 3.1, the "maximum amount" proviso, at two points in his decision: paras. 18 and 23(a). For example, at para. 23 he stated:

> In summary, then, as of March 27, 2007 it was clear and beyond argument that under the Agreement:
>
> (a) Sattva was entitled to a fee equal to the maximum amount payable pursuant to the rules and policies of the TSX Venture Exchange – section 3.1. It is common ground that the quantum of this fee is US$1,500,000.
>
> (b) The fee was payable in shares based on the Market Price, as defined in the Agreement, unless Sattva elected to take it in cash or a combination of cash and shares.
>
> (c) The Market Price, as defined in the Agreement, was $0.15. [Emphasis added.]

[83] Although the arbitrator provided no express indication that he considered how the "maximum amount" proviso interacted with the Market Price definition, such consideration is implicit in his decision. The only place in the contract that specifies that the amount of the fee is calculated as US$1.5 million is the "maximum amount" proviso's reference to s. 3.3 of the TSXV Policy 5.1. The arbitrator acknowledged that the quantum of the fee is US$1.5 million and awarded Sattva US$1.5 million in shares priced at $0.15. Contrary to Creston's argument that the arbitrator failed to

consider the proviso in construing the Agreement, it is apparent on a preliminary examination of the question that the arbitrator did in fact consider the "maximum amount" proviso.

[84] Accordingly, even had the CA Leave Court properly identified a question of law, leave to appeal should have been denied. The requirement that there be arguable merit that the arbitrator's decision was unreasonable is not met and the miscarriage of justice threshold was not satisfied.

(5) Residual Discretion to Deny Leave

(a) *Considerations in Exercising Residual Discretion in a Section 31(2)(a) Leave Application*

[85] The B.C. courts have found that the words "may grant leave" in s. 31(2) of the *AA* confer on the court residual discretion to deny leave even where the requirements of s. 31(2) are met (*BCIT*, at paras. 9 and 26). In *BCIT*, Saunders J.A. sets out a non-exhaustive list of considerations that would be applicable to the exercise of discretion (para. 31):

1. "the apparent merits of the appeal";
2. "the degree of significance of the issue to the parties, to third parties and to the community at large";

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3. "the circumstances surrounding the dispute and adjudication including the urgency of a final answer";

4. "other temporal considerations including the opportunity for either party to address the result through other avenues";

5. "the conduct of the parties";

6. "the stage of the process at which the appealed decision was made";

7. "respect for the forum of arbitration, chosen by the parties as their means of resolving disputes"; and

8. "recognition that arbitration is often intended to provide a speedy and final dispute mechanism, tailor-made for the issues which may face the parties to the arbitration agreement".

[86] I agree with Justice Saunders that it is not appropriate to create what she refers to as an "immutable checklist" of factors to consider in exercising discretion under s. 31(2) (*BCIT*, at para. 32). However, I am unable to agree that all the listed considerations are applicable at this stage of the analysis.

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[87] In exercising its statutorily conferred discretion to deny leave to appeal pursuant to s. 31(2)(a), a court should have regard to the traditional bases for refusing discretionary relief: the parties' conduct, the existence of alternative remedies, and any undue delay (*Immeubles Port Louis Ltée v. Lafontaine (Village)*, [1991] 1 S.C.R. 326, at pp. 364-67). Balance of convenience considerations are also involved in determining whether to deny discretionary relief (*MiningWatch Canada v. Canada (Fisheries and Oceans)*, 2010 SCC 2, [2010] 1 S.C.R. 6, at para. 52). This would include the urgent need for a final answer.

[88] With respect to the other listed considerations and addressed in turn below, it is my opinion that they have already been considered elsewhere in the s. 31(2)(a) analysis or are more appropriately considered elsewhere under s. 31(2). Once considered, these matters should not be assessed again under the court's residual discretion.

[89] As discussed above, in s. 31(2)(a), a preliminary assessment of the merits of the question of law at issue in the leave application is to be considered in determining the miscarriage of justice question. The degree of significance of the issue to the parties is covered by the "importance of the result of the arbitration to the parties" criterion in s. 31(2)(a). The degree of significance of the issue to third parties and to the community at large should not be considered under s. 31(2)(a) as the *AA* sets these out as separate grounds for granting leave to appeal under s. 31(2)(b) and (c). Furthermore, respect for the forum of arbitration chosen by the parties is a

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consideration that animates the legislation itself and can be seen in the high threshold to obtain leave under s. 31(2)(a). Recognition that arbitration is often chosen as a means to obtain a fast and final resolution tailor-made for the issues is already reflected in the urgent need for a final answer.

[90] As for the stage of the process at which the decision sought to be appealed was made, it is not a consideration relevant to the exercise of the court's residual discretion to deny leave under s. 31(2)(a). This factor seeks to address the concern that granting leave to appeal an interlocutory decision may be premature and result in unnecessary fragmentation and delay of the legal process (D. J. M. Brown and J. M. Evans, with the assistance of C. E. Deacon, *Judicial Review of Administrative Action in Canada* (loose-leaf), at pp. 3-67 to 3-76). However, any such concern will have been previously addressed by the leave court in its analysis of whether a miscarriage of justice may arise; more specifically, whether the interlocutory issue has the potential to affect the final result. As such, the above-mentioned concerns should not be considered anew.

[91] In sum, a non-exhaustive list of discretionary factors to consider in a leave application under s. 31(2)(a) of the *AA* would include:

- conduct of the parties;
- existence of alternative remedies;
- undue delay; and

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- the urgent need for a final answer.

[92] These considerations could, where applicable, be a sound basis for declining leave to appeal an arbitral award even where the statutory criteria of s. 31(2)(a) have been met. However, courts should exercise such discretion with caution. Having found an error of law and, at least with respect to s. 31(2)(a), a potential miscarriage of justice, these discretionary factors must be weighed carefully before an otherwise eligible appeal is rejected on discretionary grounds.

(b) *Application to the Present Case*

[93] The SC Leave Court judge denied leave on the basis that there was no question of law. Even had he found a question of law, the SC Leave Court judge stated that he would have exercised his residual discretion to deny leave for two reasons: first, because of Creston's conduct in misrepresenting the status of the finder's fee issue to the TSXV and Sattva; and second, "on the principle that one of the objectives of the [*AA*] is to foster and preserve the integrity of the arbitration system" (para. 41). The CA Leave Court overruled the SC Leave Court on both of these discretionary grounds.

[94] For the reasons discussed above, fostering and preserving the integrity of the arbitral system should not be a discrete discretionary consideration under s. 31(2)(a). While the scheme of s. 31(2) recognizes this objective, the exercise of

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discretion must pertain to the facts and circumstances of a particular case. This general objective is not a discretionary matter for the purposes of denying leave.

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[95] However, conduct of the parties is a valid consideration in the exercise of the court's residual discretion under s. 31(2)(a). A discretionary decision to deny leave is to be reviewed with deference by an appellate court. A discretionary decision should not be interfered with merely because an appellate court would have exercised the discretion differently (*R. v. Bellusci*, 2012 SCC 44, [2012] 2 S.C.R. 509, at paras. 18 and 30). An appellate court is only justified in interfering with a lower court judge's exercise of discretion if that judge misdirected himself or if his decision is so clearly wrong as to amount to an injustice (*R. v. Bjelland*, 2009 SCC 38, [2009] 2 S.C.R. 651, at para. 15; and *R. v. Regan*, 2002 SCC 12, [2002] 1 S.C.R. 297, at para. 117).

[96] Here, the SC Leave Court relied upon a well-accepted consideration in deciding to deny discretionary relief: the misconduct of Creston. The CA Leave Court overturned this decision on the grounds that Creston's conduct was "not directly relevant to the question of law" advanced on appeal (at para. 27).

[97] The CA Leave Court did not explain why misconduct need be directly relevant to a question of law for the purpose of denying leave. I see nothing in s. 31(2) of the *AA* that would limit a leave judge's exercise of discretion in the manner suggested by the CA Leave Court. My reading of the jurisprudence does not support

the view that misconduct must be directly relevant to the question to be decided by the court.

[98] In *Homex Realty and Development Co. v. Corporation of the Village of Wyoming*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 1011, at pp. 1037-38, misconduct by a party not directly relevant to the question at issue before the court resulted in denial of a remedy. The litigation in *Homex* arose out of a disagreement regarding whether the purchaser of lots in a subdivision, Homex, had assumed the obligations of the vendor under a subdivision agreement to provide "all the requirements, financial and otherwise" for the installation of municipal services on a parcel of land that had been subdivided (pp. 1015-16). This Court determined that Homex had not been accorded procedural fairness when the municipality passed a by-law related to the dispute (p. 1032). Nevertheless, discretionary relief to quash the by-law was denied because, among other things, Homex had sought "throughout all these proceedings to avoid the burden associated with the subdivision of the lands" that it owned (p. 1037), even though the Court held that Homex knew this obligation was its responsibility (pp. 1017-19). This conduct was related to the dispute that gave rise to the litigation, but not to the question of whether the by-law was enacted in a procedurally fair manner. Accordingly, I read *Homex* as authority for the proposition that misconduct related to the dispute that gave rise to the proceedings may justify the exercise of discretion to refuse the relief sought, in this case refusing to grant leave to appeal.

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[99] Here, the arbitrator found as a fact that Creston misled the TSXV and Sattva regarding "the nature of the obligation it had undertaken to Sattva by representing that the finder's fee was payable in cash" (para. 56(k)). While this conduct is not tied to the question of law found by the CA Leave Court, it is tied to the arbitration proceeding convened to determine which share price should be used to pay Sattva's finder's fee. The SC Leave Court was entitled to rely upon such conduct as a basis for denying leave pursuant to its residual discretion.

[100] In the result, in my respectful opinion, even if the CA Leave Court had identified a question of law and the miscarriage of justice test had been met, it should have upheld the SC Leave Court's denial of leave to appeal in deference to that court's exercise of judicial discretion.

[101] Although the CA Leave Court erred in granting leave, these protracted proceedings have nonetheless now reached this Court. In light of the fact that the true concern between the parties is the merits of the appeal — that is how much the Agreement requires Creston to pay Sattva — and that the courts below differed significantly in their interpretation of the Agreement, it would be unsatisfactory not to address the very dispute that has given rise to these proceedings. I will therefore proceed to consider the three remaining questions on appeal as if leave to appeal had been properly granted.

C. *Standard of Review Under the AA*

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[102] I now turn to consideration of the decisions of the appeal courts. It is first necessary to determine the standard of review of the arbitrator's decision in respect of the question on which the CA Leave Court granted leave: whether the arbitrator construed the finder's fee provision in light of the Agreement as a whole, particularly, whether the finder's fee provision was interpreted having regard for the "maximum amount" proviso.

[103] At the outset, it is important to note that the *Administrative Tribunals Act*, S.B.C. 2004, c. 45, which sets out standards of review of the decisions of many statutory tribunals in British Columbia (see ss. 58 and 59), does not apply in the case of arbitrations under the *AA*.

[104] Appellate review of commercial arbitration awards takes place under a tightly defined regime specifically tailored to the objectives of commercial arbitrations and is different from judicial review of a decision of a statutory tribunal. For example, for the most part, parties engage in arbitration by mutual choice, not by way of a statutory process. Additionally, unlike statutory tribunals, the parties to the arbitration select the number and identity of the arbitrators. These differences mean that the judicial review framework developed in *Dunsmuir v. New Brunswick*, 2008 SCC 9, [2008] 1 S.C.R. 190, and the cases that followed it is not entirely applicable to the commercial arbitration context. For example, the *AA* forbids review of an arbitrator's factual findings. In the context of commercial arbitration, such a provision is absolute. Under the *Dunsmuir* judicial review framework, a privative clause does

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not prevent a court from reviewing a decision, it simply signals deference (*Dunsmuir*, at para. 31).

[105] Nevertheless, judicial review of administrative tribunal decisions and appeals of arbitration awards are analogous in some respects. Both involve a court reviewing the decision of a non-judicial decision-maker. Additionally, as expertise is a factor in judicial review, it is a factor in commercial arbitrations: where parties choose their own decision-maker, it may be presumed that such decision-makers are chosen either based on their expertise in the area which is the subject of dispute or are otherwise qualified in a manner that is acceptable to the parties. For these reasons, aspects of the *Dunsmuir* framework are helpful in determining the appropriate standard of review to apply in the case of commercial arbitration awards.

[106] *Dunsmuir* and the post-*Dunsmuir* jurisprudence confirm that it will often be possible to determine the standard of review by focusing on the nature of the question at issue (see for example *Alberta (Information and Privacy Commissioner) v. Alberta Teachers' Association*, 2011 SCC 61, [2011] 3 S.C.R. 654, at para. 44). In the context of commercial arbitration, where appeals are restricted to questions of law, the standard of review will be reasonableness unless the question is one that would attract the correctness standard, such as constitutional questions or questions of law of central importance to the legal system as a whole and outside the adjudicator's expertise (*Alberta Teachers' Association*, at para. 30). The question at issue here, whether the arbitrator interpreted the Agreement as a whole, does not fall into one of

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those categories. The relevant portions of the *Dunsmuir* analysis point to a standard of review of reasonableness in this case.

D. *The Arbitrator Reasonably Construed the Agreement as a Whole*

[107] For largely the reasons outlined by Justice Armstrong in paras. 57-75 of the SC Appeal Court decision, in my respectful opinion, in determining that Sattva is entitled to be paid its finder's fee in shares priced at $0.15 per share, the arbitrator reasonably construed the Agreement as a whole. Although Justice Armstrong conducted a correctness review of the arbitrator's decision, his reasons amply demonstrate the reasonableness of that decision. The following analysis is largely based upon his reasoning.

[108] The question that the arbitrator had to decide was which date should be used to determine the price of the shares used to pay the finder's fee: the date specified in the Market Price definition in the Agreement or the date the finder's fee was to be paid?

[109] The arbitrator concluded that the price determined by the Market Price definition prevailed, i.e. $0.15 per share. In his view, this conclusion followed from the words of the Agreement and was "clear and beyond argument" (para. 23). Apparently, because he considered this issue clear, he did not offer extensive reasons in support of his conclusion.

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[110] In *Newfoundland and Labrador Nurses' Union*, Abella J. cites Professor David Dyzenhaus to explain that, when conducting a reasonableness review, it is permissible for reviewing courts to supplement the reasons of the original decision-maker as part of the reasonableness analysis:

> "Reasonable" means here that the reasons do in fact or in principle support the conclusion reached. That is, even if the reasons in fact given do not seem wholly adequate to support the decision, the court must first seek to supplement them before it seeks to subvert them. For if it is right that among the reasons for deference are the appointment of the tribunal and not the court as the front line adjudicator, the tribunal's proximity to the dispute, its expertise, etc, then it is also the case that its decision should be presumed to be correct even if its reasons are in some respects defective. [Emphasis added by Abella J.; para. 12.]
>
> (Quotation from D. Dyzenhaus, "The Politics of Deference: Judicial Review and Democracy", in M. Taggart, ed., *The Province of Administrative Law* (1997), 279, at p. 304.)

Accordingly, Justice Armstrong's explanation of the interaction between the Market Price definition and the "maximum amount" proviso can be considered a supplement to the arbitrator's reasons.

[111] The two provisions at issue here are the Market Price definition and the "maximum amount" proviso:

> **2. DEFINITIONS**
>
> **"Market Price"** for companies listed on the TSX Venture Exchange shall have the meaning as set out in the Corporate Finance Manual of the TSX Venture Exchange as calculated on close of business day before the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition. For companies listed on the TSX, Market Price means the average closing price of the

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Company's stock on a recognized exchange five trading days immediately preceding the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition.

And:

3. FINDER'S FEE

3.1 . . . the Company agrees that on the closing of an Acquisition introduced to Company by the Finder, the Company will pay the Finder a finder's fee (the "Finder's Fee") based on Consideration paid to the vendor equal to the maximum amount payable pursuant to the rules and policies of the TSX Venture Exchange. <u>Such finder's fee is to be paid in shares of the Company based on Market Price</u> or, at the option of the Finder, any combination of shares and cash, <u>provided the amount does not exceed the maximum amount as set out in the Exchange Policy 5.1, Section 3.3 Finder's Fee Limitations</u>. [Emphasis added.]

[112] Section 3.1 entitles Sattva to be paid a finder's fee in shares based on the "Market Price". Section 2 of the Agreement states that Market Price for companies listed on the TSXV should be "calculated on close of business day before the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition". In this case, shares priced on the basis of the Market Price definition would be $0.15 per share. The words "provided the amount does not exceed the maximum amount as set out in the Exchange Policy 5.1, Section 3.3 Finder's Fee Limitations" in s. 3.1 of the Agreement constitute the "maximum amount" proviso. This proviso limits the amount of the finder's fee. The maximum finder's fee in this case is US$1.5 million (see s. 3.3 of the TSXV Policy 5.1 in Appendix II).

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[113] While the "maximum amount" proviso limits the amount of the finder's fee, it does not affect the Market Price definition. As Justice Armstrong explained, the Market Price definition acts to fix the date at which one medium of payment (US$) is transferred into another (shares):

> The medium for payment of the finder's fee is clearly established by the fee agreement. The market value of those shares at the time that the parties entered into the fee agreement was unknown. The respondent analogizes between payment of the $1.5 million US finder's fee in shares and a hypothetical agreement permitting payment of $1.5 million US in Canadian dollars. Both agreements would contemplate a fee paid in different currencies. The exchange rate of the US and Canadian dollar would be fixed to a particulate date, as is the value of the shares by way of the Market Price in the fee agreement. That exchange rate would determine the number of Canadian dollars paid in order to satisfy the $1.5 million US fee, as the Market Price does for the number of shares paid in relation to the fee. The Canadian dollar is the form of the fee payment, as are the shares. Whether the Canadian dollar increased or decreased in value after the date on which the exchange rate is based is irrelevant. The amount of the fee paid remains $1.5 million US, payable in the number of Canadian dollars (or shares) equal to the amount of the fee based on the value of that currency on the date that the value is determined.
>
> (SC Appeal Court decision, at para. 71)

[114] Justice Armstrong explained that Creston's position requires the Market Price definition to be ignored and for the shares to be priced based on the valuation done in anticipation of a private placement.

[115] However, nothing in the Agreement expresses or implies that compliance with the "maximum amount" proviso should be reassessed at a date closer to the payment of the finder's fee. Nor is the basis for the new valuation, in this case a private placement, mentioned or implied in the Agreement. To accept Creston's

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interpretation would be to ignore the words of the Agreement which provide that the "finder's fee is to be paid in shares of the Company based on Market Price".

[116] The arbitrator's decision that the shares should be priced according to the Market Price definition gives effect to both the Market Price definition and the "maximum amount" proviso. The arbitrator's interpretation of the Agreement, as explained by Justice Armstrong, achieves this goal by reconciling the Market Price definition and the "maximum amount" proviso in a manner that cannot be said to be unreasonable.

[117] As Justice Armstrong explained, setting the share price in advance creates a risk that makes selecting payment in shares qualitatively different from choosing payment in cash. There is an inherent risk in accepting a fee paid in shares that is not present when accepting a fee paid in cash. A fee paid in cash has a specific predetermined value. By contrast, when a fee is paid in shares, the price of the shares (or mechanism to determine the price of the shares) is set in advance. However, the price of those shares on the market will change over time. The recipient of a fee paid in shares hopes the share price will rise resulting in shares with a market value greater than the value of the shares at the predetermined price. However, if the share price falls, the recipient will receive shares worth less than the value of the shares at the predetermined price. This risk is well known to those operating in the business sphere and both Creston and Sattva would have been aware of this as sophisticated business parties.

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[118] By accepting payment in shares, Sattva was accepting that it was subject to the volatility of the market. If Creston's share price had fallen, Sattva would still have been bound by the share price determined according to the Market Price definition resulting in it receiving a fee paid in shares with a market value of less than the maximum amount of US$1.5 million. It would make little sense to accept the risk of the share price decreasing without the possibility of benefitting from the share price increasing. As Justice Armstrong stated:

> It would be inconsistent with sound commercial principles to insulate the appellant from a rise in share prices that benefitted the respondent at the date that the fee became payable, when such a rise was foreseeable and ought to have been addressed by the appellant, just as it would be inconsistent with sound commercial principles, and the terms of the fee agreement, to increase the number of shares allocated to the respondent had their value decreased relative to the Market Price by the date that the fee became payable. Both parties accepted the possibility of a change in the value of the shares after the Market Price was determined when entering into the fee agreement.
>
> (SC Appeal Court decision, at para. 70)

[119] For these reasons, the arbitrator did not ignore the "maximum amount" proviso. The arbitrator's reasoning, as explained by Justice Armstrong, meets the reasonableness threshold of justifiability, transparency and intelligibility (*Dunsmuir*, at para. 47).

E. *Appeal Courts Are Not Bound by Comments on the Merits of the Appeal Made by Leave Courts*

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[120] The CA Appeal Court held that it and the SC Appeal Court were bound by the findings made by the CA Leave Court regarding not simply the decision to grant leave to appeal, but also the merits of the appeal. In other words, it found that the SC Appeal Court erred in law by ignoring the findings of the CA Leave Court regarding the merits of the appeal.

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[121] The CA Appeal Court noted two specific findings regarding the merits of the appeal that it held were binding on it and the SC Appeal Court: (1) it would be anomalous if the Agreement allowed Sattva to receive US$1.5 million if it received its fee in cash, but allowed it to receive shares valued at approximately $8 million if Sattva received its fee in shares; and (2) that the arbitrator ignored this anomaly and did not address s. 3.1 of the Agreement:

> The [SC Appeal Court] judge found the arbitrator had expressly addressed the maximum amount payable under paragraph 3.1 of the Agreement and that he was correct.
>
> This finding is contrary to the remarks of Madam Justice Newbury in the earlier appeal that, if Sattva took its fee in shares valued at $0.15, it would receive a fee having a value at the time the fee became payable of over $8 million. If the fee were taken in cash, the amount payable would be $1.5 million US. Newbury J.A. specifically held that the arbitrator did not note this anomaly and did not address the meaning of paragraph 3.1 of the Agreement.
>
> The [SC Appeal Court] judge was bound to accept those findings. Similarly, absent a five-judge division in this appeal, we must also accept those findings. [paras. 42-44]

[122] With respect, the CA Appeal Court erred in holding that the CA Leave Court's comments on the merits of the appeal were binding on it and on the SC Appeal Court. A court considering whether leave should be granted is not adjudicating the merits of the case (*Canadian Western Bank v. Alberta*, 2007 SCC 22, [2007] 2 S.C.R. 3, at para. 88). A leave court decides only whether the matter warrants granting leave, not whether the appeal will be successful (*Pacifica Mortgage Investment Corp. v. Laus Holdings Ltd.*, 2013 BCCA 95, 333 B.C.A.C. 310, at para. 27, leave to appeal refused, [2013] 3 S.C.R. viii). This is true even where the determination of whether to grant leave involves, as in this case, a preliminary consideration of the question of law at issue. A grant of leave cannot bind or limit the powers of the court hearing the actual appeal (*Tamil Co-operative Homes Inc. v. Arulappah* (2000), 49 O.R. (3d) 566 (C.A.), at para. 32).

[123] Creston concedes this point but argues that the CA Appeal Court's finding that it was bound by the CA Leave Court was inconsequential because the CA Appeal Court came to the same conclusion on the merits as the CA Leave Court based on separate and independent reasoning.

[124] The fact that the CA Appeal Court provided its own reasoning as to why it came to the same conclusion as the CA Leave Court does not vitiate the error. Once the CA Appeal Court treated the CA Leave Court's reasons on the merits as binding, it could hardly have come to any other decision. As counsel for Sattva pointed out, treating the leave decision as binding would render an appeal futile.

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VI. Conclusion

[125] The CA Leave Court erred in granting leave to appeal in this case. In any event, the arbitrator's decision was reasonable. The appeal from the judgments of the Court of Appeal for British Columbia dated May 14, 2010 and August 7, 2012 is allowed with costs throughout and the arbitrator's award is reinstated.

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APPENDIX I

Relevant Provisions of the Sattva-Creston Finder's Fee Agreement

(a) "Market Price" definition:

> **2. DEFINITIONS**
>
> **"Market Price"** for companies listed on the TSX Venture Exchange shall have the meaning as set out in the Corporate Finance Manual of the TSX Venture Exchange as calculated on close of business day before the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition. For companies listed on the TSX, Market Price means the average closing price of the Company's stock on a recognized exchange five trading days immediately preceding the issuance of the press release announcing the Acquisition.

(b) Finder's fee provision (which contains the "maximum amount" proviso):

> **3. FINDER'S FEE**
>
> 3.1 . . . the Company agrees that on the closing of an Acquisition introduced to Company by the Finder, the Company will pay the Finder a finder's fee (the "Finder's Fee") based on Consideration paid to the vendor equal to the maximum amount payable pursuant to the rules and policies of the TSX Venture Exchange. Such finder's fee is to be paid in shares of the Company based on Market Price or, at the option of the Finder, any combination of shares and cash, provided the amount does

not exceed the maximum amount as set out in the Exchange Policy 5.1, Section 3.3 Finder's Fee Limitations.

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APPENDIX II

Section 3.3 of TSX Venture Exchange Policy 5.1: Loans, Bonuses, Finder's Fees and Commissions

3.3 Finder's Fee Limitations

The finder's fee limitations apply if the benefit to the Issuer is an asset purchase or sale, joint venture agreement, or if the benefit to the Issuer is not a specific financing. The consideration should be stated both in dollars and as a percentage of the value of the benefit received. Unless there are unusual circumstances, the finder's fee should not exceed the following percentages:

Benefit	Finder's Fee
On the first $300,000	Up to 10%
From $300,000 to $1,000,000	Up to 7.5%
From $1,000,000 and over	Up to 5%

As the dollar value of the benefit increases, the fee or commission, as a percentage of that dollar value should generally decrease.

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APPENDIX III

Commercial Arbitration Act, R.S.B.C. 1996, c. 55 (as it read on January 12, 2007) (now the *Arbitration Act*)

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Appeal to the court

31 (1) A party to an arbitration may appeal to the court on any question of law arising out of the award if

(a) all of the parties to the arbitration consent, or

(b) the court grants leave to appeal.

(2) In an application for leave under subsection (1) (b), the court may grant leave if it determines that

(a) the importance of the result of the arbitration to the parties justifies the intervention of the court and the determination of the point of law may prevent a miscarriage of justice,

(b) the point of law is of importance to some class or body of persons of which the applicant is a member, or

(c) the point of law is of general or public importance.

(3) If the court grants leave to appeal under this section, it may attach conditions to the order granting leave that it considers just.

(4) On an appeal to the court, the court may

(a) confirm, amend or set aside the award, or

(b) remit the award to the arbitrator together with the court's opinion on the question of law that was the subject of the appeal.

Appeal allowed with costs throughout.

Solicitors for the appellant: McCarthy Tétrault, Vancouver.

Solicitors for the respondent: Miller Thomson, Vancouver.

Solicitor for the intervener the Attorney General of British Columbia: Attorney General of British Columbia, Victoria.

Solicitors for the intervener the BCICAC Foundation: Fasken Martineau DuMoulin, Vancouver.

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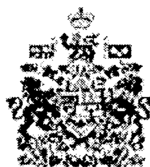
TAB 6



SUPREME COURT OF CANADA

CITATION: Hryniak *v.* Mauldin, 2014 SCC 7, [2014] 1 S.C.R. 87

DATE: 20140123
DOCKET: 34641

BETWEEN:

Robert Hryniak
Appellant
and
Fred Mauldin, Dan Myers, Robert Blomberg, Theodore Landkammer, Lloyd Chelli, Stephen Yee, Marvin Cleair, Carolyn Cleair, Richard Hanna, Douglas Laird, Charles Ivans, Lyn White and Athena Smith
Respondents
- and -
Ontario Trial Lawyers Association and Canadian Bar Association
Interveners

CORAM: McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Rothstein, Cromwell, Karakatsanis and Wagner JJ.

REASONS FOR JUDGMENT: (paras. 1 to 96) — Karakatsanis J. (McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Rothstein, Cromwell and Wagner JJ. concurring)

Hryniak *v.* Mauldin, 2014 CSC 7, [2014] 1 R.C.S. 87

Robert Hryniak *Appellant*

v.

2014 SCC 7 (CanLII)

Fred Mauldin, Dan Myers, Robert Blomberg, Theodore Landkammer, Lloyd Chelli, Stephen Yee, Marvin Cleair, Carolyn Cleair, Richard Hanna, Douglas Laird, Charles Ivans, Lyn White and Athena Smith *Respondents*

and

Ontario Trial Lawyers Association and Canadian Bar Association *Interveners*

Indexed as: Hryniak *v.* Mauldin

2014 SCC 7

File No.: 34641.

2013: March 26; 2014: January 23.

Present: McLachlin C.J. and LeBel, Abella, Rothstein, Cromwell, Karakatsanis and Wagner JJ.

ON APPEAL FROM THE COURT OF APPEAL FOR ONTARIO

Civil procedure — Summary judgment — Investors bringing action in civil fraud and subsequently bringing a motion for summary judgment — Motion judge granting summary judgment — Purpose of summary judgment motions — Access to justice — Proportionality — Interpretation of recent amendments to

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Ontario Rules of Civil Procedure — Trial management orders — Standard of review for summary judgment motions — Whether motion judge erred in granting summary judgment — Rules of Civil Procedure, R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 194, Rule 20.

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In June 2001, two representatives of a group of American investors met with H and others to discuss an investment opportunity. The group wired US$1.2 million, which was pooled with other funds and transferred to H's company, Tropos. A few months later, Tropos forwarded more than US$10 million to an offshore bank and the money disappeared. The investors brought an action for civil fraud against H and others and subsequently brought a motion for summary judgment. The motion judge used his powers under Rule 20.04(2.1) of the Ontario *Rules of Civil Procedure* (amended in 2010) to weigh the evidence, evaluate credibility, and draw inferences. He concluded that a trial was not required against H. Despite concluding that this case was not an appropriate candidate for summary judgment, the Court of Appeal was satisfied that the record supported the finding that H had committed the tort of civil fraud against the investors, and therefore dismissed H's appeal.

Held: The appeal should be dismissed.

Our civil justice system is premised upon the value that the process of adjudication must be fair and just. This cannot be compromised. However, undue process and protracted trials, with unnecessary expense and delay, can prevent the fair

and just resolution of disputes. If the process is disproportionate to the nature of the dispute and the interests involved, then it will not achieve a fair and just result.

A shift in culture is required. The proportionality principle is now reflected in many of the provinces' rules and can act as a touchstone for access to civil justice. The proportionality principle means that the best forum for resolving a dispute is not always that with the most painstaking procedure. Summary judgment motions provide an opportunity to simplify pre-trial procedures and move the emphasis away from the conventional trial in favour of proportional procedures tailored to the needs of the particular case. Summary judgment rules must be interpreted broadly, favouring proportionality and fair access to the affordable, timely and just adjudication of claims.

Rule 20 was amended in 2010 to improve access to justice. These reforms embody the evolution of summary judgment rules from highly restricted tools used to weed out clearly unmeritorious claims or defences to their current status as a legitimate alternative means for adjudicating and resolving legal disputes. They offer significant new tools to judges, which allow them to adjudicate more cases through summary judgment motions and attenuate the risks when such motions do not resolve the entire case. The new powers in Rules 20.04(2.1) and (2.2) expand the number of cases in which there will be no genuine issue requiring a trial by permitting motion judges to weigh evidence, evaluate credibility and draw reasonable inferences.

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Summary judgment motions must be granted whenever there is no genuine issue requiring a trial. There will be no genuine issue requiring a trial when the judge is able to reach a fair and just determination on the merits on a motion for summary judgment. This will be the case when the process (1) allows the judge to make the necessary findings of fact, (2) allows the judge to apply the law to the facts, and (3) is a proportionate, more expeditious and less expensive means to achieve a just result.

The new fact-finding powers granted to motion judges in Rule 20.04 may be employed on a motion for summary judgment unless it is in the interest of justice for them to be exercised only at trial. When the use of the new powers would enable a judge to fairly and justly adjudicate a claim, it will generally not be against the interest of justice to do so. The power to hear oral evidence should be employed when it allows the judge to reach a fair and just adjudication on the merits and it is the proportionate course of action. While this is more likely to be the case when the oral evidence required is limited, there will be cases where extensive oral evidence can be heard. Where a party seeks to lead oral evidence, it should be prepared to demonstrate why such evidence would assist the motion judge and to provide a description of the proposed evidence so that the judge will have a basis for setting the scope of the oral evidence.

On a motion for summary judgment under Rule 20.04, the judge should first determine if there is a genuine issue requiring trial based only on the evidence

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before her, *without* using the new fact-finding powers. There will be no genuine issue requiring a trial if the summary judgment process provides her with the evidence required to fairly and justly adjudicate the dispute and is a timely, affordable and proportionate procedure, under Rule 20.04(2)(a). If there appears to be a genuine issue requiring a trial, she should then determine if the need for a trial can be avoided by using the new powers under Rules 20.04(2.1) and (2.2). Their use will not be against the interest of justice if they will lead to a fair and just result and will serve the goals of timeliness, affordability and proportionality in light of the litigation as a whole.

Failed, or even partially successful, summary judgment motions add to costs and delay. This risk can be attenuated by a judge who makes use of the trial management powers provided in Rule 20.05 and the court's inherent jurisdiction. These powers allow the judge to use the insight she gained from hearing the summary judgment motion to craft a trial procedure that will resolve the dispute in a way that is sensitive to the complexity and importance of the issue, the amount involved in the case, and the effort expended on the failed motion. Where a motion judge dismisses a motion for summary judgment, in the absence of compelling reasons to the contrary, she should also seize herself of the matter as the trial judge.

Absent an error of law, the exercise of powers under the new summary judgment rule attracts deference. When the motion judge exercises her new fact-finding powers under Rule 20.04(2.1) and determines whether there is a genuine

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issue requiring a trial, this is a question of mixed fact and law which should not be overturned, absent palpable and overriding error. Similarly, the determination of whether it is in the interest of justice for the motion judge to exercise the new fact-finding powers provided by Rule 20.04(2.1) is also a question of mixed fact and law which attracts deference.

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The motion judge did not err in granting summary judgment in the present case. The tort of civil fraud has four elements, which must be proven on a balance of probabilities: (1) a false representation by the defendant; (2) some level of knowledge of the falsehood of the representation on the part of the defendant (whether knowledge or recklessness); (3) the false representation caused the plaintiff to act; (4) the plaintiff's actions resulted in a loss. In granting summary judgment to the group against H, the motion judge did not explicitly address the correct test for civil fraud but his findings are sufficient to make out the cause of action. The motion judge found no credible evidence to support H's claim that he was a legitimate trader, and the outcome was therefore clear, so the motion judge concluded there was no issue requiring a trial. It was neither against the interest of justice for the motion judge to use his fact-finding powers nor was his discretionary decision to do so tainted with error.

Cases Cited

Referred to: *Bruno Appliance and Furniture, Inc. v. Hryniak*, 2014 SCC 8, [2014] 1 S.C.R. 126; *New Brunswick (Minister of Health and Community Services)*

v. G. (J.), [1999] 3 S.C.R. 46; *Medicine Shoppe Canada Inc. v. Devchand*, 2012 ABQB 375, 541 A.R. 312; *Saturley v. CIBC World Markets Inc.*, 2011 NSSC 4, 297 N.S.R. (2d) 371; *Szeto v. Dwyer*, 2010 NLCA 36, 297 Nfld. & P.E.I.R. 311; *Bal Global Finance Canada Corp. v. Aliments Breton (Canada) inc.*, 2010 QCCS 325 (CanLII); *Vaughan v. Warner Communications, Inc.* (1986), 56 O.R. (2d) 242; *Canada (Attorney General) v. Lameman*, 2008 SCC 14, [2008] 1 S.C.R. 372; *Aguonie v. Galion Solid Waste Material Inc.* (1998), 38 O.R. (3d) 161; *Dawson v. Rexcraft Storage and Warehouse Inc.* (1998), 164 D.L.R. (4th) 257; *Housen v. Nikolaisen*, 2002 SCC 33, [2002] 2 S.C.R. 235.

Statutes and Regulations Cited

Code of Civil Procedure, R.S.Q., c. C-25, arts. 4.2, 54.1 *et seq.*, 165(4).

Rules of Civil Procedure, R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 194, rr. 1.04(1), (1.1), 1.05, 20, 20.04(2)(a), (2.1), (2.2), 20.05, 20.06(a).

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APPEAL from a judgment of the Ontario Court of Appeal (Winkler C.J.O. and Laskin, Sharpe, Armstrong and Rouleau JJ.A.), 2011 ONCA 764, 108 O.R. (3d) 1, 286 O.A.C. 3, 97 C.C.E.L. (3d) 25, 14 C.P.C. (7th) 242, 13 R.P.R. (5th) 167, 93 B.L.R. (4th) 1, 344 D.L.R. (4th) 193, 10 C.L.R. (4th) 17, [2011] O.J. No. 5431 (QL), 2011 CarswellOnt 13515 (*sub nom. Combined Air Mechanical Services Inc. v. Flesch*), affirming a decision of Grace J., 2010 ONSC 5490, [2010] O.J. No. 4661 (QL), 2010 CarswellOnt 8325. Appeal dismissed.

Sarit E. Batner, *Brandon Kain* and *Moya J. Graham*, for the appellant.

Javad Heydary, *Jeffrey D. Landmann*, *David K. Alderson*, *Michelle Jackson* and *Jonathan A. Odumeru*, for the respondents.

Allan Rouben and *Ronald P. Bohm*, for the intervener the Ontario Trial Lawyers Association.

Paul R. Sweeny and *David Sterns*, for the intervener the Canadian Bar Association.

The judgment of the Court was delivered by

[1] KARAKATSANIS J. — Ensuring access to justice is the greatest challenge to the rule of law in Canada today. Trials have become increasingly expensive and protracted. Most Canadians cannot afford to sue when they are wronged or defend

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themselves when they are sued, and cannot afford to go to trial. Without an effective and accessible means of enforcing rights, the rule of law is threatened. Without public adjudication of civil cases, the development of the common law is stunted.

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[2] Increasingly, there is recognition that a culture shift is required in order to create an environment promoting timely and affordable access to the civil justice system. This shift entails simplifying pre-trial procedures and moving the emphasis away from the conventional trial in favour of proportional procedures tailored to the needs of the particular case. The balance between procedure and access struck by our justice system must come to reflect modern reality and recognize that new models of adjudication can be fair and just.

[3] Summary judgment motions provide one such opportunity. Following the *Civil Justice Reform Project: Summary of Findings and Recommendations* (2007) (the Osborne Report), Ontario amended the *Rules of Civil Procedure*, R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 194 (Ontario *Rules* or Rules) to increase access to justice. This appeal, and its companion, *Bruno Appliance and Furniture, Inc. v. Hryniak*, 2014 SCC 8, [2014] 1 S.C.R. 126, address the proper interpretation of the amended Rule 20 (summary judgment motion).

[4] In interpreting these provisions, the Ontario Court of Appeal placed too high a premium on the "full appreciation" of evidence that can be gained at a conventional trial, given that such a trial is not a realistic alternative for most litigants. In my view, a trial is not required if a summary judgment motion can achieve a fair

and just adjudication, if it provides a process that allows the judge to make the necessary findings of fact, apply the law to those facts, and is a proportionate, more expeditious and less expensive means to achieve a just result than going to trial.

[5] To that end, I conclude that summary judgment rules must be interpreted broadly, favouring proportionality and fair access to the affordable, timely and just adjudication of claims.

[6] As the Court of Appeal observed, the inappropriate use of summary judgment motions creates its own costs and delays. However, judges can mitigate such risks by making use of their powers to manage and focus the process and, where possible, remain seized of the proceedings.

[7] While I differ in part on the interpretation of Rule 20, I agree with the Court of Appeal's disposition of the matter and would dismiss the appeal.

I. Facts

[8] More than a decade ago, a group of American investors, led by Fred Mauldin (the Mauldin Group), placed their money in the hands of Canadian "traders". Robert Hryniak was the principal of the company Tropos Capital Inc., which traded in bonds and debt instruments; Gregory Peebles, is a corporate-commercial lawyer (formerly of Cassels Brock & Blackwell) who acted for Hryniak, Tropos and Robert Cranston, formerly a principal of a Panamanian company, Frontline Investments Inc.

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[9] In June 2001, two members of the Mauldin Group met with Cranston, Peebles, and Hryniak, to discuss an investment opportunity.

[10] At the end of June 2001, the Mauldin Group wired US$1.2 million to Cassels Brock, which was pooled with other funds and transferred to Tropos. A few months later, Tropos forwarded more than US$10 million to an offshore bank, and the money disappeared. Hryniak claims that at this point, Tropos' funds, including the funds contributed by the Mauldin Group, were stolen.

[11] Beyond a small payment of US$9,600 in February 2002, the Mauldin Group lost its investment.

II. Judicial History

A. *Ontario Superior Court of Justice, 2010 ONSC 5490 (CanLII)*

[12] The Mauldin Group joined with Bruno Appliance and Furniture, Inc. (the appellants in the companion appeal) in an action for civil fraud against Hryniak, Peebles and Cassels Brock. They brought motions for summary judgment, which were heard together.

[13] In hearing the motions, the judge used his powers under the new Rule 20.04(2.1) to weigh the evidence, evaluate credibility, and draw inferences. He found that the Mauldin Group's money was disbursed by Cassels Brock to Hryniak's

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company, Tropos, but that there was no evidence to suggest that Tropos had ever set up a trading program. Contrary to the investment strategy that Hryniak had described to the investors, the Mauldin Group's money was placed in an account with the offshore New Savings Bank, and then disappeared. He rejected Hryniak's claim that members of the New Savings Bank had stolen the Mauldin Group's money.

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[14] The motion judge concluded that a trial was not required against Hryniak. However, he dismissed the Mauldin Group's motion for summary judgment against Peebles, because that claim involved factual issues, particularly with respect to Peebles' credibility and involvement in a key meeting, which required a trial. Consequently, he also dismissed the motion for summary judgment against Cassels Brock, as those claims were based on the theory that the firm was vicariously liable for Peebles' conduct.

B. *Court of Appeal for Ontario, 2011 ONCA 764, 108 O.R. (3d) 1*

[15] The Court of Appeal simultaneously heard Hryniak's appeal of this matter, the companion *Bruno Appliance* appeal, and three other matters which are not before this Court. This was the first occasion on which the Court of Appeal considered the new Rule 20.

[16] The Court of Appeal set out a threshold test for when a motion judge could employ the new evidentiary powers available under Rule 20.04(2.1) to grant summary judgment under Rule 20.04(2)(a). Under this test, the "interest of justice"

requires that the new powers be exercised only at trial, unless a motion judge can achieve the "full appreciation" of the evidence and issues required to make dispositive findings on a motion for summary judgment. The motion judge should assess whether the benefits of the trial process, including the opportunity to hear and observe witnesses, to have the evidence presented by way of a trial narrative, and to experience the fact-finding process first-hand, are necessary to fully appreciate the evidence in the case.

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[17] The Court of Appeal suggested that cases requiring multiple factual findings, based on conflicting evidence from a number of witnesses, and involving an extensive record, are generally not fit for determination in this manner. Conversely, cases driven by documents, with few witnesses, and limited contentious factual issues are appropriate candidates for summary judgment.

[18] The Court of Appeal advised motion judges to make use of the power to hear oral evidence, under Rule 20.04(2.2), to hear only from a limited number of witnesses on discrete issues that are determinative of the case.

[19] The Court of Appeal concluded that, given its factual complexity and voluminous record, the Mauldin Group's action was the type of action for which a trial is generally required. There were numerous witnesses, various theories of liability against multiple defendants, serious credibility issues, and an absence of reliable documentary evidence. Moreover, since Hryniak and Peebles had cross-claimed against each other and a trial would nonetheless be required against the other

defendants, summary judgment would not serve the values of better access to justice, proportionality, and cost savings.

[20] Despite concluding that this case was not an appropriate candidate for summary judgment, the Court of Appeal was satisfied that the record supported the finding that Hryniak had committed the tort of civil fraud against the Mauldin Group, and therefore dismissed Hryniak's appeal.

III. Outline

[21] In determining the general principles to be followed with respect to summary judgment, I will begin with the values underlying timely, affordable and fair access to justice. Next, I will turn to the role of summary judgment motions generally and the interpretation of Rule 20 in particular. I will then address specific judicial tools for managing the risks of summary judgment motions.

[22] Finally, I will consider the appropriate standard of review and whether summary judgment should have been granted to the respondents.

IV. Analysis

A. *Access to Civil Justice: A Necessary Culture Shift*

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[23] This appeal concerns the values and choices underlying our civil justice system, and the ability of ordinary Canadians to access that justice. Our civil justice system is premised upon the value that the process of adjudication must be fair and just. This cannot be compromised.

[24] However, undue process and protracted trials, with unnecessary expense and delay, can *prevent* the fair and just resolution of disputes. The full trial has become largely illusory because, except where government funding is available,[1] ordinary Canadians cannot afford to access the adjudication of civil disputes.[2] The cost and delay associated with the traditional process means that, as counsel for the intervener the Advocates' Society (in *Bruno Appliance*) stated at the hearing of this appeal, the trial process denies ordinary people the opportunity to have adjudication. And while going to trial has long been seen as a last resort, other dispute resolution mechanisms such as mediation and settlement are more likely to produce fair and just results when adjudication remains a realistic alternative.

[25] Prompt judicial resolution of legal disputes allows individuals to get on with their lives. But, when court costs and delays become too great, people look for

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[1] For instance, state funding is available in the child welfare context under *G. (J.)* orders even where legal aid is not available (see *New Brunswick (Minister of Health and Community Services) v. G. (J.)*, [1999] 3 S.C.R. 46), or for cases involving certain minority rights (see the Language Rights Support Program).

[2] In M. D. Agrast, J. C. Botero and A. Ponce, the 2011 *Rule of Law Index*, published by the World Justice Project, Canada ranked 9th among 12 European and North American countries in access to justice. Although Canada scored among the top 10 countries in the world in four rule of law categories (limited government powers, order and security, open government, and effective criminal justice), its lowest scores were in access to civil justice. This ranking is "partially explained by shortcomings in the affordability of legal advice and representation, and the lengthy duration of civil cases" (p. 23).

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alternatives or simply give up on justice. Sometimes, they choose to represent themselves, often creating further problems due to their lack of familiarity with the law.

[26] In some circles, private arbitration is increasingly seen as an alternative to a slow judicial process. But private arbitration is not the solution since, without an accessible public forum for the adjudication of disputes, the rule of law is threatened and the development of the common law undermined.

[27] There is growing support for alternative adjudication of disputes and a developing consensus that the traditional balance struck by extensive pre-trial processes and the conventional trial no longer reflects the modern reality and needs to be re-adjusted. A proper balance requires simplified and proportionate procedures for adjudication, and impacts the role of counsel and judges. This balance must recognize that a process can be fair and just, without the expense and delay of a trial, and that alternative models of adjudication are no less legitimate than the conventional trial.

[28] This requires a shift in culture. The principal goal remains the same: a fair process that results in a just adjudication of disputes. A fair and just process must permit a judge to find the facts necessary to resolve the dispute and to apply the relevant legal principles to the facts as found. However, that process is illusory unless it is also accessible — proportionate, timely and affordable. The

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proportionality principle means that the best forum for resolving a dispute is not always that with the most painstaking procedure.

[29] There is, of course, always some tension between accessibility and the truth-seeking function but, much as one would not expect a jury trial over a contested parking ticket, the procedures used to adjudicate civil disputes must fit the nature of the claim. If the process is disproportionate to the nature of the dispute and the interests involved, then it will not achieve a fair and just result.

[30] The proportionality principle is now reflected in many of the provinces' rules and can act as a touchstone for access to civil justice.[3] For example, Ontario Rules 1.04(1) and (1.1) provide:

> **1.04** (1) These rules shall be liberally construed to secure the just, most expeditious and least expensive determination of every civil proceeding on its merits.
>
> (1.1) In applying these rules, the court shall make orders and give directions that are proportionate to the importance and complexity of the issues, and to the amount involved, in the proceeding.

[31] Even where proportionality is not specifically codified, applying rules of court that involve discretion "includes . . . an underlying principle of proportionality which means taking account of the appropriateness of the procedure, its cost and

[3] This principle has been expressly codified in British Columbia, Ontario, and Quebec: *Supreme Court Civil Rules*, B.C. Reg. 168/2009, Rule 1-3(2); Ontario *Rules*, Rule 1.04(1.1); and *Code of Civil Procedure*, R.S.Q., c. C-25, art. 4.2. Aspects of Alberta's and Nova Scotia's rules of court have also been interpreted as reflecting proportionality: *Medicine Shoppe Canada Inc. v. Devchand*, 2012 ABQB 375, 541 A.R. 312, at para. 11; *Saturley v. CIBC World Markets Inc.*, 2011 NSSC 4, 297 N.S.R. (2d) 371, at para. 12.

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impact on the litigation, and its timeliness, given the nature and complexity of the litigation": *Szeto v. Dwyer*, 2010 NLCA 36, 297 Nfld. & P.E.I.R. 311, at para. 53.

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[32] This culture shift requires judges to actively manage the legal process in line with the principle of proportionality. While summary judgment motions can save time and resources, like most pre-trial procedures, they can also slow down the proceedings if used inappropriately. While judges can and should play a role in controlling such risks, counsel must, in accordance with the traditions of their profession, act in a way that facilitates rather than frustrates access to justice. Lawyers should consider their client's limited means and the nature of their case and fashion proportionate means to achieve a fair and just result.

[33] A complex claim may involve an extensive record and a significant commitment of time and expense. However, proportionality is inevitably comparative; even slow and expensive procedures can be proportionate when they are the fastest and most efficient alternative. The question is whether the added expense and delay of fact finding at trial is necessary to a fair process and just adjudication.

B. *Summary Judgment Motions*

[34] The summary judgment motion is an important tool for enhancing access to justice because it can provide a cheaper, faster alternative to a full trial. With the exception of Quebec, all provinces feature a summary judgment mechanism in their

respective rules of civil procedure.[4] Generally, summary judgment is available where there is no genuine issue for trial.

[35] Rule 20 is Ontario's summary judgment procedure, under which a party may move for summary judgment to grant or dismiss all or part of a claim. While Ontario's Rule 20 in some ways goes further than other rules throughout the country, the values and principles underlying its interpretation are of general application.

[36] Rule 20 was amended in 2010, following the recommendations of the Osborne Report, to improve access to justice. These reforms embody the evolution of summary judgment rules from highly restricted tools used to weed out clearly unmeritorious claims or defences to their current status as a legitimate alternative means for adjudicating and resolving legal disputes.

[37] Early summary judgment rules were quite limited in scope and were available only to plaintiffs with claims based on debt or liquidated damages, where no real defence existed.[5] Summary judgment existed to avoid the waste of a full trial in a clear case.

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[4] Quebec has a procedural device for disposing of abusive claims summarily: see arts. 54.1 *et seq.* of the *Code of Civil Procedure*. While this procedural device is narrower on its face, it has been likened to summary judgment: see *Bal Global Finance Canada Corp. v. Aliments Breton (Canada) inc.*, 2010 QCCS 325 (CanLII). Moreover, s. 165(4) of the *Code* provides that the defendant may ask for an action to be dismissed if the suit is "unfounded in law".

[5] For a thorough review of the history of summary judgment in Ontario, see T. Walsh and L. Posloski, "Establishing a Workable Test for Summary Judgment: Are We There Yet?", in T. L. Archibald and R. S. Echlin, eds., *Annual Review of Civil Litigation 2013* (2013), 419, at pp. 422-32.

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[38] In 1985, the then new Rule 20 extended the availability of summary judgement to both plaintiffs and defendants and broadened the scope of cases that could be disposed of on such a motion. The rules were initially interpreted expansively, in line with the purposes of the rule changes.[6] However, appellate jurisprudence limited the powers of judges and effectively narrowed the purpose of motions for summary judgment to merely ensuring that: "claims that have no chance of success [are] weeded out at an early stage".[7]

[39] The Ontario Government commissioned former Ontario Associate Chief Justice Coulter Osborne, Q.C., to consider reforms to make the Ontario civil justice system more accessible and affordable, leading to the report of the Civil Justice Reform Project. The Osborne Report concluded that few summary judgment motions were being brought and, if the summary judgment rule was to work as intended, the appellate jurisprudence that had narrowed the scope and utility of the rule had to be reversed (p. 35). Among other things, it recommended that summary judgment be made more widely available, that judges be given the power to weigh evidence on summary judgment motions, and that judges be given discretion to direct that oral evidence be presented (pp. 35-36).

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[6] Walsh and Posloski, at p. 426; for example, see *Vaughan v. Warner Communications, Inc.* (1986), 56 O.R. (2d) 242 (H.C.J.).

[7] *Canada (Attorney General) v. Lameman*, 2008 SCC 14, [2008] 1 S.C.R. 372, at para. 10.

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[40] The report also recommended the adoption of a summary trial procedure similar to that employed in British Columbia (p. 37). This particular recommendation was not adopted, and the legislature made the choice to maintain summary judgment as the accessible procedure.

[41] Many of the Osborne Report's recommendations were taken up and implemented in 2010. As noted above, the amendments codify the proportionality principle and provide for efficient adjudication when a conventional trial is not required. They offer significant new tools to judges, which allow them to adjudicate more cases through summary judgment motions and attenuate the risks when such motions do not resolve the entire case.

[42] Rule 20.04 now reads in part:[8]

> **20.04** . . .
>
> (2) [General] The court shall grant summary judgment if,
>
> (a) the court is satisfied that there is no genuine issue requiring a trial with respect to a claim or defence; or
>
> (b) the parties agree to have all or part of the claim determined by a summary judgment and the court is satisfied that it is appropriate to grant summary judgment.
>
> (2.1) [Powers] In determining under clause (2)(a) whether there is a genuine issue requiring a trial, the court shall consider the evidence submitted by the parties and, if the determination is being made by a judge, the judge may exercise any of the following powers for the purpose, unless it is in the interest of justice for such powers to be exercised only at a trial:

[8] The full text of Rule 20 is attached as an Appendix.

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1. Weighing the evidence.

2. Evaluating the credibility of a deponent.

3. Drawing any reasonable inference from the evidence.

(2.2) [Oral Evidence (Mini-Trial)] A judge may, for the purposes of exercising any of the powers set out in subrule (2.1), order that oral evidence be presented by one or more parties, with or without time limits on its presentation.

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[43] The Ontario amendments changed the test for summary judgment from asking whether the case presents "a genuine issue for trial" to asking whether there is a "genuine issue requiring a trial". The new rule, with its enhanced fact-finding powers, demonstrates that a trial is not the default procedure. Further, it eliminated the presumption of substantial indemnity costs against a party that brought an unsuccessful motion for summary judgment, in order to avoid deterring the use of the procedure.

[44] The new powers in Rules 20.04(2.1) and (2.2) expand the number of cases in which there will be no genuine issue requiring a trial by permitting motion judges to weigh evidence, evaluate credibility and draw reasonable inferences.[9]

[45] These new fact-finding powers are discretionary and are presumptively available; they may be exercised *unless* it is in the interest of justice for them to be

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[9] As fully canvassed by the Court of Appeal, the powers in Rule 20.04(2.1) were designed specifically to overrule a number of long-standing appellate decisions that had dramatically restricted the use of the rule; *Aguonie v. Galion Solid Waste Material Inc.* (1998), 38 O.R. (3d) 161 (C.A.); *Dawson v. Rexcraft Storage and Warehouse Inc.* (1998), 164 D.L.R. (4th) 257 (Ont. C.A.).

exercised only at a trial; Rule 20.04(2.1). Thus, the amendments are designed to transform Rule 20 from a means to weed out unmeritorious claims to a significant alternative model of adjudication.

[46] I will first consider when summary judgment can be granted on the basis that there is "no genuine issue requiring a trial" (Rule 20.04(2)(a)). Second, I will discuss when it is against the "interest of justice" for the new fact-finding powers in Rule 20.04(2.1) to be used on a summary judgment motion. Third, I will consider the power to call oral evidence and, finally, I will lay out the process to be followed on a motion for summary judgment.

(1) When Is There No Genuine Issue Requiring a Trial?

[47] Summary judgment motions must be granted whenever there is no genuine issue requiring a trial (Rule 20.04(2)(a)). In outlining how to determine whether there is such an issue, I focus on the goals and principles that underlie whether to grant motions for summary judgment. Such an approach allows the application of the rule to evolve organically, lest categories of cases be taken as rules or preconditions which may hinder the system's transformation by discouraging the use of summary judgment.

[48] The Court of Appeal did not explicitly focus upon when there is a genuine issue requiring a trial. However, in considering whether it is against the interest of justice to use the new fact-finding powers, the court suggested that

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summary judgment would most often be appropriate when cases were document driven, with few witnesses and limited contentious factual issues, or when the record could be supplemented by oral evidence on discrete points. These are helpful observations but, as the court itself recognized, should not be taken as delineating firm categories of cases where summary judgment is and is not appropriate. For example, while this case is complex, with a voluminous record, the Court of Appeal ultimately agreed that there was no genuine issue requiring a trial.

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[49] There will be no genuine issue requiring a trial when the judge is able to reach a fair and just determination on the merits on a motion for summary judgment. This will be the case when the process (1) allows the judge to make the necessary findings of fact, (2) allows the judge to apply the law to the facts, and (3) is a proportionate, more expeditious and less expensive means to achieve a just result.

[50] These principles are interconnected and all speak to whether summary judgment will provide a fair and just adjudication. When a summary judgment motion allows the judge to find the necessary facts and resolve the dispute, proceeding to trial would generally not be proportionate, timely or cost effective. Similarly, a process that does not give a judge confidence in her conclusions can never be the proportionate way to resolve a dispute. It bears reiterating that the standard for fairness is not whether the procedure is as exhaustive as a trial, but whether it gives the judge confidence that she can find the necessary facts and apply the relevant legal principles so as to resolve the dispute.

[51] Often, concerns about credibility or clarification of the evidence can be addressed by calling oral evidence on the motion itself. However, there may be cases where, given the nature of the issues and the evidence required, the judge cannot make the necessary findings of fact, or apply the legal principles to reach a just and fair determination.

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(2) The Interest of Justice

[52] The enhanced fact-finding powers granted to motion judges in Rule 20.04(2.1) may be employed on a motion for summary judgment unless it is in the "interest of justice" for them to be exercised only at trial. The "interest of justice" is not defined in the Rules.

[53] To determine whether the interest of justice allowed the motion judge to use her new powers, the Court of Appeal required a motion judge to ask herself "can the full appreciation of the evidence and issues that is required to make dispositive findings be achieved by way of summary judgment, or can this full appreciation only be achieved by way of a trial?" (para. 50).

[54] The Court of Appeal identified the benefits of a trial that contribute to this full appreciation of the evidence: the narrative that counsel can build through trial, the ability of witnesses to speak in their own words, and the assistance of counsel in sifting through the evidence (para. 54).

[55] The respondents, as well as the interveners, the Canadian Bar Association, the Attorney General of Ontario and the Advocates' Society, submit that the Court of Appeal's emphasis on the virtues of the traditional trial is misplaced and unduly restrictive. Further, some of these interveners submit that this approach may result in the creation of categories of cases inappropriate for summary judgment, and this will limit the development of the summary judgment vehicle.

[56] While I agree that a motion judge must have an appreciation of the evidence necessary to make dispositive findings, such an appreciation is not only available at trial. Focussing on how much and what kind of evidence could be adduced at a trial, as opposed to whether a trial is "requir[ed]" as the Rule directs, is likely to lead to the bar being set too high. The interest of justice cannot be limited to the advantageous features of a conventional trial, and must account for proportionality, timeliness and affordability. Otherwise, the adjudication permitted with the new powers — and the purpose of the amendments — would be frustrated.

[57] On a summary judgment motion, the evidence need not be equivalent to that at trial, but must be such that the judge is confident that she can fairly resolve the dispute. A documentary record, particularly when supplemented by the new fact-finding tools, including ordering oral testimony, is often sufficient to resolve material issues fairly and justly. The powers provided in Rules 20.04(2.1) and (2.2) can provide an equally valid, if less extensive, manner of fact finding.

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[58] This inquiry into the interest of justice is, by its nature, comparative. Proportionality is assessed in relation to the full trial. It may require the motion judge to assess the relative efficiencies of proceeding by way of summary judgment, as opposed to trial. This would involve a comparison of, among other things, the cost and speed of both procedures. (Although summary judgment may be expensive and time consuming, as in this case, a trial may be even more expensive and slower.) It may also involve a comparison of the evidence that will be available at trial and on the motion as well as the opportunity to fairly evaluate it. (Even if the evidence available on the motion is limited, there may be no reason to think better evidence would be available at trial.)

[59] In practice, whether it is against the "interest of justice" to use the new fact-finding powers will often coincide with whether there is a "genuine issue requiring a trial". It is logical that, when the use of the new powers would enable a judge to fairly and justly adjudicate a claim, it will generally not be against the interest of justice to do so. What is fair and just turns on the nature of the issues, the nature and strength of the evidence and what is the proportional procedure.

[60] The "interest of justice" inquiry goes further, and also considers the consequences of the motion in the context of the litigation as a whole. For example, if some of the claims against some of the parties will proceed to trial in any event, it may not be in the interest of justice to use the new fact-finding powers to grant summary judgment against a single defendant. Such partial summary judgment may

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run the risk of duplicative proceedings or inconsistent findings of fact and therefore the use of the powers may not be in the interest of justice. On the other hand, the resolution of an important claim against a key party could significantly advance access to justice, and be the most proportionate, timely and cost effective approach.

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(3) The Power to Hear Oral Evidence

[61] Under Rule 20.04(2.2), the motion judge is given the power to hear oral evidence to assist her in making findings under Rule 20.04(2.1). The decision to allow oral evidence rests with the motion judge since, as the Court of Appeal noted, "it is the motion judge, not counsel, who maintains control over the extent of the evidence to be led and the issues to which the evidence is to be directed" (para. 60).

[62] The Court of Appeal suggested the motion judge should only exercise this power when

> (1) oral evidence can be obtained from a small number of witnesses and gathered in a manageable period of time;
>
> (2) any issue to be dealt with by presenting oral evidence is likely to have a significant impact on whether the summary judgment motion is granted; and
>
> (3) any such issue is narrow and discrete — *i.e.*, the issue can be separately decided and is not enmeshed with other issues on the motion. [para. 103]

This is useful guidance to ensure that the hearing of oral evidence does not become unmanageable; however, as the Court of Appeal recognized, these are not absolute rules.

[63] This power should be employed when it allows the judge to reach a fair and just adjudication on the merits and it is the proportionate course of action. While this is more likely to be the case when the oral evidence required is limited, there will be cases where extensive oral evidence can be heard on the motion for summary judgment, avoiding the need for a longer, more complex trial and without compromising the fairness of the procedure.

[64] Where a party seeks to lead oral evidence, it should be prepared to demonstrate why such evidence would assist the motion judge in weighing the evidence, assessing credibility, or drawing inferences and to provide a "will say" statement or other description of the proposed evidence so that the judge will have a basis for setting the scope of the oral evidence.

[65] Thus, the power to call oral evidence should be used to promote the fair and just resolution of the dispute in light of principles of proportionality, timeliness and affordability. In tailoring the nature and extent of oral evidence that will be heard, the motion judge should be guided by these principles, and remember that the process is not a full trial on the merits but is designed to determine if there is a genuine issue requiring a trial.

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(4) The Roadmap/Approach to a Motion for Summary Judgment

[66] On a motion for summary judgment under Rule 20.04, the judge should first determine if there is a genuine issue requiring trial based only on the evidence before her, *without* using the new fact-finding powers. There will be no genuine issue requiring a trial if the summary judgment process provides her with the evidence required to fairly and justly adjudicate the dispute and is a timely, affordable and proportionate procedure, under Rule 20.04(2)(a). If there appears to be a genuine issue requiring a trial, she should then determine if the need for a trial can be avoided by using the new powers under Rules 20.04(2.1) and (2.2). She may, at her discretion, use those powers, provided that their use is not against the interest of justice. Their use will not be against the interest of justice if they will lead to a fair and just result and will serve the goals of timeliness, affordability and proportionality in light of the litigation as a whole.

[67] Inquiring first as to whether the use of the powers under Rule 20.04(2.1) will allow the dispute to be resolved by way of summary judgment, before asking whether the interest of justice requires that those powers be exercised only at trial, emphasizes that these powers are presumptively available, rather than exceptional, in line with the goal of proportionate, cost-effective and timely dispute resolution. As well, by first determining the consequences of using the new powers, the benefit of their use is clearer. This will assist in determining whether it is in the interest of justice that they be exercised only at trial.

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[68] While summary judgment *must* be granted if there is no genuine issue requiring a trial,[10] the decision to use either the expanded fact-finding powers or to call oral evidence is discretionary.[11] The discretionary nature of this power gives the judge some flexibility in deciding the appropriate course of action. This discretion can act as a safety valve in cases where the use of such powers would clearly be inappropriate. There is always the risk that clearly unmeritorious motions for summary judgment could be abused and used tactically to add time and expense. In such cases, the motion judge may choose to decline to exercise her discretion to use those powers and dismiss the motion for summary judgment, without engaging in the full inquiry delineated above.

C. *Tools to Maximize the Efficiency of a Summary Judgment Motion*

(1) Controlling the Scope of a Summary Judgment Motion

[69] The Ontario *Rules* and a superior court's inherent jurisdiction permit a motion judge to be involved early in the life of a motion, in order to control the size of the record, and to remain active in the event the motion does not resolve the entire action.

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[10] Rule 20.04(2): "The court shall grant summary judgment if, (a) the court is satisfied that there is no genuine issue requiring a trial . . ."

[11] Rule 20.04(2.1): "In determining . . . whether there is a genuine issue requiring a trial . . . if the determination is being made by a judge, the judge may exercise any of the following powers . . . 1. Weighing the evidence. 2. Evaluating the credibility of a deponent. 3. Drawing any reasonable inference from the evidence." Rule 20.04(2.2): "A judge may . . . order that oral evidence be presented . . ."

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[70] The Rules provide for early judicial involvement, through Rule 1.05, which allows for a motion for directions, to manage the time and cost of the summary judgment motion. This allows a judge to provide directions with regard to the timelines for filing affidavits, the length of cross-examination, and the nature and amount of evidence that will be filed. However, motion judges must also be cautious not to impose administrative measures that add an unnecessary layer of cost.

[71] Not all motions for summary judgment will require a motion for directions. However, failure to bring such a motion where it was evident that the record would be complex or voluminous may be considered when dealing with costs consequences under Rule 20.06(a). In line with the principle of proportionality, the judge hearing the motion for directions should generally be seized of the summary judgment motion itself, ensuring the knowledge she has developed about the case does not go to waste.

[72] I agree with the Court of Appeal (at paras. 58 and 258) that a motion for directions also provides the responding party with the opportunity to seek an order to stay or dismiss a premature or improper motion for summary judgment. This may be appropriate to challenge lengthy, complex motions, particularly on the basis that they would not sufficiently advance the litigation, or serve the principles of proportionality, timeliness and affordability.

[73] A motion for summary judgment will not always be the most proportionate way to dispose of an action. For example, an early date may be

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available for a short trial, or the parties may be prepared to proceed with a summary trial. Counsel should always be mindful of the most proportionate procedure for their client and the case.

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(2) Salvaging a Failed Summary Judgment Motion

[74] Failed, or even partially successful, summary judgment motions add — sometimes astronomically — to costs and delay. However, this risk can be attenuated by a judge who makes use of the trial management powers provided in Rule 20.05 and the court's inherent jurisdiction.

[75] Rules 20.05(1) and (2) provide in part:

> **20.05** (1) Where summary judgment is refused or is granted only in part, the court may make an order specifying what material facts are not in dispute and defining the issues to be tried, and order that the action proceed to trial expeditiously.
>
> (2) If an action is ordered to proceed to trial under subrule (1), the court may give such directions or impose such terms as are just . . . .

[76] Rules 20.05(2)(a) through (p) outline a number of specific trial management orders that may be appropriate. The court may: set a schedule; provide a restricted discovery plan; set a trial date; require payment into court of the claim; or order security for costs. The court may order that: the parties deliver a concise summary of their opening statement; the parties deliver a written summary of the anticipated evidence of a witness; any oral examination of a witness at trial will be

subject to a time limit or; the evidence of a witness be given in whole or in part by affidavit.

[77] These powers allow the judge to use the insight she gained from hearing the summary judgment motion to craft a trial procedure that will resolve the dispute in a way that is sensitive to the complexity and importance of the issue, the amount involved in the case, and the effort expended on the failed motion. The motion judge should look to the summary trial as a model, particularly where affidavits filed could serve as the evidence of a witness, subject to time-limited examinations and cross-examinations. Although the Rules did not adopt the Osborne Report's recommendation of a summary trial model, this model already exists under the simplified rules or on consent. In my view, the summary trial model would also be available further to the broad powers granted to a judge under Rule 20.05(2).

[78] Where a motion judge dismisses a motion for summary judgment, in the absence of compelling reasons to the contrary, she should also seize herself of the matter as the trial judge. I agree with the Osborne Report that the involvement of a single judicial officer throughout

> saves judicial time since parties will not have to get a different judge up to speed each time an issue arises in the case. It may also have a calming effect on the conduct of litigious parties and counsel, as they will come to predict how the judicial official assigned to the case might rule on a given issue. [p. 88]

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[79] While such an approach may complicate scheduling, to the extent that current scheduling practices prevent summary judgment motions being used in an efficient and cost effective manner, the courts should be prepared to change their practices in order to facilitate access to justice.

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D. *Standard of Review*

[80] The Court of Appeal concluded that determining the appropriate test for summary judgment — whether there is a genuine issue requiring a trial — is a legal question, reviewable on a correctness standard, while any factual determinations made by the motion judge will attract deference.

[81] In my view, absent an error of law, the exercise of powers under the new summary judgment rule attracts deference. When the motion judge exercises her new fact-finding powers under Rule 20.04(2.1) and determines whether there is a genuine issue requiring a trial, this is a question of mixed fact and law. Where there is no extricable error in principle, findings of mixed fact and law should not be overturned absent palpable and overriding error: *Housen v. Nikolaisen*, 2002 SCC 33, [2002] 2 S.C.R. 235, at para. 36.

[82] Similarly, the question of whether it is in the "interest of justice" for the motion judge to exercise the new fact-finding powers provided by Rule 20.04(2.1) depends on the relative evidence available at the summary judgment motion and at

trial, the nature, size, complexity and cost of the dispute and other contextual factors. Such a decision is also a question of mixed fact and law which attracts deference.

[83] Provided that it is not against the "interest of justice", a motion judge's decision to exercise the new powers is discretionary. Thus, unless the motion judge misdirected herself, or came to a decision that is so clearly wrong that it resulted in an injustice, her decision should not be disturbed.

[84] Of course, where the motion judge applies an incorrect principle of law, or errs with regard to a purely legal question, such as the elements that must be proved for the plaintiff to make out her cause of action, the decision will be reviewed on a correctness standard: *Housen*, at para. 8.

E. *Did the Motion Judge Err by Granting Summary Judgment?*

[85] The motion judge granted summary judgment in favour of the Mauldin Group. While the Court of Appeal found that the action should not have been decided by summary judgment, it nevertheless dismissed the appeal. Hryniak argues this constituted "prospective overruling" but, in light of my conclusion that the motion judge was entitled to proceed by summary judgment, I need not consider these submissions further. For the reasons that follow, I am satisfied that the motion judge did not err in granting summary judgment.

(1) The Tort of Civil Fraud

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[86] The action underlying this motion for summary judgment was one for civil fraud brought against Hryniak, Peebles, and Cassels Brock.

[87] As discussed in the companion *Bruno Appliance* appeal, the tort of civil fraud has four elements, which must be proven on a balance of probabilities: (1) a false representation by the defendant; (2) some level of knowledge of the falsehood of the representation on the part of the defendant (whether knowledge or recklessness); (3) the false representation caused the plaintiff to act; (4) the plaintiff's actions resulted in a loss.

(2) Was There a Genuine Issue Requiring a Trial?

[88] In granting summary judgment to the Mauldin Group against Hryniak, the motion judge did not explicitly address the correct test for civil fraud but, like the Court of Appeal, I am satisfied that his findings support that result.

[89] The first element of civil fraud is a false representation by the defendant. The Court of Appeal agreed with the motion judge that "[u]nquestionably, the Mauldin group was induced to invest with Hryniak because of what Hryniak said to Fred Mauldin" at the meeting of June 19, 2001 (at para. 158), and this was not disputed in the appellant's factum.

[90] The motion judge found the requisite knowledge or recklessness as to the falsehood of the representation, the second element of civil fraud, based on Hryniak's

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lack of effort to ensure that the funds would be properly invested and failure to verify that the eventual end-point of the funds, New Savings Bank, was secure. The motion judge also rejected the defence that the funds were stolen, noting Hryniak's feeble efforts to recover the funds, waiting some 15 months to report the apparent theft of US$10.2 million.

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[91] The motion judge also found an intention on the part of Hryniak that the Mauldin Group would act on his false representations, the third requirement of civil fraud. Hryniak secured a US$76,000 loan for Fred Mauldin and conducted a "test trade", actions which, in the motion judge's view, were "undertaken . . . for the purpose of dissuading the Mauldin group from demanding the return of its investment" (para. 113). Moreover, the motion judge detailed Hryniak's central role in the web of deception that caused the Mauldin Group to invest its funds and that dissuaded them from seeking their return for some time after they had been stolen.

[92] The final requirement of civil fraud, loss, is clearly present. The Mauldin Group invested US$1.2 million and, but for a small return of US$9,600 in February 2002, lost its investment.

[93] The motion judge found no credible evidence to support Hryniak's claim that he was a legitimate trader, and the outcome was therefore clear, so the motion judge concluded there was no issue requiring a trial. He made no palpable and overriding error in granting summary judgment.

(3) Did the Interest of Justice Preclude the Motion Judge From Using His Powers Under Rule 20.04?

[94] The motion judge did not err in exercising his fact-finding powers under Rule 20.04(2.1). He was prepared to sift through the detailed record, and was of the view that sufficient evidence had been presented on all relevant points to allow him to draw the inferences necessary to make dispositive findings under Rule 20. Further, while the amount involved is significant, the issues raised by Hryniak's defence were fairly straightforward. As the Court of Appeal noted, at root, the question turned on whether Hryniak had a legitimate trading program that went awry when the funds were stolen, or whether his program was a sham from the outset (para. 159). The plaintiffs are a group of elderly American investors and, at the return date of the motion, had been deprived of their funds for nearly a decade. The record was sufficient to make a fair and just determination and a timely resolution of the matter was called for. While the motion was complex and expensive, going to trial would have cost even more and taken even longer.

[95] Despite the fact that the Mauldin Group's claims against Peebles and Cassels Brock had to proceed to trial, there is little reason to believe that granting summary judgment against Hryniak would have a prejudicial impact on the trial of the remaining issues. While the extent of the other defendants' involvement in the fraud requires a trial, that matter is not predetermined by the conclusion that Hryniak clearly was *a* perpetrator of the fraud. The motion judge's findings speak specifically to Hryniak's involvement and neither rely upon, nor are inconsistent with, the liability

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of others. His findings were clearly supported by the evidence. It was neither against the interest of justice for the motion judge to use his fact-finding powers nor was his discretionary decision to do so tainted with error.

V. Conclusion

[96] Accordingly, I would dismiss the appeal, with costs to the respondents.

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APPENDIX

Rules of Civil Procedure, R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 194

RULE 20 SUMMARY JUDGMENT

20.01 [Where Available] (1) [To Plaintiff] A plaintiff may, after the defendant has delivered a statement of defence or served a notice of motion, move with supporting affidavit material or other evidence for summary judgment on all or part of the claim in the statement of claim.

(2) The plaintiff may move, without notice, for leave to serve a notice of motion for summary judgment together with the statement of claim, and leave may be given where special urgency is shown, subject to such directions as are just.

(3) [To Defendant] A defendant may, after delivering a statement of defence, move with supporting affidavit material or other evidence for summary judgment dismissing all or part of the claim in the statement of claim.

20.02 [Evidence on Motion] (1) An affidavit for use on a motion for summary judgment may be made on information and belief as provided in subrule 39.01(4), but, on the hearing of the motion, the court may, if appropriate, draw an adverse inference from the failure of a party to provide the evidence of any person having personal knowledge of contested facts.

(2) In response to affidavit material or other evidence supporting a motion for summary judgment, a responding party may not rest solely on the allegations or denials in the party's pleadings, but must set out, in affidavit material or other evidence, specific facts showing that there is a genuine issue requiring a trial.

20.03 [Factums Required] (1) On a motion for summary judgment, each party shall serve on every other party to the motion a factum consisting of a concise argument stating the facts and law relied on by the party.

(2) The moving party's factum shall be served and filed with proof of service in the court office where the motion is to be heard at least seven days before the hearing.

(3) The responding party's factum shall be served and filed with proof of service in the court office where the motion is to be heard at least four days before the hearing.

(4) Revoked.

20.04 [Disposition of Motion] (1) [General] Revoked.

(2) The court shall grant summary judgment if,

(a) the court is satisfied that there is no genuine issue requiring a trial with respect to a claim or defence; or

(b) the parties agree to have all or part of the claim determined by a summary judgment and the court is satisfied that it is appropriate to grant summary judgment.

(2.1) [Powers] In determining under clause (2)(a) whether there is a genuine issue requiring a trial, the court shall consider the evidence submitted by the parties and, if the determination is being made by a judge, the judge may exercise any of the following powers for the purpose, unless it is in the interest of justice for such powers to be exercised only at a trial:

1. Weighing the evidence.

2. Evaluating the credibility of a deponent.

3. Drawing any reasonable inference from the evidence.

(2.2) [Oral Evidence (Mini-Trial)] A judge may, for the purposes of exercising any of the powers set out in subrule (2.1), order that oral evidence be presented by one or more parties, with or without time limits on its presentation.

(3) [Only Genuine Issue Is Amount] Where the court is satisfied that the only genuine issue is the amount to which the moving party is entitled, the court may order a trial of that issue or grant judgment with a reference to determine the amount.

(4) [Only Genuine Issue Is Question Of Law] Where the court is satisfied that the only genuine issue is a question of law, the court may determine the question and grant judgment accordingly, but where the motion is made to a master, it shall be adjourned to be heard by a judge.

(5) [Only Claim Is For An Accounting] Where the plaintiff is the moving party and claims an accounting and the defendant fails to satisfy the court that there is a preliminary issue to be tried, the court may grant judgment on the claim with a reference to take the accounts.

20.05 [Where Trial Is Necessary] (1) [Powers of Court] Where summary judgment is refused or is granted only in part, the court may make an order specifying what material facts are not in dispute and defining the issues to be tried, and order that the action proceed to trial expeditiously.

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(2) [Directions And Terms] If an action is ordered to proceed to trial under subrule (1), the court may give such directions or impose such terms as are just, including an order,

(a) that each party deliver, within a specified time, an affidavit of documents in accordance with the court's directions;

(b) that any motions be brought within a specified time;

(c) that a statement setting out what material facts are not in dispute be filed within a specified time;

(d) that examinations for discovery be conducted in accordance with a discovery plan established by the court, which may set a schedule for examinations and impose such limits on the right of discovery as are just, including a limit on the scope of discovery to matters not covered by the affidavits or any other evidence filed on the motion and any cross-examinations on them;

(e) that a discovery plan agreed to by the parties under Rule 29.1 (discovery plan) be amended;

(f) that the affidavits or any other evidence filed on the motion and any cross-examinations on them may be used at trial in the same manner as an examination for discovery;

(g) that any examination of a person under Rule 36 (taking evidence before trial) be subject to a time limit;

(h) that a party deliver, within a specified time, a written summary of the anticipated evidence of a witness;

(i) that any oral examination of a witness at trial be subject to a time limit;

(j) that the evidence of a witness be given in whole or in part by affidavit;

(k) that any experts engaged by or on behalf of the parties in relation to the action meet on a without prejudice basis in order to identify the issues on which the experts agree and the issues on which they do not agree, to attempt to clarify and resolve any issues that are the subject of disagreement and to prepare a joint statement setting out the areas of agreement and any areas of disagreement and the reasons for it if, in the opinion of the court, the cost or time savings or other benefits that may be achieved from the meeting are proportionate to the amounts at stake or the importance of the issues involved in the case and,

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(i) there is a reasonable prospect for agreement on some or all of the issues, or

(ii) the rationale for opposing expert opinions is unknown and clarification on areas of disagreement would assist the parties or the court;

(l) that each of the parties deliver a concise summary of his or her opening statement;

(m) that the parties appear before the court by a specified date, at which appearance the court may make any order that may be made under this subrule;

(n) that the action be set down for trial on a particular date or on a particular trial list, subject to the direction of the regional senior judge;

(o) for payment into court of all or part of the claim; and

(p) for security for costs.

(3) [Specified Facts] At the trial, any facts specified under subrule (1) or clause (2)(c) shall be deemed to be established unless the trial judge orders otherwise to prevent injustice.

(4) [Order re Affidavit Evidence] In deciding whether to make an order under clause (2)(j), the fact that an adverse party may reasonably require the attendance of the deponent at trial for cross-examination is a relevant consideration.

(5) [Order re Experts, Costs] If an order is made under clause (2)(k), each party shall bear his or her own costs.

(6) [Failure To Comply With Order] Where a party fails to comply with an order under clause (2)(o) for payment into court or under clause (2)(p) for security for costs, the court on motion of the opposite party may dismiss the action, strike out the statement of defence or make such other order as is just.

(7) Where on a motion under subrule (6) the statement of defence is struck out, the defendant shall be deemed to be noted in default.

20.06 [Costs Sanctions For Improper Use Of Rule] The court may fix and order payment of the costs of a motion for summary judgment by a party on a substantial indemnity basis if,

(a) the party acted unreasonably by making or responding to the motion; or

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(b) the party acted in bad faith for the purpose of delay.

20.07 [Effect Of Summary Judgment] A plaintiff who obtains summary judgment may proceed against the same defendant for any other relief.

20.08 [Stay Of Execution] Where it appears that the enforcement of a summary judgment ought to be stayed pending the determination of any other issue in the action or a counterclaim, crossclaim or third party claim, the court may so order on such terms as are just.

20.09 [Application To Counterclaims, Crossclaims And Third Party Claims] Rules 20.01 to 20.08 apply, with necessary modifications, to counterclaims, crossclaims and third party claims.

Appeal dismissed with costs.

Solicitors for the appellant: McCarthy Tétrault, Toronto.

Solicitors for the respondents: Heydary Hamilton, Toronto.

Solicitors for the intervener the Ontario Trial Lawyers Association: Allan Rouben, Toronto; SBMB Law, Richmond Hill, Ontario.

Solicitors for the intervener the Canadian Bar Association: Evans Sweeny Bordin, Hamilton; Sotos, Toronto.

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TAB 7

COURT OF APPEAL FOR ONTARIO

CITATION: Royal Bank of Canada v. Hejna, 2014 ONCA 306
DATE: 20140417
DOCKET: C56944

2014 ONCA 306 (CanLII)

Blair, Epstein and van Rensburg JJ.A.

BETWEEN

Royal Bank of Canada

Respondent/Plaintiff

and

Roland Hejna

Appellant/Defendant

Robert A. Klotz, for the appellant

Martin Greenglass for the respondent

Heard: April 16, 2014

On appeal from the judgment of Justice Susan E. Healey of the Superior Court of Justice, dated March 21, 2013.

APPEAL BOOK ENDORSEMENT

[1] Mr. Hejna seeks to set aside a summary judgment granted by Healey J. awarding RBC approximately $6 million and declaring that the judgment was a judgment in fraud and therefore survives Mr. Hejna's discharge from bankruptcy.

[2] The central issue on the appeal turns on the appellant's argument that he did not receive proper production from the bank, and that the record was

therefore insufficient on which to base a summary judgement because it was necessary for the trial judge to find that the appellant had the necessary intent for fraud.

[3] What was involved was essentially a large cheque-kiting scheme, which the appellant defends on the basis that what took place was at least implicitly authorized or permitted by the bank.

[4] The motion judge reviewed the record and evaluated the evidence on the basis of the "full appreciation" test set out in *Combined Air Mechanical Services Inc. v. Flesch*, 2011 ONCA 764.

[5] Leaving aside the issue of production, which raises a question of law, we are not satisfied that the motion judge erred in her findings based on the application of *Combined Air*. The more recent decision of the Supreme Court of Canada in *Hryniak v. Mauldin*, 2014 SCC 7 limits our ability to review the decision on issues of fact or of mixed fact and law even further.

[6] We do not accept the argument founded on the bank's alleged failure to make adequate production. There is a long history to this litigation, including an earlier successful appeal to this court setting aside an earlier default judgment, and much has been said about who is to blame for what periods of delay. Suffice it to say, however, that the appellant had over six years to bring a production motion that would force the issue and enable him "to put his best foot forward" as

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required by the jurisprudence. The reality is that no such motion was brought until the late afternoon of two days before the summary judgment motion was to be heard (the second summary judgment date made *peremptory* to the appellant). We see no error in the motion judge's decision not to accept the motion, in the circumstances. There was no request for an adjournment.

[7] In conclusion, the motion judge's decision was amply supported on the record with respect to each of the issues of liability, fraud and production. The appeal is therefore dismissed.

[8] Costs of the appeal to the respondent fixed at $31,231.53 all-inclusive on a substantial indemnity scale given the allegation of fraud.

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TAB 8

COURT OF APPEAL FOR ONTARIO

CITATION: Rajmohan v. Norman H. Solmon Family Trust, 2014 ONCA 352
DATE: 20140505
DOCKET: C57972

2014 ONCA 352 (CanLII)

Juriansz, Tulloch and Strathy JJ.A.

BETWEEN

Rajadurai Rajmohan

Plaintiff

and

Norman H. Solmon Family Trust and Norman Harry Solmon

Defendants (Appellant)

and

Dilani Gunarajah and Therese Selvamahal Edward Chandran as trustee of the Estate of Thambirajah Edward Chandran

Third Parties (Respondent)

Cameron J. Wetmore, for the appellant

Charles Sinclair, for respondent

Heard: April 28, 2014

On appeal from the order of Justice Victoria R. Chiappetta of the Superior Court of Justice, dated October 21, 2013.

ENDORSEMENT

[1] The appellant appeals from the order of the motion judge dismissing its third party claim against the respondent on a motion for summary judgment. The appellant is the assignee of mortgages that the plaintiff granted to the late Norman Solmon. The respondent is the estate trustee of the late Mr. Chandran, who acted for Mr. Solmon on the mortgages. Mr. Chandran also acted for the mortgagors on the transaction. More than two years after the death of Mr. Chandran, the appellant filed its third party claim alleging solicitor's negligence. The motion judge dismissed that claim on the basis that it was time-barred by s. 38 (3) of the *Trustee Act*, R.S.O. 1990, c. T.23. Section 38 (3) of the *Trustee Act* provides that an action against an executor or administrator of a deceased person shall not be brought more than two years after the death of the deceased.

[2] Before the motion judge, the parties agreed that the *Trustee Act* would bar the appellant's third party claim unless either of the doctrines of fraudulent concealment or special circumstances applied. The motion judge determined that neither of these doctrines applied. For the reasons that follow, we would dismiss the appeal.

A. FRAUDULENT CONCEALMENT

[3] The motion judge carefully considered the rationale and requirements of the doctrine of fraudulent concealment as set out by this court in *Giroux Estate v. Trillium Health Centre* (2005), 74 O.R. (3d) 341 (C.A.), aff'g (2004), 69 O.R. (3d)

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689 (S.C.). Justice Moldaver stated, at para. 29, that the doctrine prevents "unscrupulous defendants who stand in a special relationship with the injured party from using a limitation provision as an instrument of fraud". As the motion judge observed in *Giroux*, three elements must be established to make out the doctrine:

a) the defendant and plaintiff are engaged in a special relationship with one another;

b) given the special or confidential nature of the relationship, the defendant's conduct amounts to an unconscionable thing for the one to do to the other; and

c) the defendant conceals the plaintiff's right of action (either actively, or as a result of the manner in which the act that gave rise to the right of action is performed).

[4] In the circumstances of the present case, the motion judge was satisfied that the solicitor-client relationship between Mr. Solmon and Mr. Chandran was sufficient to qualify as a "special relationship" within the meaning of *Giroux*. She also found that Mr. Chandran's omissions were only apparent on a review of his file and so the concealment requirement was satisfied as well. However, she found the unconscionability requirement was not met because Mr. Chandan's conduct was merely negligent and she would not characterize it as unconscionable.

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[5] On appeal, the appellant submits that Mr. Chandran's negligent conduct flowed from a breach of his fiduciary duties to Mr. Solmon, and the serious breach of his fiduciary duties rendered his conduct unconscionable. The appellant argues that Mr. Chandran breached his fiduciary duty to Mr. Solmon by failing to obtain his written consent to the dual retainer as well as to the advancement of the mortgage funds when the conditions stipulated in Mr. Solmon's written instructions had not been satisfied.

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[6] The argument, while effectively advanced, founders on the motion judge's findings of fact. The motion judge found that Mr. Solmon probably gave verbal approval to both the dual retainer and the advancement of the funds. Given these findings of fact, the motion judge was entitled to characterize Mr. Chandran's conduct in the circumstances as negligent, but not unconscionable.

[7] Further, we do not accept the appellant's alternative argument that these findings of fact reflect overriding and palpable errors by the motion judge. We cannot interfere with the inferences that the motion judge drew from the manner in which Mr. Chandran and Mr. Solmon had worked together in earlier transactions, and Mr. Solmon's considerable experience in the lending business. The Supreme Court, in *Hryniak v. Mauldin*, 2014 SCC 7, has recently stressed that deference is owed to a motion judge's findings of fact as well as findings of mixed fact and law made on summary judgment.

[8] The appellant further submits that the delay it experienced in gaining access to Mr. Solmon's client file constitutes a further breach of Mr. Chandran's fiduciary duties. Counsel argued that Mr. Chandran failed to obtain Mr. Solmon's written consent before leaving the file with the solicitor who took over Mr. Chandran's practice upon his retirement. We agree with the motion judge that the delay in making the file available was occasioned by the new solicitor's unilateral action. Neither Mr. Chandran nor the estate trustee caused that delay.

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[9] We are not persuaded that the motion judge made any reversible error in concluding the doctrine of fraudulent concealment did not apply in the circumstances of this case.

B. SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES

[10] The applicable limitation period is prescribed by the *Trustee Act* and not the *Limitations Act, 2002*, S.O. 2002, c. 24, Sch. B. The appellant submits the doctrine of special circumstances continues to be available and permits the court to add parties to an existing action after the expiration of the limitation period. Thus, it argues that because the plaintiff's action was commenced within two years of Mr. Chandran's death, the court could allow it to institute its third party claim after the expiration of two years. We do not agree. A third party claim is itself an action under the *Rules of Civil Procedure*, R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 194, s. 1.03(1). The doctrine of special circumstances, if it applies, does not allow a

party to commence a third party claim after the expiration of a limitation period: *Joseph v. Paramount Canada's Wonderland*, 2008 ONCA 469, 90 O.R. (3d) 401, at para. 28.

C. CONCLUSION

[11] The appeal is dismissed. The respondent's costs are fixed in the amount of $8000 all-inclusive, as agreed by counsel.

"R.G. Juriansz J.A."
"M. Tulloch J.A."
"G.R. Strathy J.A."

2014 ONCA 352 (CanLII)

TAB 9

Canadian Contractual Interpretation Law

SECOND EDITION

Geoff R. Hall
B.A. (McGill), M.A., LL.B. (Toronto), LL.M. (Harvard)

Partner, McCarthy Tétrault LLP

Gutierrez v. Tropic International Ltd.,[183] an alleged collateral agreement (referred to in the case as the "Collateral Agreement") was found to have been excluded by an entire agreement clause because of the relevant chronology:

> Their own evidence indicates that the Collateral Agreement was made prior to the date of execution of the Redemption Agreement and the Guarantee. Thus, even if the evidence concerning the Collateral Agreement is accepted at trial, it is no answer to the express language of the integration clause subsequently agreed upon in the Redemption Agreement. Moreover, its reconfirmation after execution of the Redemption Agreement and the Guarantee, if proven, does not alter the fact that *after* entering into the Collateral Agreement the parties agreed to an overriding contractual integration clause.[184] [Emphasis in original.]

While there is a certain logic to limiting entire agreement clauses to pre-contracting events in that a party can hardly be expected to be able to know what future events will occur, a chronological approach can severely undermine an intention to have the parties' relationship defined solely by the terms of a written document. This is particularly the case if there is an ongoing business relationship after a contract is executed, because many post-contracting events could be found to be representations or collateral agreements giving rise to liability not created by the contract itself.

8.10.4 Entire agreement clauses will not prevail over an oral agreement where the written document was not intended to encompass the parties' complete relationship

Related to the principle that an entire agreement clause applies only to events which have already occurred at the time of contracting is the well-accepted notion that an entire agreement clause will not prevail over an oral agreement (especially a subsequent oral agreement) where the written agreement was not intended to encompass the entire relationship between the parties:

> To be sure, courts have not always given effect to entire agreement clauses. See, for example, P.M. Perell, "A Riddle Inside an Enigma: The Entire Agreement Clause" (1998) 20 Advocates' Q. 287; *Shelanu Inc. v. Print Three Franchising Corp.* (2003), 64 O.R. (3d) 533, 226 D.L.R. (4th) 577 (C.A.). But they have not done so where, for example, *after signing a written contract, parties have entered into an oral agreement and by their conduct have shown that they did not intend to be bound by their previous written contract.*[185] [Emphasis added.]

A good example of the application of this principle is *Turner v. Visscher Holdings Inc.*[186] The parties executed a written agreement including an entire agreement clause. That contract was then followed by two oral agreements. The

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183 [2002] O.J. No. 3079, 63 O.R. (3d) 63 (Ont. C.A.).

184 *Ibid.*, at para. 24.

185 *Transamerica Life Canada Inc. v. ING Canada Inc.*, [2003] O.J. No. 4656, 68 O.R. (3d) 457 at para. 96 (Ont. C.A.), *per* Laskin J.A., dissenting in part.

court found the parties to have conducted themselves in accordance with the two collateral agreements, and concluded that they had evidenced a clear intention not to have the written document encompass all of their contractual relations, notwithstanding the entire agreement clause it contained.

While in theory it is easy to state that a subsequent collateral contract should not be excluded by a prior entire agreement clause if the parties did not intend the written agreement to encompass their whole relationship, the application of this theory in practice has created very inconsistent results. *Turner v. Visscher Holdings Inc.* was a split decision, and in *MacMillan v. Kaiser Equipment Ltd.*[187] the same court refused to follow the majority decision and instead applied the dissent to enforce the entire agreement clause in that case:

> In my view both Turner, supra, and Zippy Print, supra, are distinguishable on their facts. In Turner, the parties acted on a collateral agreement, and by doing so, gave every indication that the written agreement containing the entire agreement clause did not actually constitute the entire agreement. Similarly, in Zippy Print, it was clear that the oral representations were made in order to induce the defendants to enter into the written contract and that the defendants relied on those representations.[188]

8.10.5 Entire agreement clauses will not exclude false representations which induced entry into the contract

In *Zippy Print Enterprises Ltd. v. Pawliuk*,[189] the British Columbia Court of Appeal refused to enforce an entire agreement clause in the face of misrepresentations that had induced the party receiving the representations to enter into the contract. The court began its analysis with the proposition that the parol evidence rule cannot be used to exclude a misrepresentation that induces a party to enter into a contract:

> In short, apart from the application of an exclusion clause, a commercial enterprise cannot make an intentional oral representation designed to persuade a customer or other party to enter into a standard form contract of adhesion and then, by invoking the Parol Evidence Rule, rely on the fact that the contract is in writing to escape liability flowing from the fact that the representation is untrue. In those circumstances the oral representation will be regarded as forming an essential element in the relations between the parties, either on the basis that the written document was not intended to form the entire agreement between the parties (the one contract theory), or, alternatively, on the basis that the oral representation, when it was acted upon by the person to whom it was made entering into the written contract, became a separate or collateral contract on which liability may be founded (the two contract theory).[190]

The court then went on to say that an entire agreement clause (or more generally an exclusion clause: the case speaks generically of "exclusion clauses", although

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[187] [2004] B.C.J. No. 969, 33 B.C.L.R. (4th) 44 (B.C.C.A.).
[188] *Ibid.*, at para. 46.
[189] [1994] B.C.J. No. 2778, 100 B.C.L.R. (2d) 55 (B.C.C.A.).

TAB 10

WATERS' LAW OF TRUSTS IN CANADA

Fourth Edition

By

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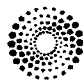

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if title passes in order to allow a range of duties to be discharged by the other, then a trust is created.

Difficulties have always stemmed from the loose employment of the word "trust". It was Blackstone who defined a bailment using the language of trust:[186] "the delivery of goods in trust upon a contract express or implied that the trust shall be duly executed and the goods restored by the bailee as soon as the purpose of the bailment shall be answered." And this inspired later texts to adopt "trust" language. Nor have the authorities been free of a consequent legacy of confusion. But since the beginning of the century it has been clear that the word "trust" means in itself little, even when used in formal documents. Language must be construed in its context. As Riddell J. said in one context:

> The word "trust" has no technical meaning. "Goods held in trust" is a well-known expression in insurance matters, and means "goods held by the insured for which he is responsible to others" – and insurance in this form has always been considered to insure, first, the bailee insuring to the extent of his liens or advances, etc. (if any); and, second, the owner of the goods.[187]

Bailment is essentially "the custody and control" over a thing; "trust" is loosely used as when Blackstone says, "But there are other trusts which are cognizable in a court of law; as deposits and all manner of bailments."[188]

VI. TRUST AND DEBT

As we have seen in distinguishing agency and trusteeship, trust property is always identifiable, either as land, chattels or funds. Specific items must be set aside before it can be said that the trust is ready to take effect. It is the duty of the trustee to administer that specific property for the trust beneficiaries. Most trust property consists of funds, either at the bank or invested in bonds, stocks and shares. But, though it be thus invested, the bank deposit and the other investments are identifiable funds, and remain trust assets, even if they stand in the trustee's name without mention of trust. For this reason trust property is not affected in the event of the trustee's insolvency; the assets of the trust are beyond the reach of the trustee's personal creditors.[189] And if a trustee wrongfully mixes trust assets with his own

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186 *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, vol. 2, chapter 30, s. 2.

187 *Cole v. Merchants Fire Insurance Co.* (1921), 51 O.L.R. 340, 67 D.L.R. 300 (Ont. C.A.) at 348-49 [O.L.R.]. See also *Lesser v. Jones* (1920), 47 N.B.R. 318 (N.B. C.A.) at 322; *Martin v. Town N' Country Delicatessen Ltd.* (1963), 45 W.W.R. 413 (Man. C.A.) at 427.

188 Quoted and criticized by Moss C.P.O. in *Elgin Loan & Savings Co. v. National Trust Co.*, *supra*, note 181, at 46-47.

189 E.g., *Prytula v. Prytula* (1980), 30 O.R. (2d) 324, 116 D.L.R. (3d) 474 (Ont. H.C.). The issue of whether the relationship is one of trustee-beneficiary or debtor-creditor may also be significant where an amount is due to B from A but A claims a right to set off amounts owed by B to A. In *Associated Investors of Canada Ltd. (Manager of) v. Principal Savings & Trust Co. (Liquidator of)* (1993), 13 Alta. L.R. (3d) 115, [1994] 1 W.W.R. 750, (sub nom. *Principal Savings & Trust Co. (Liquidation) v. Associated Investors of Canada Ltd. (Receivership)*) 145 A.R. 177 (Alta. C.A.), the trust company,

funds, the trust property remains beyond the creditor's reach until it is no longer "identifiable".

This preference of trust beneficiaries over creditors makes it important to distinguish the trustee-beneficiary relationship from the creditor-debtor relationship. The distinction is clear enough when the trust arises from the intention, express or implied, of the settlor, but when does the law deem a person a constructive trustee of the funds or assets which he holds for another? The answer, as *Ontario Hydro-Electric Power Commission v. Brown*[190] and *Maralta Oil Co. v. Industrial Incomes Ltd.*[191] show, is when the duty of the holder of the funds or assets is to keep that property distinct from his own personal property.[192] For this reason the banker is a debtor *vis-à-vis* its customer; it mixes the customer's money with its own, and is under an

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being a trustee pursuant to a provision of the trust company legislation, and not a creditor, was not permitted to set off amounts owed to it by the beneficiary.

[190] (1959), [1960] O.R. 91, 21 D.L.R. (2d) 551 (Ont. C.A.). For other cases involving the question of whether the relationship was that of trustee-beneficiary or creditor-debtor see, e.g., *Water Street Pictures Ltd. v. Forefront Releasing Inc.*, 2006 CarswellBC 2476, 26 E.T.R. (3d) 197, 57 B.C.L.R. (4th) 212 (B.C. C.A.), reversing 2005 CarswellBC 596, 14 E.T.R. (3d) 214 (B.C. S.C.); *Giles v. Westminster Savings Credit Union*, 2006 CarswellBC 183, [2006] B.C.J. No. 159 (B.C. S.C.); *Re Kaczmarzyk*, 2006 CarswellOnt 8702 (Ont. S.C.J.); *Stoney Tribal Council v. PanCanadian Petroleum Ltd.* (1998), 218 A.R. 201 (Alta. Q.B.), varied (2000), [2001] 3 C.N.L.R. 347 (Alta. C.A.) at 217 [A.R.]; *Bank of Nova Scotia v. Société Générale (Canada)* (1988), 87 A.R. 133, 58 Alta. L.R. (2d) 193 (Alta. C.A.); *Salo v. Royal Bank* (1988), [1988] B.C.J. No. 999, 1988 CarswellBC 1396 (B.C. C.A.); *Outset Media Corp. v. Stewart House Publishing Inc.* (2003), 34 B.L.R. (3d) 241 (Ont. C.A.), additional reasons at (2003), 34 B.L.R. (3d) 244 (Ont. C.A.); and *Re Blue Range Resource Corp.* (1999), [1999] A.J. No. 929, 1999 CarswellAlta 742 (Alta. Q.B.).

[191] (1964), 49 W.W.R. 175, 46 D.L.R. (2d) 511 (Alta. S.C. (App. Div.)), affirmed [1968] S.C.R. 822 (S.C.C.); *U.A., Local 488 v. J. Neilson & Sons (Mechanical) Ltd.*, [1982] 6 W.W.R. 763, 22 Alta. L.R. (2d) 303 (Alta. Q.B.). It is the obligation to keep the property separate which is important; that it is kept separate as a voluntary act is irrelevant: *Re H.B. Haina & Associates Inc.* (1978), 28 C.B.R. (N.S.) 113, 86 D.L.R. (3d) 262 (B.C. S.C.); *Re Points of Call Holidays Ltd.*, 1991 CarswellBC 471, 41 E.T.R. 56, 54 B.C.L.R. (2d) 384 (B.C. S.C.); and *Bullock v. Key Property Management Inc.*, 1992 CarswellOnt 541, 46 E.T.R. 275 (Ont. Gen. Div.). But *cf. Re Kayford Ltd.* (1974), [1975] 1 W.L.R. 279, [1975] 1 All E.R. 604 (Eng. Ch. Div.). In *Bank of Nova Scotia v. Société Générale (Canada)*, *supra*, note 190, the court noted that a right to commingle funds is a "feature which a court must consider in determining the true relationship created by the agreement between the parties." However, the court concluded that the right to commingle funds was just an "administrative aid" in the implementation of the agreement and did not permit the holder of the funds to put the funds to its own use. The court held the relationship to thus be that of trustee-beneficiary, rather than debtor-creditor, in spite of the right of the holder (trustee) of the funds to commingle the funds. See also *McEachren v. Royal Bank* (1990), 1990 CarswellAlta 234, [1991] 2 W.W.R. 702, 78 Alta. L.R. (2d) 158 (Alta. Q.B.).

[192] *Steffanson v. Jaasma*, [1976] 4 W.W.R. 449 (B.C. S.C.): money was handed to the defendant for one purpose, but was wrongly used for another. There was no constructive trust, because (1) no fiduciary or quasi-fiduciary relationship was intended, i.e., no intention to create a continuing right of property recognized in equity, and (2) the defendant was under no duty to keep the money separate. *Sed quaere* whether after *Becker v. Pettkus*, [1980] 2 S.C.R. 834, 117 D.L.R. (3d) 257 (S.C.C.), number (1), above, is replaced by the requirement of unjust enrichment. Indeed, Meiklem J. came to this conclusion in *Hink v. Saharchuk*, 1999 CarswellBC 2295, [1999] B.C.J. No. 2357 (B.C. S.C. [In Chambers]). For a bank as a constructive trustee, see *infra*, chapter 11.

obligation only to pay out an equivalent sum on demand.[193] The depositor, even if he be an express trustee depositing trust moneys, has only a personal action against the bank; that is the essence of a claim against a debtor. A trustee on the other hand must keep the assets subject to the trust separate, and be ready to hand over those assets when the time comes.[194]

The question which provides the most difficulty is whether the particular holder of title to assets who acknowledges another's interest is trustee or debtor. A trustee must keep the assets of the trust distinct, but in the normal commercial transaction nothing specific is said about this. The duty to keep the assets distinct, if it exists, must be spelled out of the nature of the transaction, the environment in which the parties agree, the type of persons who are the holders of title and the transferor, and whether or not interest payments are to be made by the holder of the assets. If interest is to be paid, the relationship is nearly always that of creditor and debtor.[195]

A good example of the problem is provided by a series of real estate cases concerned with the right of the selling agent to his share of the commission which is held by the listing agent.[196] In *Re Century 21 Brenmore Real Estate Ltd.*, at first instance[197] Anderson J., in a judgment upheld on appeal, readily conceded that trust and contractual debt are not mutually exclusive.

The listing agent contracts with the would-be vendor to find a purchaser of the property, and that contract in its standard form entitles the agent to a commission

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193 A term deposit is a debt owed by the bank, and is therefore subject to garnishment proceedings: *Bel-Fran Investments Ltd. v. Pantuity Holdings Ltd.*, [1975] 6 W.W.R. 374, 62 D.L.R. (3d) 140 (B.C. S.C.); and *Bank of Montreal v. I.M. Krisp Foods Ltd.* (1996), 1996 CarswellSask 581, [1997] 1 W.W.R. 209, 140 D.L.R. (4th) 33 (Sask. C.A.). Certification of the drawer/debtor's cheque by the bank does not make the bank a trustee of that sum for the payee/creditor. The certification is equivalent to payment by the debtor, but the bank merely becomes the debtor of the creditor. See *Marrs' Marine Ltd. v. Rosetown Chrysler Plymouth Ltd.* (1975), 61 D.L.R. (3d) 497 (Sask. Q.B.).

If by consent the trustee retains the trust fund when the trust is terminated by the settlor, the trustee becomes instead a debtor *vis-à-vis* the settlor. However, if the former (express) trustee agrees to hold the fund in a separate account, does the law of trusts make him a resulting trustee for the former settlor? Obviously it depends upon the terms of the agreement the parties have made as to retention by the former express trustee. See, e.g., *Barclays Bank Ltd. v. Quistclose Investments Ltd.* (1968), [1970] A.C. 567, [1968] 3 All E.R. 651 (U.K. H.L.).

194 The beneficiary has not only a right of action against the trustee personally, and the right to recover trust assets as against the general creditors of the trustee himself, but he can trace the assets into the hands of innocent third party donees, and recover from them.

195 See further, *Restatement, Trusts 3d*, para. 5(k) and the commentary thereon. If interest is to be paid it is almost always a relationship of debtor and creditor, but, even if interest is to be paid, a trust relationship may be found to exist. See, e.g., *Bank of Nova Scotia v. Société Générale (Canada)*, *supra*, note 190; and *McEachren v. Royal Bank of Canada*, *supra*, note 191.

196 *Re Ridout Real Estate Ltd.* (1957), 36 C.B.R. 111 (Ont. S.C.); *Manitoba (Securities Commission) v. Showcase Realty Ltd.* (1978), 28 C.B.R. (N.S.) 24, 84 D.L.R. (3d) 518 (Man. Q.B.), reversed in part (sub nom. *Manitoba (Securities Commission) v. Imperial Bank of Commerce*) [1979] 2 W.W.R. 526, (sub nom. *Re Showcase Realty Ltd.*) 96 D.L.R. (3d) 58 (Man. C.A.), varied on rehearing [1979] 6 W.W.R. 464, (sub nom. *Re Showcase Realty (No. 2)*) 106 D.L.R. (3d) 679 (Man. C.A.); *Re Allan Realty of Guelph Ltd.* (1979), 24 O.R. (2d) 21, 97 D.L.R. (3d) 95 (Ont. Bktcy.); *Re Century 21 Brenmore Real Estate Ltd.* (1979), 100 D.L.R. (3d) 150, 6 E.T.R. 1 (Ont. S.C.), affirmed (1980), 6 E.T.R. 205, 111 D.L.R. (3d) 280 (Ont. C.A.).

197 *Re Century 21 Brenmore Real Estate Ltd.*, *supra*, note 196 (6 E.T.R. 1 at 8).

TAB 11

HENRY *v.* HAMMOND.

1913

March 3, 4.

Limitations, Statute of—Trust—Express Trust—Shipping Agent—Sale of Cargo and Payment of Claims—Balance in Hands of Agent.

In 1883 a vessel called the *International* was wrecked off the coast of Kent. The vessel and cargo were subsequently salved, and the plaintiff, who was an average adjuster carrying on business in Paris and who was acting on behalf of foreign insurers of the cargo, instructed the defendant, who was a shipping agent at Ramsgate, to sell the cargo and out of the proceeds of the sale to pay all claims and expenses in connection with the cargo. The defendant accordingly sold the cargo, and after paying all claims and expenses there remained in his hands a sum of 96*l.* This sum was not paid over to the plaintiff, nor did the plaintiff know that there was any money in the defendant's hands representing the balance of the proceeds of the sale. In the defendant's balance-sheets for the years 1884 to 1888 inclusive this sum appeared as a debt due from him, the entry being "*International*, 96*l.*," but the name of the creditor was not stated. In 1889 this sum was carried to profit and loss account, and it did not appear again in the balance-sheets. In 1912 the plaintiff, having discovered the fact that the defendant had received this sum, brought an action to recover it, to which the defendant pleaded that the claim was barred by the Statute of Limitations. The plaintiff, in answer to the plea of the statute, contended that the defendant had made himself an express trustee of this sum, and that therefore the statute did not apply:—

Held, that the transaction which the defendant was employed by the plaintiff to carry out was an ordinary commercial transaction in the way of the defendant's business as a shipping agent, that the defendant was not bound to keep the moneys coming to his hands in the course of carrying out that transaction separate from his other moneys, and that therefore he was not in the position of an express trustee of the sum of 96*l.* for the plaintiff, and the Statute of Limitations was a good defence to the claim.

Appeal from the Ramsgate County Court.

The action was brought to recover 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* as money received by the defendant on behalf of the plaintiff. The defence was that the claim was barred by the Statute of Limitations.

The plaintiff was the surviving partner in the French firm of Dupuis, Jaillon & Henry, who carried on business in Paris as average adjusters. In 1883 a vessel called the *International* with a cargo of coal was wrecked off the coast of Kent. The vessel and her cargo were subsequently salved

1913

HENRY v. HAMMOND.

and brought into Ramsgate harbour. The plaintiff's firm, who were acting for the foreign insurers of the cargo (1), sent the bill of lading to the defendant, who was then carrying on business at Ramsgate as a shipping agent, with instructions to sell the cargo on their behalf and to pay all claims and expenses in connection therewith. The cargo was accordingly sold by the defendant, and after payment of salvage and other claims and expenses, including the commission due to the defendant, there remained in his hands a sum of 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* due to the plaintiff's firm. This sum was not paid over to the plaintiff's firm, nor did the plaintiff's firm or the plaintiff know until 1906 or 1907 that there was any money in the defendant's hands representing the balance of the proceeds of the sale of the cargo. The sum appeared, among a large number of other items in connection with transactions with various persons, in the balance-sheets of the defendant's business for the years ending June 30, 1884 to 1888, both inclusive, as a sum owing by the defendant, the entry being "*International,* 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*," but the name of the creditor was not stated. The defendant's ledger for 1889 shewed that this sum of 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* was in that year carried to profit and loss account, and this particular item did not appear again in the balance-sheets. The defendant retired from business in 1899. In February, 1912, the plaintiff demanded payment of the 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* from the defendant, and on June 22 of that year this action was brought.

The plaintiff, in reply to the defence of the Statute of Limitations, contended that the defendant was in the position of an express trustee of this sum for him, and that therefore the statute did not bar the claim. The county court judge held that the defendant was not an express trustee of this sum for the plaintiff, and that the claim was barred by the statute. He accordingly gave judgment for the defendant. The plaintiff appealed.

Hilbery, for the plaintiff. The defendant was entrusted by the plaintiff's firm with property for the purpose of selling it and

(1) The plaintiff's firm were treated as being themselves the insurers of the cargo.

creating a fund out of which to pay certain claims and expenses and to hold the balance for the plaintiff's firm. The defendant sold the property and there remained a balance of 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* due to the plaintiff's firm, and the defendant by his entries in his balance-sheets and books treated himself as a trustee of that sum for the persons entitled to it, namely, the plaintiff's firm and now the plaintiff. He was therefore an express trustee of that money, and it is well settled that in such a case he cannot set up the defence of the Statute of Limitations. His position was not that of an ordinary agent to collect and pay over money. "Where the duty of persons is to receive property, and to hold it for another, and to keep it until it is called for, they cannot discharge themselves from that trust by appealing to the lapse of time. They can only discharge themselves by handing over that property to somebody entitled to it": per Giffard L.J. in *Burdick* v. *Garrick.* (1) That passage was cited with approval by Lord Macnaghten in *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (2), and by Bowen L.J. in *Soar* v. *Ashwell.* (3) In *In re Hindmarsh* (4) the solicitors who received certain money for their client did so as ordinary agents, and it was held that the relation of trustee and cestui que trust did not exist between them so as to exclude the application of the statute. That case depended upon its special facts: per Lord Hatherley in *Burdick* v. *Garrick.* (5) In the present case the defendant was a trustee of the property, namely, the coals, and he became a trustee of the sum arising from the sale of that property. He was therefore a trustee of the balance of the proceeds of the sale of that property, after paying the claims and expenses, namely, 96*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*, for the plaintiff's firm; and further, by his entries in his balance-sheets earmarking that sum, he recognized his position as a trustee of that sum for the person entitled to it. He was in the position of a trustee holding under an express trust.

In *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (6) Lord Selborne said: "As to the rents and profits received by the respondent, and the accumulated fund

(1) (1870) L. R. 5 Ch. 233, at p. 243.

(2) (1889) 14 App. Cas. 437, at p. 463.

(3) [1893] 2 Q. B. 390, at p. 397.

(4) (1860) 1 Dr. & Sm. 129.

(5) L. R. 5 Ch. at p. 240.

(6) 14 App. Cas. at p. 457.

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which arose from them in the banker's hands, there was a series of declarations, oral and in writing, by the respondent, sufficient, in my judgment, to establish against him, by his own admission, a fiduciary character. A man who receives the money of another on his behalf, and places it specifically to an account with a banker ear-marked and separate from his own moneys, though under his control, is in my opinion a trustee of the fund standing to the credit of that account. For the constitution of such a trust no express words are necessary; anything which may satisfy a Court of Equity that the money was received in a fiduciary character is enough." The defendant here received the money in a fiduciary character to be dealt with by him as directed by the person entitled to it, and he was therefore an express trustee of it. *Soar* v. *Ashwell* (1), *North American Land and Timber Co.* v. *Watkins* (2), and *Reid-Newfoundland Co.* v. *Anglo-American Telegraph Co.* (3) are in point. The defendant received the cargo and its proceeds in a fiduciary capacity to deal with them in a particular way, and he can only discharge himself by shewing that he handed over the money to the person entitled to it. He was not entrusted with the property or the proceeds to deal with them as his own. As in *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (4) be held the balance of the proceeds of the sale of the cargo for all whom it might concern. The position of the defendant was not that of an ordinary agent to receive and pay over money. He was placed in a position of confidence to negotiate with the claimants upon the cargo and to pay their just claims and also the expenses. He was paid a commission for his work, and though he was not bound to place the proceeds of the sale to a separate account he could not make a profit out of the transaction in addition to his commission. His position was different from that of a banker and customer where the banker is a mere creditor in respect of the moneys of the customers: *Foley* v. *Hill.* (5) The judgment of the county court judge was therefore wrong.

E. M. Pollock, K.C., and *Thorn Drury*, for the defendant. *Soar* v. *Ashwell* (1) shews clearly that in the case of a constructive

(1) [1893] 2 Q. B. 390.
(2) [1904] 1 Ch. 242.
(3) [1912] A. C. 555.
(4) 14 App. Cas. 437.
(5) (1848) 2 H. L. C. 28

trust the Statute of Limitations can be used as a bar to a claim. But if the fiduciary relationship under which the trustee holds the money is such that he is in the position of an express trustee the statute cannot be pleaded in answer to a claim to recover the money. Where a Court of Equity has a concurrent jurisdiction with a Court of law, the Court of Equity in affording the remedy will act by analogy to the Statute of Limitations and allow the statute to be pleaded as a bar: *Knox* v. *Gye* (1); *Friend* v. *Young*. (2) This is a common law action to recover money had and received. The fiduciary relationship which was held to exist in *Burdick* v. *Garrick* (3) depended upon the special nature of the deed under which the moneys were to be received and invested: per Hall V.-C. in *Watson* v. *Woodman* (4), cited by Stirling J. in *Friend* v. *Young*. (5) The transaction in the present case was an ordinary commercial transaction, and the Courts ought not to introduce into such transactions the equitable doctrines of trusts: per Bramwell L.J. in *New Zealand and Australian Land Co.* v. *Watson*. (6) The defendant did not stand in a fiduciary relation to the plaintiff's firm either in respect of the cargo or of the proceeds of the sale thereof. He was not bound to keep the moneys arising from the sale separate from his own moneys. It would be impossible for him to keep the moneys in each of his business transactions separate. In *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (7) the defendant collected the rents of the property for the heir, whoever he might be, and placed the moneys so received to a separate account, and he was therefore an express trustee of those moneys. *North American Land and Timber Co.* v. *Watkins* (8) was a simple case of an express trust; and *Reid-Newfoundland Co.* v. *Anglo-American Telegraph Co.* (9) comes within the same category as *Lyell* v. *Kennedy*. (7) There is no authority to shew that a shipping agent who is employed in the ordinary course of his business to sell a cargo and to divide the proceeds in a particular way stands in

(1) (1872) L. R. 5 H. L. 656, at p. 674.

(2) [1897] 2 Ch. 421, at pp. 431, 432.

(3) L. R. 5 Ch. 233.

(4) (1875) L. R. 20 Eq. 721, at p. 731.

(5) [1897] 2 Ch. at p. 432.

(6) (1881) 7 Q. B. D. 374, at p. 382.

(7) 14 App. Cas. 437.

(8) [1904] 1 Ch. 242.

(9) [1912] A. C. 555.

a fiduciary relation to his employer so as to be in the position of an express trustee. The judgment was therefore right.

Hilbery in reply.

CHANNELL J. This case raises an interesting point. The question is whether or not the defendant ought to be treated as being in the position of an express trustee in respect of the sum of 96*l*. 11*s*. 4*d*. claimed in this action. This sum is the ultimate balance in his hands upon an account in connection with transactions which he was employed by the plaintiff's firm to carry out in the ordinary course of his business as a shipping agent. The transactions which the defendant was employed to carry out occurred nearly thirty years ago. He is unable to shew that he has ever paid this sum over to the plaintiff's firm or to the plaintiff. But for the lapse of time the plaintiff is the proper person to recover it, and he would recover it as a debt due to him in respect of those transactions. Inasmuch, however, as the Statute of Limitations has been pleaded as a defence, he can only recover it by establishing that the defendant is in the position of an express trustee of that sum for him. It is clearly settled that a constructive trust is not sufficient, though I do not think that any question of a constructive trust arises in this case.

A considerable number of authorities have been cited, and the one which has been most often referred to in recent cases is *Burdick* v. *Garrick*. (1) In that case there is a passage in the judgment of Giffard L.J. which has been referred to with approval by many judges. Lord Macnaghten in *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (2) said this: "The principle which governs the case may be stated concisely in the words of the late Lord Justice Giffard. In *Burdick* v. *Garrick* (3) that learned judge expressed himself as follows: 'I do not hesitate to say that where the duty of persons is to receive property, and to hold it for another, and to keep it until it is called for, they cannot discharge themselves from that trust by appealing to the lapse of time. They can only discharge themselves by handing over that property to somebody entitled to it.'" The passage there cited from the

(1) L. R. 5 Ch. 233. (2) 14 App. Cas. 437, at p. 463.
(3) L. R. 5 Ch. at p. 243.

judgment of Giffard L.J. has also been approved by, among other judges, Bowen L.J. in *Soar* v. *Ashwell* (1), and I think that we may take it as, in the language of Lord Macnaghten, concisely stating the principle which governs this case. We must apply that principle to a case where the property is a sum of money. It is clear that if the terms upon which the person receives the money are that he is bound to keep it separate, either in a bank or elsewhere, and to hand that money so kept as a separate fund to the person entitled to it, then he is a trustee of that money and must hand it over to the person who is his cestui que trust. If on the other hand he is not bound to keep the money separate, but is entitled to mix it with his own money and deal with it as he pleases, and when called upon to hand over an equivalent sum of money, then, in my opinion, he is not a trustee of the money, but merely a debtor. All the authorities seem to me to be consistent with that statement of the law. I agree with the observation of Bramwell L.J. in *New Zealand and Australian Land Co.* v. *Watson* (2) when he said that he would be very sorry to see the intricacies and doctrines connected with trusts introduced into commercial transactions. A shipping agent carries on a well understood business, and it cannot possibly be said that he is bound to keep the money of each of the persons by whom he is employed in the course of that business separate. There is not in this case the element that there was in *Lyell* v. *Kennedy* (3) of the moneys being in fact kept separate. I am aware that, if the defendant was bound to keep the money separate, the fact that he did not do so cannot assist him; he has committed a breach of his obligation. The only use of looking at the facts to see whether in the particular case he has kept the money as a separate fund is to see whether he has recognized his obligation, the obligation itself being the essential thing. This principle seems to me to reconcile all the cases.

With reference to the case of *Reid-Newfoundland Co.* v. *Anglo-American Telegraph Co.* (4), upon which the plaintiff strongly relies, the circumstances there seem to me to be entirely different from those in the present case. In that case the money sought

(1) [1893] 2 Q. B. 390, at p. 397.
(2) 7 Q. B. D. 374, at p. 382.
(3) 14 App. Cas. 437.
(4) [1912] A. C. 555.

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Channell J.

to be recovered came into the possession of the defendants owing to an unauthorized and improper use of the plaintiffs' property. Where in such a case a person makes a profit out of the improper use of another person's property, he becomes a trustee of that profit for the owner of the property. That case therefore does not assist us in the present one, where there is a mere debt arising out of transactions in respect of property, namely, coals, as to which property no doubt it might possibly be said that the defendant was in a sense a trustee. For instance, he could not have bought the coals himself. He was employed to sell the coals, and to receive the money for them; he was under no obligation to keep the money so received as a separate fund, but he was entitled to mix it with his own moneys, and he was merely a debtor for the amount of the ultimate balance due from him.

I do not think that it is necessary to go through all the cases, but I desire to refer to an observation of Stirling J. in the case of *Friend* v. *Young* (1), where that learned judge, after referring to the authorities, said: "In my judgment, therefore, the existence of a fiduciary relation does not prevent the defence of the statute being set up in the present case." So in the present case the mere fact that there had been at some time the existence of a fiduciary relation does not necessarily prevent the statute being set up as a defence. In my opinion the principle applicable to the case of a banker and customer applies. The defendant in the ordinary course of his business as a shipping agent has incurred a debt, and with reference to that debt the Statute of Limitations applies. The judgment of the county court judge was right, and the appeal must be dismissed.

BRAY J. I am of the same opinion.

Appeal dismissed.

Solicitors for plaintiff: *Church, Adams & Prior, for Emery & Emery, Ramsgate.*

Solicitors for defendant: *Kingsford, Dorman & Co., for J. Thorn Drury, Ramsgate.*

(1) [1897] 2 Ch. 421, at p. 432.

W. F. B.

TAB 12

2005 CarswellOnt 636
Ontario Court of Appeal

GMAC Commercial Credit Corp. - Canada v. TCT Logistics Inc.

2005 CarswellOnt 636, [2005] W.D.F.L. 1542, [2005] O.J. No. 589, 137 A.C.W.S. (3d) 247, 194 O.A.C. 360, 74 O.R. (3d) 382, 7 C.B.R. (5th) 202

In the Matter of an Application under s. 47(1) of the Bankruptcy and Insolvency Act, R.S.C. 1985, c. B-3 and s. 101 of the Courts of Justice Act, R.S.O. 1990, c. C.43

GMAC Commercial Credit Corporation - Canada (Applicant / Respondent to Motion below / Respondent in Appeal / Appellant in C38656) and TCT Logistics Inc. (Respondent / Moving Parties In Motion below / Appellant in C38655) and Travelers Transportation Services Inc., Travelers Holdings Wallaceburg Limited, SGT 2000 Inc., Scott-Woods Transport Inc., SLH Transport Inc., Manitoulin Transport Inc., G. Zavitz Ltd., Bison Diversified Inc., C.W. Henderson & Barat Management Service Inc., Canco Transportation Services Inc., Boarder Carriers Inc., HPD Transport Ltd., Gapco Transport Ltd., The BLM Group Inc., Kenmore Transportation Inc., Portage Cartage & Storage Ltd., Bradley Equipment & Transportation Systems Inc. (Respondents to Motion below / Respondents in Appeal)

Doherty, Laskin, Feldman JJ.A.

Heard: May 5, 6, 2004
Judgment: February 18, 2005
Docket: CA C38655, C38656

Proceedings: reversing in part *GMAC Commercial Credit Corp.- Canada v. TCT Logistics Inc.* (2002), 2002 CarswellOnt 2754, 61 O.R. (3d) 85, 36 C.B.R. (4th) 231 (Ont. S.C.J. [Commercial List])

Counsel: J.T. Porter for Appellant, GMAC Commercial Credit Corp.
Frederick L. Myers, Nando De Luca for Appellants, TCT Logistics, by their Interim Receiver KPMG Inc.
Gerard V. Thompson, Charlie Chang for Respondents, Travelers Transportation Services Inc. et al (the Carriers)

Subject: Insolvency; Estates and Trusts; Family; Property; Contracts; Torts

Related Abridgment Classifications

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For all relevant Canadian Abridgment Classifications refer to highest level of case via History.

Headnote

Bankruptcy and insolvency --- Property of bankrupt — Trust property — General principles

T Inc. and its related companies operated freight brokerage and warehousing business in Canada and United States — Under general security agreement, G Corp. held comprehensive security over all of T Inc.'s assets, including its accounts receivable — In 2001, T Inc. began to default on its obligations to G Corp., and on January 24, 2002, K Inc. was appointed interim receiver over all assets and undertakings of T Inc. — Order dated February 22, 2002, authorized interim receiver to file assignment in bankruptcy and K Inc. became trustee in bankruptcy on February 25, 2002 — G Corp. and carriers disputed priority over two separate funds of T Inc. — First fund consisted of carriers' funds collected by T Inc. prior to January 24, 2002, and commingled with T Inc.'s own funds ("first fund") — Second fund consisted of accounts receivable of T Inc. collected by K Inc., carriers' portion of which had been placed into separate bank account pursuant to court orders ("second fund") — Carriers' claim was based on s. 67(1)(a) of Bankruptcy and Insolvency Act, R.S.C. 1985, c. B-3 ("BIA") and s. 15 of Load Brokers, O. Reg. 556/92 under Truck Transportation Act, R.S.O. 1990, c. T.22 ("Load Brokers Regulation") — Carriers' position was that, under Load Brokers Regulation, all funds owed to carriers by T Inc. were subject of deemed trust under s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — Motion judge held that first and second funds were excluded from security interest of G Corp. and from bankrupt estate pursuant to s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — G Corp. and K Inc. appealed — Appeal allowed in part — Jurisprudence excluded statutory deemed trusts from ambit of s. 67(1)(a) of BIA with exception of certain deemed trusts in favour of Crown — Consequently, even if s. 15 of Load Brokers Regulation created deemed trust, deemed trust would not be trust within meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — First fund lost its character as trust fund when it was not segregated and was commingled with other T Inc. funds — As result, first fund was not subject to trust under s. 15 of Load Brokers Regulation — Security interest of G Corp. had priority over first fund — Second fund collected by K Inc., which was not commingled with other funds, was held in trust for carriers and was payable to them — Second fund had priority over security interest of G Corp.

Bankruptcy and insolvency --- Priorities of claims — Secured claims — Forms of secured interests — Miscellaneous securities

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Carriers --- Contract of carriage — Carriage of goods — Miscellaneous issues

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T Inc. and its related companies operated freight brokerage and warehousing business in Canada and United States — Under general security agreement, G Corp. held comprehensive security over all of T Inc.'s assets, including its accounts receivable — In 2001, T Inc. began to default on its obligations to G Corp., and on January 24, 2002, K Inc. was appointed interim receiver over all assets and undertakings of T Inc. — Order dated February 22, 2002, authorized interim receiver to file assignment in bankruptcy and K Inc. became trustee in bankruptcy on February 25, 2002 — G Corp. and carriers disputed priority over two separate funds of T Inc. — First fund consisted of carriers' funds collected by T Inc. prior to January 24, 2002, and commingled with T Inc.'s own funds ("first fund") — Second fund consisted of accounts receivable of T Inc. collected by K Inc., carriers' portion of which had been placed into separate bank account pursuant to court orders ("second fund") — Carriers' claim was based on s. 67(1)(a) of Bankruptcy and Insolvency Act, R.S.C. 1985, c. B-3 ("BIA") and s. 15 of Load Brokers, O. Reg. 556/92 under Truck Transportation Act, R.S.O. 1990, c. T.22 ("Load Brokers Regulation") — Carriers' position was that, under Load Brokers Regulation, all funds owed to carriers by T Inc. were subject of deemed trust under s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — Motion judge held that first and second funds were excluded from security interest of G Corp. and from bankrupt estate pursuant to s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — G Corp. and K Inc. appealed — Appeal allowed in part — Jurisprudence excluded statutory deemed trusts from ambit of s. 67(1)(a) of BIA with exception of certain deemed trusts in favour of Crown — Consequently, even if s. 15 of Load Brokers Regulation created deemed trust, deemed trust would not be trust within meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of BIA — First fund lost its character as trust fund when it was not segregated and was commingled with other T Inc. funds — As result, first fund was not subject to trust under s. 15 of Load Brokers Regulation — Security interest of G Corp. had priority over first fund — Second fund collected by K Inc., which was not commingled with other funds, was held in trust for carriers and was payable to them — Second fund had priority over security interest of G Corp.

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s. 67(3) — considered

s. 67(3) [en. 1992, c. 27, s. 33] — considered

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s. 11 — referred to

s. 30(7) — considered

s. 30(8) — referred to

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Generally — referred to

Regulations considered:

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Generally

s. 4

s. 4(b)

s. 4(c)

s. 4(d)

s. 5

s. 15

APPEAL by secured creditor and trustee in bankruptcy of judgment reported at *GMAC Commercial Credit Corp.- Canada v. TCT Logistics Inc.* (2002), 2002 CarswellOnt 2754, 61 O.R. (3d) 85, 36 C.B.R. (4th) 231 (Ont. S.C.J. [Commercial List]) with respect to priorities over bankrupt's assets.

***Feldman J.A.*:**

Introduction

1 TCT Logistics Inc. and its related companies ("TCT") were in the business of warehousing and transporting goods by truck. An interim receiver was appointed for TCT on January 24, 2002, and an order for bankruptcy was made on February 22, 2002. The dispute in this case is between the secured creditor of TCT and the carriers who were contracted to transport individual loads. Contrary to the requirements of a regulation under the *Truck Transportation Act*, R.S.O. 1990, c. T.22, TCT did not maintain a separate trust account for the monies it received from its customers for the portion of its invoices that related to the charges of each carrier. The issue in this case is whether, despite that non-compliance, those funds are trust funds within the meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of the *Bankruptcy and Insolvency Act*, R.S. 1985, c. B-3 ("*BIA*") and therefore are not property of the bankrupt for distribution to creditors in the bankruptcy and take priority over the secured creditor's general security over all of the assets of TCT.

Facts

2 TCT operated a freight brokerage and warehousing business in Canada and the United States. Under a general security agreement, GMAC Commercial Credit Corporation — Canada ("GMAC") held comprehensive security over all of TCT's assets, including its accounts receivable. In 2001, TCT began to default on its obligations to GMAC, and on January 24, 2002, KPMG Inc. ("KPMG") was appointed interim receiver over all the assets and undertaking of TCT. At that date, TCT owed GMAC over $71 million.

3 The interim receiver discovered that carriers were not being paid, even though TCT had received payment on its invoices for the carried loads. TCT's cheques were being returned for insufficient funds. Furthermore, the interim receiver encountered significant difficulties collecting accounts receivable of approximately $2.5 million. Carriers began contacting customers directly seeking to collect their fees, and customers refused to pay TCT because they did not want to pay twice. In

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one case, a carrier seized a customer's goods, which were later released under court order. An order dated February 22, 2002 authorized the interim receiver to file an assignment in bankruptcy; it became trustee in bankruptcy on February 25, 2002.

4 Following the appointment of the interim receiver, a dispute arose between the secured creditor, GMAC, and the carriers regarding priority entitlement to amounts referable to services performed by the carriers and invoiced to customers as part of TCT's freight transportation services to those customers. The amounts fell into two categories: (1) amounts already collected by TCT before January 24, 2002 but not paid to the carriers, and (2) accounts receivable for services rendered by TCT but not collected as of January 24, 2002.

5 To facilitate the operation of the receivership and bankrupt estate, the interim receiver obtained two court orders, one for TCT's freight brokerage business and one for its warehousing business. Those orders did three things: (1) they prevented carriers from pursuing customers directly for payment of amounts that had already been collected by TCT as of January 24, 2002; (2) they compelled the customers to pay amounts owing to TCT as of January 24, 2002 to the interim receiver; and (3) they authorized the interim receiver to hold the funds relating to carriers' services in a separate bank account, pending determination of the right to those funds. The orders also provided that they were effectively standstill provisions only and would not affect the rights of the carriers or of GMAC to the funds.

6 Pursuant to these orders, the interim receiver brought a motion to determine the priority entitlement between the secured creditor and the carriers to the funds it was collecting and holding and to the funds collected by TCT prior to the interim receivership but not paid to the carriers.

7 The carriers' claim to priority was based on s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA* and s. 15 of Reg. 556/92 under the *Truck Transportation Act* (the "Load Brokers Regulation").

8 Section 67(1)(a) of the *BIA* provides:

67. (1) The property of a bankrupt divisible among his creditors shall not comprise

(a) property held by the bankrupt in trust for any other person...

9 Section 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation provides:

15. (1) Every load broker shall hold in trust, for the benefit of the carriers to whom the load broker is liable to pay carriage charges, all the money the load broker receives from consignors and consignees in respect of the carriage of goods by carriers except,?

(a) money in excess of the carriage charges; and?

(b) interest on money held by the load broker for less than thirty days.?

(2) Every load broker shall,?

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(a) maintain an account designated as a trust account in a bank, trust corporation or credit union authorized to carry on business and located in Ontario;?

(b) keep the money held by the load broker as a trustee under subsection (1) separate from money that belongs to the load broker;?

(c) deposit the money held by the load broker as a trustee under subsection (1) in the trust account without delay after its receipt; and?

(d) disburse the money held by the load broker as a trustee under subsection (1) only to persons for whom the money is held in trust and who are entitled to such payment.?

10 The carriers' position was that under this regulation, funds owed to carriers by load brokers were the subject of a deemed trust and therefore under s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA*, they were not part of the bankrupt estate. The secured creditor's position, supported by the interim receiver, was that the regulation did not impose a deemed trust and that the most the regulation did was impose an obligation on TCT to hold the carriers' monies in trust. However, TCT breached that obligation, because it did not segregate the carriers' funds. There was therefore no "deemed" trust, and no trust attached, either under the terms of the regulation or under the common law. Furthermore, they argued that the security interest of GMAC attached to the accounts receivable as soon as those accounts were created. No trust could attach to the proceeds of the accounts receivable, as the accounts were already encumbered by that security interest.

11 The motion judge held that both the amounts collected by TCT prior to January 24, 2002 that were owed to carriers and the amounts collected by the interim receiver and held in a segregated account were trust funds held for the carriers and were excluded from the security interest of GMAC and from the bankrupt estate pursuant to s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA*. The motion judge found that the regulation imposed a deemed trust on the funds, and that although the company did not physically segregate the funds, their computer accounting program identified the funds that were collected to be paid to the carriers, which was sufficient to maintain the integrity of the funds as trust funds.

12 The secured creditor and interim receiver appeal that order.

Issues

(1) Does s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation create a deemed trust such that funds in the deemed trust are excluded from the estate of a bankrupt under s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA*?

(2) Did the motion judge make a palpable and overriding error of fact or an error of law in concluding that keeping accounting records that tracked the funds that were to be held in trust was sufficient segregation to establish a trust?

(3) How does the trust obligation imposed by s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation affect the security interest of GMAC in the accounts receivable?

(4) Regardless of the practice that had been employed by TCT prior to the interim receivership, was the interim receiver obliged to comply with s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation when collecting accounts receivable, and hold the carriers' funds in trust?

Analysis

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Issue 1 Does s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation Create a Deemed Trust?

13 Section 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation imposes an obligation on a load broker to hold in trust the monies it receives from its customers that are referable to the carriers' fees portion of its load brokers invoice. If the effect of s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation is to make all funds invoiced or collected in respect of carriers' fees "trust funds" within the meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA*, then those funds would not be property of the bankrupt divisible among creditors, and would be payable to the carriers.

14 One of the requirements of a valid trust under general trust law is that the trust property must be identified as being held in trust, and not co-mingled with other property owned by the trustee. However, both federal and provincial legislation have created deemed trusts, where the legislation provides that the funds are deemed to be trust funds even if they are not segregated from other funds. Although many of these are deemed trusts in favour of the Crown for taxes collected, others are trusts in favour of other groups such as employees in respect of vacation pay or pension amounts (see, for example, *Employment Standards Act, 2000*, S.O. 2000, c. 41, s. 40; and the *Pension Benefits Act*, R.S.O. 1990, c. P.8, s. 57).

15 A consistent series of cases from the Supreme Court of Canada has addressed the effect of provincial statutory deemed trusts in a bankruptcy: *Quebec (Deputy Minister of Revenue) c. Rainville* (1979), [1980] 1 S.C.R. 35 (S.C.C.); *Deloitte, Haskins & Sells Ltd. v. Alberta (Workers' Compensation Board)*, [1985] 1 S.C.R. 785 (S.C.C.); *Québec (Commission de la santé & de la sécurité du travail) c. Banque fédérale de développement*, [1988] 1 S.C.R. 1061 (S.C.C.); *British Columbia v. Henfrey Samson Belair Ltd.*, [1989] 2 S.C.R. 24 (S.C.C.); *Husky Oil Operations Ltd. v. Minister of National Revenue*, [1995] 3 S.C.R. 453 (S.C.C.); and *Giffen, Re*, [1998] 1 S.C.R. 91 (S.C.C.). These cases hold that because bankruptcy is a matter under federal jurisdiction, provincial statutory deemed trusts that do not conform to general trust principles cannot operate to reorder the priorities in a bankruptcy. Therefore, although such deemed trusts are effective in accordance with the provincial legislation when a person or business is solvent and operating (see, *e.g.*, *Ward-Price v. Mariners Haven Inc.* (2001), 57 O.R. (3d) 410 (Ont. C.A.)), upon bankruptcy the funds that are subject to a deemed trust, but are not held in accordance with general trust principles, will not be excluded from the property of the bankrupt under s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA* and will be distributed in the priority prescribed by the *BIA*.

16 Following the decisions of the Supreme Court in the first four cases cited above, the *BIA* was amended in 1992 by the addition of ss. 67(2) and (3), to deal specifically with certain statutory deemed trusts in favour of the Crown: S.C. 1992, c.27, s. 33. Subsections 67(2) and (3) address only the question of when deemed trusts in favour of the Crown will be regarded as trusts under s. 67(1)(a). Subsection 67(2) confirms that statutory deemed trusts in favour of the Crown do not come within s. 67(1)(a), while s. 67(3) creates some limited exceptions. These provisions today read as follows:

> 67(2) Subject to subsection (3), notwithstanding any provision in federal or provincial legislation that has the effect of deeming property to be held in trust for Her Majesty, property of a bankrupt shall not be regarded as held in trust for Her Majesty for the purpose of paragraph (1)(a) unless it would be so regarded in the absence of that statutory provision.
>
> (3) Subsection (2) does not apply in respect of amounts deemed to be held in trust under subsection 227(4) or (4.1) of the *Income Tax Act*, subsection 23(3) or (4) of the *Canada Pension Plan* or subsection 86(2) or (2.1) of the *Employment Insurance Act* (each of which is in this subsection referred to as a "federal provision") nor in respect of amounts deemed to be held in trust under any law of a province that creates a deemed trust the sole purpose of which is to ensure remittance to Her Majesty in right of the province of amounts deducted or withheld under a law of the province where

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> (a) that law of the province imposes a tax similar in nature to the tax imposed under the *Income Tax Act* and the amounts deducted or withheld under that law of the province are of the same nature as the amounts referred to in subsection 227(4) or (4.1) of the *Income Tax Act*, or
>
> (b) the province is a "province providing a comprehensive pension plan" as defined in subsection 3(1) of the *Canada Pension Plan*, that law of the province establishes a "provincial pension plan" as defined in that subsection and the amounts deducted or withheld under that law of the province are of the same nature as amounts referred to in subsection 23(3) or (4) of the *Canada Pension Plan*,
>
> and for the purpose of this subsection, any provision of a law of a province that creates a deemed trust is, notwithstanding any Act of Canada or of a province or any other law, deemed to have the same effect and scope against any creditor, however secured, as the corresponding federal provision.[1]

17 One of the submissions made by the carriers and accepted by the motion judge was that s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation creates a "deemed trust" in favour of the carriers, and that therefore the funds collected by TCT or by the interim receiver in respect of the carriers' fees are trust funds within the meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA*. In my view, the legal conclusion of this submission is wrong in law, and the motion judge erred by accepting it. Based on the consistent line of cases from the Supreme Court of Canada referred to above that excludes statutory deemed trusts from the ambit of s. 67(1)(a), and the limited exceptions in s. 67(3) carved out only for certain deemed trusts where the trust funds are held for the Crown, I conclude that, even if s. 15 creates a deemed trust, any such deemed trust would not be a trust within the meaning of s. 67(1)(a) of the *BIA* and therefore it would not be excluded from property of the bankrupt for the purpose of determining distribution priorities under the *BIA*. It is therefore unnecessary for the court to decide whether, besides creating an obligation on load brokers to hold carriers' fees in trust, s. 15 can be characterized as creating a "deemed trust" for any other purpose.

Issue 2 Did TCT Hold the Carriers' Funds in Trust?

18 TCT would invoice the customer for all services provided, usually adding its own fee onto the fee invoiced by the carrier. When the funds were received, they were deposited into one account, and the carrier was paid from that account. The funds received were not segregated. However, TCT maintained a computerized accounting system that recorded the receipt and payment of the carriers' fees. The motion judge found that the computer system met the trust requirements of s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation and that the effect of the system was to segregate the carriers' funds, even though the actual funds received were co-mingled in one account with other company money. She stated:

> As I have earlier noted, I am satisfied on the answers of Denise Cardy that the load broker's computer accounting records effectively did segregate the money in question, even though the actual monies on deposit in the load broker's account may have been co-mingled with other company monies (para. 30).

19 With respect to the motion judge, in my view, this conclusion was not open to her in law, and is contrary to the Supreme Court cases referred to above. Once the purported trust funds are co-mingled with other funds, they can no longer be said to be "effectively segregated" for the purpose of constituting a trust at common law. For example, in *British Columbia v. Henfrey Samson Belair Ltd.*, *supra*, the funds involved were sales taxes collected on behalf of the province for which full accounting records were maintained. Cory J., in dissent, concluded at pp. 44-45 that because the statute provided a formula for establishing the trust property and because the vendor in that case clearly identified the subject-matter when each sale was made, the funds initially impressed with the trust remained identifiable and therefore "certainty of subject matter does indeed exist" (the three trust certainties being intention, object and subject matter). However, the majority found to the contrary. McLachlin J. (as she then was) held that once the funds were co-mingled they were no longer identifiable and therefore no longer subject to the trust. She explained at p. 34:

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> I turn next to s. 18 of the *Social Service Tax Act* and the nature of the legal interests created by it. At the moment of collection of the tax, there is a deemed statutory trust. At that moment the trust property is identifiable and the trust meets the requirements for a trust under the principles of trust law. The difficulty in this, as in most cases, is that the trust property soon ceases to be identifiable. The tax money is mingled with other money in the hands of the merchant and converted to other property so that it cannot be traced. At this point it is no longer a trust under general principles of law. In an attempt to meet this problem, s. 18(1)(b) states that tax collected shall be deemed to be held separate from and form no part of the collector's money, assets or estate. But, as the presence of the deeming provision tacitly acknowledges, the reality is that after conversion the statutory trust bears little resemblance to a true trust. There is no property which can be regarded as being impressed with a trust. Because of this, s. 18(2) goes on to provide that the unpaid tax forms a lien and charge on the entire assets of the collector, an interest in the nature of a secured debt.

20 In my view, the facts in this case regarding how the funds were held and accounted for are not distinguishable from the *Henfrey Samson Belair* case, and consequently, the legal result must also be the same. The funds relating to the carriers' fees collected by TCT prior to January 24, 2002 lost their character as trust funds when they were not segregated and were co-mingled with other TCT funds.

Issue 3 Did the GMAC Security Attach to TCT's Accounts Receivable Including the s. 15 Trust Funds?

21 GMAC held general security over all the property, assets, and undertaking of TCT, including accounts receivable, under a General Security Agreement. Both GMAC and the interim receiver argued that because GMAC's security attached to TCT's accounts receivable before any funds were received by TCT, the security attached before the statutory trust obligation was imposed by s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation. They rely on the decision of the Supreme Court of Canada in *Royal Bank v. Sparrow Electric Corp.*, [1997] 1 S.C.R. 411 (S.C.C.), which held that the deemed trust in favour of the Crown in respect of employee source deductions under the *Income Tax Act* was subject to the security interest of the secured creditor in inventory, because the deemed trust only attached to the company's interest in the inventory after the inventory was already subject to the creditor's security interest.

22 If this argument is correct, the effect is to emasculate the trust imposed for the benefit of carriers by s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation in all cases where the operations of the load broker are financed so that its assets and undertaking are subject to a lender's secured interest. This would, I believe, cover many, if not most substantial business operations in Ontario. Furthermore, the effect would be to thwart the intention of the legislature in imposing the trust obligation for the benefit and protection of carriers.

23 In my view, the result in the *Sparrow* case does not apply to the trust imposed by the Load Brokers Regulation. In *Sparrow*, the majority rejected the theory of the minority that the security of the secured creditor was subject to an implied license that allowed the debtor to sell its inventory in the ordinary course of business and to use the proceeds to pay wages and payroll deductions. However, in distinguishing the case of *British Columbia v. Federal Business Development Bank* (1987), 43 D.L.R. (4th) 188 (B.C. C.A.) ("*FBDB*"), the majority acknowledged that such an implied license would extend to "legal incidents" of the sale of the inventory such as the collection and remittance of sales tax, something which must be done in order to make sales.

24 Iacobucci J., who wrote for the majority in *Sparrow*, distinguished the *FBDB* decision in the following passage at paras. 102-103:

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My colleague also relies on comments made in *FBDB*. In that case, the British Columbia Court of Appeal said, after having disposed of the appeal on another ground, that a licence to sell inventory carries with it a requirement that the licencee should satisfy obligations incurred in "dealing with the stock in the ordinary course of business": *FBDB*, *supra*, at p. 40.

Because the obligation to set aside provincial sales taxes is a "legal incident" of the sale of inventory, a lien for unpaid sales taxes comes within the scope of the licence and so is excepted from any security interest that is subject to it: *idem*.

As I understand the comments in *FBDB*, a licence to sell inventory permits the satisfaction of obligations out of the proceeds only to the extent of the "legal incidents" of the sale. In itself, this greatly limits the scope of the theory. Because the payment of wages, except perhaps to the sales agent, is not a "legal incident" of the sale of inventory, deduction of income taxes from wages does not come within the scope of the licence. This alone would appear sufficient to distinguish *FBDB* from the instant appeal.

25 In the same way, in order to carry on business in Ontario, a load broker must comply with the trust obligations in s. 15 of the regulation, and must collect, hold in trust, and pay to the carriers their fees. That trust obligation is a legal incident of the provision of load brokerage services and therefore would be subject to the implied license accorded by the secured lender.

26 This approach is also consistent with the business intent of the lending relationship between the secured lender and the debtor company. The General Security Agreement provides that it is to be governed by and construed in accordance with the laws of Ontario and of Canada where applicable. The business of the debtor is as a load broker. If it did not comply with the Load Brokers Regulation and with the law generally, the debtor would lose its load brokerage certificate and could not thereafter legally carry on business in Ontario.[2] The lender's security would be in immediate jeopardy if it precluded the debtor from carrying on its business by preventing it from holding the carriers' fees in trust for their benefit.

27 In oral argument, counsel for GMAC suggested that, conceptually, what may occur is that the security attaches to the accounts receivable of the debtor company when they are created (s. 11 of the *Personal Property Security Act*, R.S.O. 1990, c. P.10), but the security becomes unattached when the carriers' funds are received and the trust obligation is imposed. The security later reattaches if the funds are co-mingled by the load broker with its own funds.[3]

28 This analysis accords with an alternative analysis suggested by Iacobucci J. in *Sparrow* when discussing the *FBDB* case. He suggested at para. 104:

... the sales taxes that were at issue in *FBDB* were not against the value of the inventory. Rather, they were superadded to the underlying value, which is to say that they were calculated on the basis of the sale price of the inventory. Thus, the sales taxes that attend a sale of inventory represent something over and above the value of the inventory. Because a bank's charge is against the *inventory*, it does not extend so far as the sales taxes generated by a sale of inventory. [Original emphasis.]

In other words, the security interest may not attach to the sales taxes collected on the sale of inventory. In the same way in this case, the security interest cannot attach to the portion of the funds that is to be kept in a separate trust account in accordance with s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation, which are then distinct from the accounts receivable to which the secured creditors' interest attaches.

29 On either analysis, in my view, the security interest of GMAC is subject to the trust mandated by s. 15, so long as the

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debtor carries out the trust obligation.

30 Before leaving this issue, I note the interim receiver and secured creditor's argument is given some force by ss. 30(7) and (8) of the *PPSA*, *supra*, which provide:

> 30(7) A security interest in an account or inventory and its proceeds is subordinate to the interest of a person who is the beneficiary of a deemed trust arising under the *Employment Standards Act* or under the *Pension Benefits Act*.
>
> (8) Subsection (7) does not apply to a perfected purchase-money security interest in inventory or its proceeds.

Subsection 30(7) addresses the priority of deemed trust beneficiaries under two Ontario statutes over the interest of secured creditors in accounts. Applying the interpretive maxim *expressio unius est exclusio alterius*, because the *PPSA* has not similarly provided that carrier beneficiaries under the Load Brokers Regulation have priority over secured creditors of the load broker, the argument that the secured creditor has priority takes on more credence.

31 However, having noted these provisions, I do not find them determinative of the issue. The *PPSA* only applies to consensual agreements (see Jacob S. Ziegel & David L. Denomme, *The Ontario Personal Property Security Act: Commentary and Analysis*, 2nd ed. (Toronto: Butterworths, 2000) at 48 *et seq.* and 71-72); it does not apply to statutory trusts, which are non-consensual. Ziegel and Denomme, at p. 81 of their text, point out that s. 4(1)(b) of the *PPSA*, which provides that the Act does not apply to statutory deemed trusts except under s. 30(7), seems "to have been added out of an abundance of caution". I would add that the same can be said of s. 30(7) (subject to ss. (8)). As the trust imposed by s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation is non-consensual, the Act does not apply to that trust.

32 I agree with the motion judge's rejection of the argument that the GMAC security takes priority over the trust.

Issue 4 Was the Interim Receiver Obliged to Hold the Carriers' Funds it Collected After January 24, 2002 in Trust?

33 We are dealing on this appeal with two separate funds of money collected during two different time periods. The first is the carriers' funds collected by TCT prior to January 24, 2002 and co-mingled with TCT's own funds. The second is the pre-January 4, 2002 accounts receivable of TCT collected by the interim receiver, the carriers' portion of which has been placed into a separate bank account pursuant to court orders.

34 With respect to the second fund, the secured creditor and the interim receiver submit that the creditor's and the carriers' rights were fixed as of January 24, 2002, and that because the interim receiver stands in the shoes of TCT, it is bound to continue the practice of depositing the receipts into one account and not segregating the carriers' fees in a separate account. They also rely on the fact that the subsequent court orders, by their terms, did not affect established rights.

35 I agree that the subsequent court orders have no substantive effect on the legal rights of any of the parties. However, I do not agree with the submission that those rights are frozen upon bankruptcy. What is frozen on bankruptcy is the ability for creditors to make or to enforce any claims against a debtor, as all proceedings must be taken by the trustee: see *Giffen, Re*, [1998] 1 S.C.R. 91 (S.C.C.) at para. 39. What are also frozen at the date of bankruptcy are the secured creditor's rights in the accounts receivable.

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36 However, in the regime created by s. 15 of the Load Brokers Regulation, the security interest in the accounts receivable and in the funds when they are received is different. It is upon receipt of the carriers' fees that the trust obligation is imposed on the load broker. Contrary to the argument of the interim receiver and the secured creditor, as the interim receiver stands in the shoes of the debtor, and is furthermore acting as an officer of the court, it is incumbent on the interim receiver (as it was on TCT), irrespective of the subsequent court orders, to comply with the regulation as funds are received, and to hold the carriers' portion of the collected accounts in trust for the carriers. There is no estoppel preventing the interim receiver from complying with the law.

37 As discussed above, if the funds are not co-mingled with other corporate funds, the security interest of GMAC is subject to the interest of the trust beneficiaries in the trust funds.

Conclusion

38 The appeal is allowed in part. The carriers' portion of the pre-January 24, 2002 accounts receivable collected by the interim receiver is held in trust for the carriers and is payable to them. The pre-January 24, 2002 accounts that were collected by TCT and co-mingled with other TCT monies lost their character as trust funds, and therefore they are subject to the security interest of the secured creditor.

Costs

39 As the carriers were successful on the major issue, costs are payable to the respondents fixed in the amount of $15,000, plus disbursements and G.S.T.

***Doherty J.A.*:**

I agree.

***Laskin J.A.*:**

I agree.

Appeal allowed in part.

Footnotes

1 Further amendments followed in 1996, 1997 and 1998: S.C. 1996, c.23, s. 168; S.C. 1997, c.12, s. 59; S.C. 1998, c.19, s. 250).

2 See ss. 4 and 5 of the Load Brokers Regulation, *supra*. Section 5 states: "The Registrar may cancel or suspend a load brokerage certificate for failure to comply with the requirements of the Act or this Regulation." Section 4(b) states: "The Registrar may refuse to issue or renew a load brokerage certificate if, (b) the past conduct of the applicant affords reasonable grounds for belief that the applicant will not carry on a load brokerage service in accordance with the law and with integrity and honesty ..." Sections 4(c) and (d) give the Registrar of Motor Vehicles discretion to refuse to issue or renew a certificate if the misconduct is that of an officer, director, controlling shareholder, or partner.

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3 This analysis formed part of the argument in Issue No. 4 that upon bankruptcy, the rights of the secured creditor in the accounts receivable are frozen and the trust cannot take effect.

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IN THE MATTER OF THE *COMPANIES' CREDITORS ARRANGEMENT ACT*,
R.S.C. 1985, c. C-36 AS AMENDED

AND IN THE MATTER OF A PLAN OF COMPROMISE OR ARRANGEMENT OF THE CASH STORE FINANCIAL SERVICES Inc., THE CASH STORE INC., TCS CASH STORE INC., INSTALOANS INC., 7252331 CANADA INC., 5515433 MANITOBA INC., 1693926 ALBERTA LTD DOING BUSINESS AS "THE TITLE STORE"

Applicants

Court of Appeal File Nos.: C59377/C59379
Court of Appeal Motion File Nos.: M44123/M44126
Sup. Ct. J. File No.: CV-14-10518-00CL

COURT OF APPEAL FOR ONTARIO

BOOK OF AUTHORITIES
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