

Template documents

To ensure that our template documents are up to date in the light of the *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases, we have updated all of our template documents which provide that for breach of a particular obligation there is to be payment or deduction of liquidated damages.

A “**liquidated damages**” clause sets out the amount of damages to be paid as a result of breach of a particular obligation under the contract.

Only some of our templates have been updated in the light of *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye*.

The law

In the Annex below, we set out the current law on “**penalties**” in contracts. It explains the law and clarifies the law on the subject.

Practical guidance

We recommend that, *before* you enter into any business contracts, you consider the practical points below (see the Annex below) whether you are going to draft your own contract, or use one of our agreement templates, or use one of our templates provided to you by the other party to you.

- use one of our agreement templates for liquidated damages, service credits or similar remedy for any breach of a particular obligation
- draft your own contract, or use one of our templates provided to you by the other party to you

We suggest that, wherever possible, you use one of our templates, or use one of our templates provided to you by the other party to you, for liquidated damages, service credits or similar remedy for any breach of a particular obligation under the contract.

We also recommend that you consider the practical points below if you review any of your *existing* contracts and those in the Annex below.

Advantages and disadvantages of including a liquidated damages clause or other specific remedy in a contract

Including a clause in a contract which sets out a particular obligation and the consequence of that breach and some other specific remedy for breach of that obligation can be advantageous because:

- there will be certainty for both parties as to the consequence of that breach and the amount to be paid (a

appropriate practice in the light of the *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases, we have updated, and amended all of our template documents which provide that for breach of a particular obligation there is to be payment or deduction of liquidated damages.

A contract which fixes the amount of damages to be paid as a result of breach of a particular obligation under the contract.

Only some of our templates have been updated in the light of *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye*.

In the Annex below, we set out the current law on “**penalties**” in contracts. It explains the law and clarifies the law on the subject of unenforceable “**penalties**” in contracts. It explains the law and clarifies the law on the subject.

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Including a clause in a contract which sets out a particular obligation and the consequence of that breach and some other specific remedy for breach of that obligation can be advantageous because:

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- it avoids a dispute between the parties
- there will be no need for the court to assess an amount to be paid.

On the other hand, letting the court decide the amount of damages or some other specific remedy has some potential disadvantages because:

- it involves the parties to the contract in the expense and trouble of going to court
- the court can and will only decide the amount when the breach occurs, not in advance
- the amount that a court will award is unpredictable.

However, as mentioned in the AIA contract, a contract stating either the amount to be paid as damages or some other specific remedy to apply, a degree of uncertainty will not make the contract invalid or unenforceable, i.e. by trying to challenge the validity in law and that it is therefore unenforceable.

Existing and future contracts

The *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases suggest that it is less likely now than before that a contract with a liquidated damages or similar clause will be regarded as an unenforceable *penalty*. As a practical point, that means that you should revisit your existing contracts to see if they contain penalties.

The following points will be relevant when you enter into any contracts you have entered into.

Decide whether or not to include a remedy clause

When you first plan to negotiate a contract, you should consider whether to leave it to the courts to assess the enforceability of any clause/s providing any liquidated damages or any other specific remedy for any particular breach(es) of contract.

You may wish to rely on a particular clause being enforceable. Typical of such clauses is to place a limit on your liability for damages or other type of remedy.

Before you agree to the terms of a contract, you should consider whether a remedy clause would (or might) be a penalty in law. If you conclude that it could well be a penalty, you should not agree a substitute term which would not be a penalty, or if you do agree a substitute term, you should be aware of the risk that a court might find it to be a penalty. If you take that risk and a breach of contract occurs, and at that time you find yourself in dispute (i.e. you are not sure what compensation is to be paid or whether the clause will apply), you will then have to accept what the court decides.

...seek an assessment of damages

...of damages - rather than setting the amount (or some other specific remedy) of Liquidated Damages or some other specific remedy to apply in the contract - has some potential

...and trouble of going to court and when the breach occurs, not in advance and unpredictable.

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Relevant tests of validity

Since it is important for the parties to know whether a remedy clause they have agreed to have to take account of the tests set out in the ParkingEye cases. It was stated that the remedy set out in a contract for breach of a main hurdle to be overcome are:

- where there is a breach of a "legitimate interest" in the contract;
- the remedy set out in the contract is not out of all proportion to that legitimate interest.

As explained in the Annex below, a clause is not necessarily a penalty if it is not a pre-estimate of loss or it does not require payment of a compensatory amount.

It may be difficult for the parties to agree whether a clause meets these tests, and they may well differ in their opinions.

Drafting tips

When drafting a contract containing a remedy for breach:

- it might be helpful to set out the commercial rationale in the recitals section of the contract or in the remedy clause behind the clause
- it is recommended that the clause is expressed as liquidated damages or a pre-estimate of loss".
- it is recommended that you seek appropriate legal advice. If you have been advised and are of a sound mind, there is a strong presumption that a clause is not a penalty, although it may make no sense if the other party is properly protected.

Where loss, or little loss, arises

In the ParkingEye case, car drivers were charged beyond the free 2 hour period parking against overstaying, that it was not a penalty for overstaying, and that it was not a penalty. Despite this, the court nevertheless found that ParkingEye had a "legitimate interest" in the amount of the charge was not out of all proportion to that legitimate interest.

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Obligation in question

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This approach may have positive implications if the parties wish to include a clause under which the party in breach is liable to pay liquidated damages for a particular breach.

- where a non-commercial party, such as a charity, or other not for profit party breaches a contract
- where there *would* be a difficulty in quantifying the loss caused by the breach, but it would be difficult to quantify it.

In either such case, the level of damages to be paid should be set by reference to the actual damage to reputation, goodwill or other interests caused by the relevant breach since that will fall under the heading of "legitimate interests". In either case, the clause will be unenforceable as a penalty if the clause is less likely to be upheld than the Supreme Court judgments in the *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases.

Challenging a liquidated damages clause

If you have entered into a contract which contains a liquidated damages clause but you feel that it is not commensurate with the actual loss which would occur on your breach of the obligation concerned, you may wish to challenge its validity on the basis that it is unenforceable as a penalty.

It is recommended that, in order to assist when putting together a contract, you should gather evidence of their legitimate commercial interest in the breach not occurring, or, before signing a new contract, you should do so on the basis that it is out of all proportion to the loss which would be suffered by the party complying with the contract.

Liquidated damages clauses are commonly used in contracts to provide a remedy for delay, typically for late delivery of goods or services. If you are unable to quantify the loss caused by the delay in question, you might instead be able to argue that the clause is a penalty if the other party has caused the delay in question. In the case of a breach of a condition precedent to a contract, or certification provisions required by other contracts, you may well be able to argue that, for example, you establish that you have suffered a loss, and that on the contrary you are entitled to an award of damages on your breach of the liquidated damages clause or try to argue that the clause is a penalty to bear in mind that if no such clause applies, the other party will be entitled to an award of general damages in the usual case.

Successful challenge

If you are the party which will be liable to pay liquidated damages on your breach of the liquidated damages clause or try to argue that the clause is a penalty to bear in mind that if no such clause applies, the other party will be entitled to an award of general damages in the usual case.

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way. The amount of general damages which are payable under the damages clause in view of the fact that the Supreme Court has said that the agreed damages can now validly take into account commercial consequences does not require proof of financial loss.

Conclusion

The court’s decision and reasoning in *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases is helpful in that it has now clarified for commercial parties how, when, and how, they might include in their contracts an agreed remedy for particular types of breach of their contract. The decision offers guidance on when such agreed remedies in that it has lessened the likelihood in many cases that such agreed remedies will be treated by the courts as unenforceable penalties.

New case law on unenforceable penalties in contracts

Cavendish and ParkingEye

The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom decided these two cases on 5 November 2015 in two cases, *Cavendish Square Holding Corporation v. Makdessi* and *ParkingEye Limited v. Beavis* (“*Cavendish*” and “*ParkingEye*”). The facts in these two cases were quite different from each other but the central issue in both cases was whether certain contract terms amounted to unenforceable penalties.

As a result of this recent decision, the Annex recommends that you should take into account the legal background to these cases below and the legal reasoning in both cases.

The Guidance Note on Contract Law recommends some *practical steps* that you should take, and key points to consider when negotiating contracts, in relation to penalties. It recommends that you consider whether or not your proposed contract should leave in place clauses providing a specific remedy for breach of contract. Where relevant, our template agreement should take full account of the recent Supreme Court case.

Freedom of contract

There is a general principle in contract law that parties to a contract are free to make whatever bargain they wish (the “freedom of contract” principle), that their bargain will be enforced by the courts, and that the courts will not interfere with what the parties have agreed.

Exceptions to freedom of contract

ards could however be less than the agreed damages clause in view of the fact that the agreed damages can now validly take into account commercial consequences does not require proof of financial loss.

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parties to a contract are free to make whatever bargain they wish (the “freedom of contract” principle), that their bargain will be enforced by the courts, and that the courts will not interfere with what the parties have agreed.



However, over a very long period of time, exceptions have developed to this general principle. In those cases, the court will intervene to vary the contract term even though the parties have agreed to the term as part of their bargain. Where the court intervenes, it will either declare the term unenforceable or limit its application. The court will not vary the effects of the term in question. These exceptions are commonly found where one party is a consumer, but there are also exceptions where both parties are commercial entities. One category of these exceptions is the "penalty" rule. A term, although agreed by the parties, might adversely and unfairly affect one party, and amounts to a "penalty" in law. In such cases, the contract will operate as if the term had not been included in the contract by the parties.

Specific remedies agreed by the parties in the contract

Contracts sometimes include a specific remedy agreed and included in the contract. For commercial entities, the case of *White & Carter (Councils) Ltd v McGregor* is a good example. In breach of a particular stated obligation, it will pay to the other party a sum of money as compensation for that breach. In such cases, the remedy for breach will instead be an amount of money, and that amount might well be more or less than the sum payable on that breach.

The disadvantage of letting the parties set out an agreed amount (or a formula for calculating the amount) is that, firstly, it involves the parties to the contract in assessing the amount, secondly, the court can and will vary the amount, and, thirdly, the amount that is payable is likely to be unpredictable. In contrast, where a particular sum is payable on breach of a particular obligation, there will be no need for them to go to court to fix the amount of damages to be paid. However, there may still be a need for them to go to court to challenge the amount if they successfully go to court to challenge the term as a penalty.

Typical remedies for breach (and other events) in contracts

There are various types of damages which parties to contracts often include in their contracts to provide for particular situations, and we have outlined some of them below.

- 1. Liquidated damages**
A common example of a remedy for breach of contract is a "liquidated damages" clause. If goods fail to be delivered by a particular date, the sum to be used to calculate the amount of damages will typically represent the amount of damages for a breach of contract is a "liquidated damages" clause. For example, where a seller of goods fails to deliver by a particular date, the sum to be used to calculate the amount of damages will typically represent the amount of damages for a breach of contract is a "liquidated damages" clause.

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will usually (but not always) be enforceable (see the bullet point examples below). not to be penalties, and Cavendish and ParkingEye “liquidated damages” sum suffered by the innocent party is the most prudent practice.

Such a “liquidated damages” clause is valid and enforceable, but in certain cases it might be challenged as a penalty, whether by a commercial entity or where one of the parties is a consumer. Other types of clause might also be capable of being challenged, depending on the particular circumstances, on the basis of public policy.

2. Clauses which potentially amount to penalties

Where a contract term is not legally enforceable, the damages assessed by the court will be in the interest of the party who has suffered the loss. Other types of clause might also be capable of being challenged, whether or not it is (or might be) a penalty.

Either a “liquidated damages” clause amounts to a penalty, if, as a matter of law, the effect of the clause is to cause a party to pay a sum of money which is disproportionate to the interest which it is intended to protect. However, it is important to emphasise that whether it is a penalty depends on how it is drafted, how the clause is interpreted, and the relevant circumstances.

3. Examples of clauses which might amount to penalties

The following are all examples of clauses which might amount to penalties, depending on the facts and circumstances:

- liquidated damages which are disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- imposition of a sum of money which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- withholding of a payment which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- deferral or reduction of a payment which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- payment of a break fee which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- payment of a default interest which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- requirement to transfer property at an overvalue or at an undervalue
- a take-or-pay payment which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect
- a compulsory buy-out which is disproportionate to the interest which the clause is intended to protect

4. Examples of clauses which are likely to be enforceable

Both pre- and post- Caveat Emptor clauses will be valid and enforceable, provided they are not penalties.

contract as “liquidated damages” not to be penalties, and (see the bullet point examples below). Before the recent decision in *Cavendish and ParkingEye*, the courts will often have stated that the clause is “a genuine pre-estimate” of the loss that will be suffered by the innocent party. However, it is important to note that this will no longer be the case where the clause is a penalty.

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3. Examples of clauses which might amount to unenforceable penalties

The following are all examples of clauses which might amount to unenforceable penalties, depending on the facts and circumstances:

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- A “liquidated dam... would be a contract by the seller in six... the contract, and f... each instalment fo... provided that “£Y”... occur for each day...
- A term of a loan at... the borrower defa... justifiable. If, as a... a greater credit ris... After *Cavendish an...* is, a deterrent again... not unconscionable
- A term of a contract... sell back shares at... leaver”, given that... anticipated
- A requirement in a... the other party exe... due to that breach... circumstances (i.e... that could possibly...
- A term of a contract... investor has to sel... cost or fair market... mechanism is a leg... other investors
- A term in a contract... or into escrow wh... amount of the dep... norm is 10% and s... will usually be enfo... the amount of the... transaction, the an... norm, the clause... special circumstan... it is not unconscion

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a “sliding scale”. An example requiring X tons to be delivered on various dates following the date of liquidated damages in respect of the contract. The clause should be valid if it provides for the greatest loss likely to be suffered if the goods are delivered late

interest rate for the period after the first instalment, if it is commercially justified. If the lender finds that the borrower is in default, a higher interest rate may often be justified. A clause providing for an increase in the interest rate is intended to be, or may be, legally valid if the increase is

exercise of options or requiring him to resign if he is an employee and is a “bad leaver” who has contributed to the business in the way

contractor to reach to pay a break fee where the clause is a term of the contract to terminate it if the breach is unconscionable or extravagant in the circumstances. The clause is valid if it provides for the greatest amount of damages

in a limited partnership whereby an investor is entitled to a typical discount of 80-90% to meet a capital call, since this is in the interests of the fund and its

penalty is not paid by the buyer to the seller if the buyer does not comply with the contract, if the clause is a term of the contract. On a property sale, the market value is the deposit in a property sale contract (as opposed to the deposit in another type of transaction of the same type.) If, in any type of transaction, the amount required is greater than the market value, the clause is valid if the seller can show that there are special circumstances of that greater amount, i.e. where the clause is for particular circumstances.

The law and practice on contract law

The courts have for over 100 years used the “penalty” clauses to decide whether the clause is a penalty. In *Cavendish and ParkingEye* the court has established English law rules on the basis of the history and current state of the law. The rule against penalties had over a long history and the consequence applied in many cases. The court said that a different approach should

be used. The principles when examining contract law have been set out but the recent judgments in *Cavendish and ParkingEye* have taken up and updated the long history. In these cases, the judges examined the history and concluded that the rule against penalties had been misunderstood and as a result was unnecessary and unjust. They said that a different approach should be used in this area.

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The old law (pre-November 2015)

In the case of a “liquidated damages” clause, the Supreme Court judgment in 2015 was to decide whether or not it was a genuine pre-estimate of the innocent party’s likely loss. If it was a genuine pre-estimate, it was deemed to be enforceable. If it was not, the condition of enforceability of the clause was precisely the amount of loss if the clause provided a sum stated in the clause was a genuine pre-estimate of that sum without having to show that the loss was equal to or greater than that sum claim that sum even if his loss was less than that sum.

For over a 100 years (until the late 19th century) the courts applied the “genuine pre-estimate” test to the clause. It was a “genuine pre-estimate” of the innocent party’s likely loss. If it was not, the clause was not enforceable. The clause did not require or expect, as a condition of enforceability, that the contract parties must pre-estimate the amount of loss (if any) so. If the liquidated damages clause provided a sum, the innocent party could claim that sum only if he had actually suffered any loss or that his loss was equal to or greater than the damages sum: in fact he could claim that sum.

The “genuine pre-estimate” test was refined by the court in the *Dunlop v New Gypsum* case. The court stated that if such a sum was not “extravagant and unconscionable”, then generally it was to be regarded as a “genuine pre-estimate” and not an unenforceable “penalty”. The court in the *Dunlop* decision made the distinction between a penalty and a genuine pre-estimate clearer than before. For a clause to be a penalty, the sum stated for a stated fixed sum to be paid under the contract, and the sum was then it was more likely to be deemed a penalty. A clause for a fixed sum as “liquidated damages” to be paid for breach of only one of payments (see the bullet points below) was more likely to be regarded as a penalty because it indicated an intention to punish.

Before 1915, but it was refined by the court in 1915. The court stated in *Dunlop v New Gypsum* that if such a sum was not “extravagant and unconscionable”, then generally it was to be regarded as a “genuine pre-estimate” and not penal, and therefore enforceable. In that judgment, the court set out guidelines for the courts to apply. A clause would not be treated as a penalty if a contract clause provided for a number of different obligations or payments. Even if the contract described the clause as a penalty, for example, required a sum to be paid and it also provided a sliding scale of payments, it could be less likely to be regarded as a penalty. The clause was intended to pre-estimate loss.

The new law on penalties (post-November 2015)

The following will help explain the new law on penalties and why they have now been replaced by a court as a penalty.

The *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases have superseded the old law. A clause will be construed by the court as a penalty.

The *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* cases have superseded the old law. A clause will be construed by the court as a penalty. The clause does not, without more, make it a penalty. The clause is now that if the detriment to the innocent party is of all proportion to the innocent party’s legitimate interest in the performance of the obligation that has been breached. A clause will be a penalty if it produces a detriment to the innocent party (because of his breach of contract) which is “extravagant, unconscionable or otherwise unreasonable” in the overall context of the contract. In other words, there cannot be any proportionality between the detriment to the innocent party and the legitimate interest in the performance of the obligation.

Where a contract clause provides for a sum to be paid as a pre-estimate of loss, that fact alone does not make the clause a penalty. The fact of whether a clause is a penalty depends on whether the party in breach of contract is out of pocket or in “interest” in the enforcement of the clause. In other words, a clause will be a penalty if it produces a detriment to the innocent party (because of his breach of contract) which is “extravagant, unconscionable or otherwise unreasonable” in the overall context of the contract. In other words, there cannot be any proportionality between the detriment to the innocent party and the legitimate interest in the performance of the obligation.

The difficulty for the parties negotiating the contract is to work out what is a "legitimate interest" and they may well disagree. However, the judgment in *Cavendish* and *ParkingEye* provides guidance as to when a particular clause will be a penalty.

The terms of contract will be working out what is a "legitimate interest". The clause will be a penalty if it produces a detriment to the innocent party (because of his breach of contract) which is “extravagant, unconscionable or otherwise unreasonable” in the overall context of the contract. It helpfully included some general guidelines for the courts. It is likely to fail this test. It said that it

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will depend on the circumstances. It is not to be concluded and that a court will not award a remedy for what is a legitimate remedy for the parties themselves, particularly in the case of commercial parties with similar contracts and expert legal advice. Nevertheless, a genuine pre-estimate of monetary loss may be found to be penal if it is disproportionate to the innocent party's legitimate interest in performance.

The court also considered whether a clause operates in the case of a breach. A clause takes effect *other than* in the case of a breach of contract. Consider the following scenarios

- (i) A contract might require one party to carry out some act and might provide a sum of money in the event of *failure* to carry it out, i.e. a clause which might amount to a penalty.
- (ii) A contract might require one party to carry out some act and might provide a sum of money in the event of *failure* to carry it out, i.e. a clause which might amount to a penalty.
- (iii) There might instead be a clause requiring the transfer of property or with a sum of money payable in the event of breach (e.g. payment of a sum of money conditional on the occurrence of a breach) in which case that will also be a penalty clause.

The court in *Cavendish and Patel* considered whether it is a conditional primary obligation or whether it is a secondary obligation. A provision is in reality "primary" if it is a primary obligation and "secondary" if it is a secondary obligation. A clause provides a penalty if it is a secondary obligation. Careful consideration of the drafting of a provision is primary or secondary is necessary. In the case of "(ii)" above, the provision is a primary obligation. Carrying out the relevant act but not increasing the chance that a court will find it to be a "penalty" in law.

ParkingEye

when the relevant contract is not a contract of adhesion. The presumption that the best judges of what is a legitimate remedy for the parties themselves are the contracting parties themselves, particularly in the case of commercial parties with similar contracts and expert legal advice, will prevent a contractual remedy being awarded, since it will be rare that the innocent party is not compensated for the breach.

Section 113 of the Law of Contract Act 1999 applies *only* where a clause operates in the case of a breach of contract. Consider the following scenarios

- (i) A contract might require one party to carry out some act and might provide a sum of money in the event of *failure* to carry it out, i.e. a clause which might amount to a penalty.
- (ii) A contract might require one party to carry out some act and might provide a sum of money in the event of *failure* to carry it out, i.e. a clause which might amount to a penalty.
- (iii) There might instead be a clause requiring the transfer of property or with a sum of money payable in the event of breach (e.g. payment of a sum of money conditional on the occurrence of a breach) in which case that will also be a penalty clause.

A clause will not be a penalty clause if it is a primary obligation. The court will not be a penalty clause for the court to interpret whether a clause provides a penalty. It concludes that in substance a clause provides a penalty if it is a secondary obligation. Careful consideration of the drafting of a provision is primary or secondary is necessary. In the case of "(ii)" above, the provision is a primary obligation. Carrying out the relevant act but not increasing the chance that a court will find it to be a "penalty" in law.

In this case Mr Beavis overstayed his one hour parking limit in a car park serving a retail park and was charged £85. Notices throughout the car park advised drivers of this charge. Although he argued that the charge was a penalty (and so unenforceable) the court held that the parking charge was not an unenforceable penalty.

The decision was based on the fact that the main reasonable aims behind the charge: (i) it promoted the efficient use of the car park which was in the interest of the retail outlets and the general public; and (ii) the generation of a profit from, running the parking service.

The court said that ParkingEye's charge on overstayers was a reasonable means of meeting the car park's interest in charging motorists who park out of all proportion to its interest in the service of the car park. However, the charge was not out of all proportion to its interests despite the fact that the car park did not suffer any loss by the presence of overstayers. The charge was aimed at deterrence, not competition.

The court also addressed the application of the Unfair Contract Regulations 1999 to the £85 charge. We have not covered that aspect in this blog. It is interesting to note that the court considered that the charge was not unfair for the same reasons that it met the "legitimate interests" test.

Cavendish

In *Cavendish*, the Supreme Court considered whether the provisions in a share sale agreement were penalty clauses.

It is common in share sale agreements for the purchase price to be payable at a date which is later than the completion of the sale and for it only to be paid if certain conditions have been met and the seller has complied with restrictions on the use of the business. The purpose of those restrictions is to protect the goodwill of the business being sold. Such restrictions are more important where the purchaser is buying the business to expand its operations.

In this case, Mr Makdessi and Mr Gossoub bought the shares in a business that was owned by Cavendish. Cavendish then entered into an agreement to sell the shares, resulting in Cavendish holding a 40% stake. Part of the purchase price was payable in three instalments. The remainder was payable in two instalments. Those two instalments formed a large portion of the purchase price. Mr Makdessi agreed to be non-executive director of the company.

To protect the very substantial investment made by Cavendish not to compete in a

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honour that restriction after completion of the instalments of the purchase price. The court found that the clause required Cavendish to buy his remaining shares at a value at completion and Cavendish was to pay for his remaining shares for a sum that was to be determined by the court.

Mr Makdessi breached his undertakings and the clauses amounted to penalties which were enforceable.

The court said that both the forfeiture clauses and the option to require Cavendish to buy his remaining shares at a value at completion were not damages. As such, the forfeiture clauses were not enforceable. The court thought that although the clauses were not damages, they were not a deterrent, they were not a punishment since Cavendish was not to be punished for the breach undertaken by Mr Makdessi. However, the court found that the clauses did not create a penalty, i.e. in such a way that the defendant was not to be punished if Mr Makdessi complied with the restriction. The court found that the right to payment of the deferred purchase price was not a penalty.

One can perhaps better understand the court's decision by regarding the agreement between Mr Makdessi and Cavendish as an agreement that Mr Makdessi would be entitled to earn the full purchase price for the shares that preserved their value in the business. If the restriction adversely affected the value of the shares, Mr Makdessi's own retained shares (i.e. he had not sold them) would be devalued. The overall aim of the agreement was to ensure that Cavendish would acquire the business at a price reflecting its value. If Mr Makdessi and Cavendish were in a dispute, it was not for the court to value Mr Makdessi's shares. The court agreed that the clause would apply after completion of the purchase price, that even if the nature and effect of the clause was a "penalty" in law.

Final thoughts

The changes and clarifications in the law provided by the ParkingEye cases are to be welcomed because the law was before but also because the law is now clearer than it was before. The law is now clearer than it was before because the expectations of business people in the modern commercial world are higher than they were before.

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The changes and clarifications in the law provided by the ParkingEye cases are to be welcomed because the law was before but also because the law is now clearer than it was before. The law is now clearer than it was before because the expectations of business people in the modern commercial world are higher than they were before.