EUROPEAN FAMILY LAW
VOLUME II
The Changing Concept of ‘Family’ and Challenges for Domestic Family Law
Contents

List of contributors vii
Preface and acknowledgements viii
European family law – Introduction to the book set x
Jens M. Scherpe
Table of cases xiv
Table of legislation xxii

Introduction to European family law volume II: The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for domestic family law
Jens M. Scherpe

1 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in the Benelux countries 5
Frederik Swennen

2 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in England and Wales 22
Gillian Douglas

3 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in France 39
Laurence Francoz

4 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in Germany 65
Dieter Martiny

5 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in Greece 86
Eleni Zervogianni

6 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in Hungary 108
Orsolya Szeibert

7 The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in Ireland 127
Brian Sloan
15. The changing concept of ‘family’ and challenges for family law in Switzerland

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1. INTRODUCTION

In Switzerland family law is regulated in the Swiss Civil Code which came into force in 1912.¹ This was the first uniform federal codification. It remained almost untouched for 60 years. Since the 1970s, however,

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¹ Swiss Civil Code (CC) of 10 December 1907 (Schweizerisches Zivilgesetzbuch (ZGB)), SR 210.
Swiss family law has been amended and reformed step by step. The first step was the rules on adoption of children in 1973, followed by the general rules on the law of children in 1978 and the rules on the law of marriages in 1988. The new rules on divorce law entered into force in 2000 and have since been revised twice. Major changes relating to registered partnership for same-sex couples as well as to domestic violence were enacted in 2007. Family law proceedings have been addressed by the Swiss Code of Civil Procedure which came into force in 2011. The law on protection of adults as well as the law relating to names and citizenship have been revised as of 2013. Most recently, the new law on parental responsibility entered into force on 1 July 2014 and the revision of child support as well as of pension splitting have been adopted. Important legal changes relating to family law are still pending or must still be addressed in the future.

Before turning to the legal regulation of the family, some factual background is required. As in most Western industrialised societies Switzerland has seen major socio-demographic changes during the last decades. Over the last few years, the divorce rate in Switzerland has been around 40-50 per cent. In many cases minor children are affected by the divorce of their parents; in 2014 a total of 11,979 children were so affected. At the same time the marriage rate is in decline and the number of births out of wedlock is steadily increasing. Although the figure is still low by international standards (children born out of


[12] Articles 133, 134 (2–4), 179(1), 270a, 275(2) and 296 CC et seq; cf Message of the Federal Council of 11 July 2004 (Botschaft zur Schweizerischen Zivilgesetzbuches (Elterliche Sorge)), Bundesblatt 2011 9077 et seq, cited as Msg. Child Support; Amendments to the Swiss CC of 19 June 2015 (Schweizerisches Zivilgesetzbuch (Wirtschaftsgemeinschaft bei Scheidung)); cf Message of the Federal Council of 29 November 2013 (Botschaft zur Änderung des Schweizerischen Zivilgesetzbuches (Vorsorgeausgleich bei Scheidung)), BBl 2014 529 et seq, cited as Msg. Pension Splitting. At the time of writing any date of entering into force of both revisions has not yet been determined.


wedlock made up only slightly more than 21 per cent of all births in 2013), it is noteworthy that this percentage has more than doubled since 2000.

In Switzerland it is still the family, and primarily mothers, who look after children. A study made in 2009/2010 determined that full-time day care is on average only available for 11 per cent of preschool children and 8 per cent of children of school age. The employment situation reflects the lack of childcare facilities on the one hand and traditional perceptions of gender roles on the other. In 2014, in families with children 86 per cent of the fathers were employed full time, but only 15 per cent of the mothers. Similarly, only 10 per cent of the fathers were employed part time compared with 63 per cent of the mothers. Only 4 per cent of the fathers were not employed, but 22 per cent of the mothers were not in paid work. In families with children under the age of seven this figure rose to 27 per cent. Among single mothers, 29 per cent were working full time, 59 per cent part time and 12 per cent were not employed at all. Single parent families are more prone to poverty.

Switzerland, like most other Western industrialised societies, is an ageing society and currently has one of the highest life expectancies in the world. As at 2014 life expectancy for women was 85 years and for men 81 years. Persons of the same sex are not allowed to marry, although since 2007 they may enter into a special registered partnership. Marriage as an institution is still reserved for persons of the opposite sex. Persons of the same sex are not allowed to marry, although since 2007 they may enter into a special registered partnership.

2. HORIZONTAL FAMILY LAW

2.1 Marriage

2.1.1 General

The law relating to marriage was thoroughly revised in 1988. It was the declared aim of this reform to implement equality between husband and wife. Up to this date Swiss marriage law was still clearly patriarchal with the legal model of the husband as the sole breadwinner and the wife being responsible for the household and children. Even though the revision did not achieve full equality of husband and wife in all areas, many parts of Swiss society were resistant to these major changes and thus a referendum was initiated against the enactment, which was rejected in a very close vote.

2.1.2 Requirements for marriage

Marriage as an institution is still reserved for persons of the opposite sex. Persons of the same sex are not allowed to marry, although since 2007 they may enter into a special registered partnership.

Marriage may be entered into when both future spouses have reached majority, that is, 18 years of age. Marriage impediments have been constantly reduced during recent decades. Nowadays, only the marriage impediments of consanguinity and bigamy are upheld.

The wedding ceremony must take place in the presence of the civil registrar; no religious wedding ceremony is permitted prior to the civil ceremony.

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17 BFS, (available 18 July 2015 at http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/themen/01/06/blank/key/02/03.html).
18 Schweizerischer Nationalfonds NFP 60, Familienergänzende Kinderbetreuung und Gleichstellung, Schlussbericht, Zurich/St. Gallen, 28 October 2013, 26, table 2.
23 See above n 4.
24 Msg. Marriage, above n 4, 1192 et seq and in particular 1202 et seq.
26 BBI 1985 I 566 et seq.
27 BBI 1985 II 1433, 1436, votes in favour of the revision: 921,743 (54.7%), votes against the revision: 762,619 (45.3%).
28 See above n 7 and below section 2.3.
29 Article 94(1) CC.
30 Articles 95 and 96 CC.
31 Article 97(1) CC.
32 Article 97(3) CC.
2.1.3 General effects of marriage
In the marital union both spouses are bound to jointly care for the family and the children.\(^{33}\) As emphasised above, equality of the spouses has mostly been realised. Rather, the spouses agree on the contributions each of them will make, notably by providing money, looking after the household, caring for the children or supporting the other’s career or business.\(^{34}\) If one spouse makes extraordinary contributions to the marital union or if he or she contributes significantly more to the other’s career or business than required, he or she is entitled to reasonable compensation.\(^{35}\)

To safeguard the physical centre of the marital union, Swiss law contains special provisions to protect the family home. Even if one spouse is the sole tenant or owner of the family home, he or she can only dispose of any rights in respect to the family home with the express consent of the other spouse.\(^{36}\) Likewise, any termination of a tenancy agreement by the landlord must be addressed to both spouses regardless of who is the legal tenant.\(^{37}\)

2.1.4 Matrimonial property law
The regime concerning matrimonial property was also thoroughly revised in 1988. Primary regard was again given to the equality of the spouses, with the aim of equal participation in any marital gains by the spouse looking after the household and caring for the children.\(^{38}\)

In principle, Swiss law distinguishes between three different matrimonial property regimes. The ordinary regime is the regime of participation in acquisitions (Errungenschaftsbeteiligung).\(^{39}\) Swiss law further provides for a regime of separation of property (Gütertrennung)\(^{40}\) as well as a regime of community of property (Gütergemeinschaft).\(^{41}\) The two latter regimes can be agreed by the spouses by way of a marriage contract, whereas the former applies if the spouses have not agreed otherwise.\(^{42}\) It is estimated that more than 90 per cent of married couples in Switzerland live under the ordinary property regime (participation in acquisitions). Detailed statistics are not available because the former register for matrimonial property regimes was abolished in 1988.\(^{43}\)

The regime of participation in acquisitions can be described as follows. During the marriage there is no difference between the ordinary regime and the regime for separation of property. Each spouse retains sole ownership of his or her assets and may administer his or her property him- or herself without the need for the consent of the other spouse.\(^{44}\) The only restriction concerns the matrimonial home, as was described above. Each spouse is liable for his or her debts with all of his or her property.\(^{45}\)

Monetary consequences of the matrimonial property regime only arise upon its dissolution. The ordinary regime legally ends upon the dissolution of the marriage, whether by death, divorce or the like.\(^{46,47}\) Furthermore, it ends upon the spouses agreeing on a different property regime by way of a marriage contract.\(^{48}\)

Under the ordinary property regime each spouse’s assets are classified either as individual property (Eigengut)\(^{49}\) or as marital property (Errungenschaft).\(^{50,51}\) This results in four groups of property: the husband’s individual and marital property on the one hand, and the wife’s individual and marital property on the other hand. Upon the dissolution of the property regime each asset is assigned to one of these four categories.\(^{52}\) The contributions of one of the groups of property to another during the duration of the ordinary property regime must then be calculated. A possible increase in value is allocated proportionally to the contributions.\(^{53}\) Finally, each spouse may claim one half of the positive balance in the positive amounts in each category of property.

\(^{33}\) Article 159(2) CC.
\(^{34}\) Article 163 CC.
\(^{35}\) Article 165(1) CC.
\(^{36}\) Article 169(1) CC and article 266m(1) Swiss Code of Obligations (CO) of 30 March 1911 (Schweizerisches Obligationenrecht (OR)), SR 220.
\(^{37}\) Article 266n CO.
\(^{38}\) Article 198 CC.
\(^{39}\) Article 197 CC.
\(^{40}\) Article 196 CC.
\(^{41}\) Büchler and Vetterli, Ehe Partnerschaft Kinder – Eine Einführung in das Familienrecht der Schweiz (2nd edn, Helbing Lichtenhahn Verlag 2011) 59 et seq.
\(^{42}\) Büchler and Vetterli, above n 52, 64 et seq.
of the marital property of the other.\textsuperscript{54} The respective financial claims of the spouses are then set off.\textsuperscript{55}

The current ordinary property regime can be criticised for two main reasons. First, it is primarily designed for marriages with one breadwinner only and thus still aims at protecting the housewife. However, it is hardly appropriate for dual career couples, who often just forget to agree on a different property regime. Secondly, the detailed rules to calculate compensation claims for investments between the different property masses are not workable in practice, as they require exact value assessments for events long since passed.

2.2 Divorce

2.2.1 General

One of the major aims of the divorce reforms implemented in 2000 was to abolish the fault principle.\textsuperscript{56} This not only relates to the grounds of divorce but also to any and all consequences thereof.\textsuperscript{57} Switzerland thus followed the international development that other countries had begun in the 1960s. With the liberalisation of divorce, the annulment of marriage,\textsuperscript{58} which is still provided for in the Swiss Civil Code, has lost any significance.

2.2.2 Grounds for divorce

Since 2000 the Swiss Civil Code in essence distinguishes between two kinds of divorce: divorce by mutual consent\textsuperscript{59} and unilateral divorce. The latter can be decreed either after a certain period of factual separation\textsuperscript{60} or because the continuation of the marriage appears unacceptable for the claimant.\textsuperscript{61}

With regard to divorce by mutual consent, the legislature initially tried to prevent hasty divorces and thus to safeguard the institutional character of marriage by requiring the parties to reconfirm their willingness to divorce after two months.\textsuperscript{62} However, practitioners heavily criticised this reflection period,\textsuperscript{63} which was finally abolished in 2010.\textsuperscript{64}

The legislature also intended to limit easy access to unilateral divorce, by making it available only after the spouses had lived separately for four years. Again, this period has now been shortened considerably. Since 2004 only two years of separation are required before a unilateral divorce can be requested.\textsuperscript{65} As a consequence, unilateral divorce based on the ground that the continuation of the marriage is unacceptable, has lost importance.

2.2.3 Financial consequences of divorce

2.2.3.1 Pension splitting

One of the central aims of the divorce reform has been the implementation of pension splitting.\textsuperscript{66} All pension claims acquired during the marriage must be shared equally between the spouses.\textsuperscript{67} There is no hardship or escape clause; thus it does not matter if any of the spouses suffered any marriage-related detriments in relation to his or her pension claims. Freedom of contract in principle is not acknowledged in this field.\textsuperscript{68} Despite the prominent role given to pension splitting in the divorce reform, empirical studies have shown that in many cases where typically wives were entitled to benefit from pension splitting, they waived this right and the respective settlement found the approval of the court.\textsuperscript{69} In almost 50 per cent of all cases in fact no pension splitting had taken place.\textsuperscript{70} Thus pension splitting in many instances does not lead to the results envisaged by the legislature.

A legislative reform on pension splitting has just been adopted,\textsuperscript{71} aiming at more flexibility for divorce settlements and a better protection of the entitled spouse in cases where the other spouse is already drawing benefits.

\textsuperscript{54} Article 215(1) CC.
\textsuperscript{55} Article 215(2) CC.
\textsuperscript{56} Msg. Divorce, above n 5, 2 and 27 et seq.
\textsuperscript{57} Msg. Divorce, above n 5, 27.
\textsuperscript{58} Articles 104 CC et seq.
\textsuperscript{59} Article 111 and 112 CC.
\textsuperscript{60} Article 114 CC.
\textsuperscript{61} Article 115 CC.
\textsuperscript{63} Steck and Gloor, above n 62, 6.
\textsuperscript{64} Amtliche Sammlung (AS) 2010, 281 et seq.
\textsuperscript{65} AS 2004, 2161 et seq.
\textsuperscript{66} Msg. Divorce, above n 5, 2 and 31.
\textsuperscript{67} Article 122(1) CC.
\textsuperscript{68} Msg. Divorce, above n 5, 104; for divorce settlements of article 123 CC.
\textsuperscript{70} Baumann and Lauterburg, above n 69, 8 and 13.
\textsuperscript{71} See above n 13.
2.2.3.2 Spousal support  As in many legal systems spousal support is one of the most debated issues in Swiss divorce law. It was a real achievement of the reform of divorce law that it abandoned the concept of fault-based spousal support. However, the legislature did not succeed in introducing a clear and convincing concept of spousal support. There was much talk about the individual responsibility of each spouse after divorce, but also about post-divorce solidarity and compensation for marital detriments.

The Swiss Civil Code itself gives only limited guidance on spousal support. First, it states the principle that spousal support may only be sought if it is not reasonable for the respective spouse to cover his or her own support by him- or herself. This principle is often referred to as the ‘clean break’ principle, used in many legal systems in order to restrict spousal support. Secondly, a more or less haphazard list of criteria must be considered when deciding whether spousal support should be granted, and if so, in what amount and for how long. Finally, spousal support may be excluded in cases that could be labelled an abuse of right. In practice the following method has been developed: first, the minimum needed for both spouses including the children must be established; secondly, the possible relevant incomes are compared to the minimum needed by the earning spouse, in contrast, the minimum needed by the earning spouse, in any money, or when she or he remarries or even lives in a meaningful non-marital relationship, which is presumed after it has lasted practice the husband, should be left untouched. In 2006 the Swiss Supreme Court seemed to signal that it would be willing to reconsider this hotly debated issue. However, in 2008 the Court repeated its previous approach and shifted the responsibility to the legislature to change it. In the meantime the federal legislature concluded that it does not consider itself to have the necessary legislative competence to introduce deficit sharing by statute. Further attempts to introduce deficit sharing by statute or by a constitutional amendment in order to introduce the respective competence for the legislator have since then been rejected.

Another important aspect of spousal support is only just emerging: the special role of spousal support for the parent who is taking care of the children after the divorce. The need to take care of children is just one among eight different criteria in the Swiss Civil Code that must be taken into account in an assessment of spousal support. There are no special rules applying to this kind of spousal support. That means that just as in any other case of spousal support it may be excluded if deemed to be unconscionable. It can be reduced as soon as the caretaking spouse is earning any money, or when she or he remarries or even lives in a meaningful non-marital relationship, which is presumed after it has lasted

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72 See above n 56 and 57.
74 Article 125(1) CC.
77 Article 125(2) CC.
78 Article 125(3) CC.
79 Schwenzer in FamKomm, above n 73, article 125 nn 75-78.
80 Schwenzer in FamKomm, above n 73, article 125 nn 31-34.
81 BGE 123 III 1, 3 et seq; BGE 121 I 97, 99 et seq.
83 BGE 135 III 66, 79 et seq.
88 Article 125(2) No 6 CC.
89 Article 130(2) CC.
for five years.\textsuperscript{90} This issue has been addressed by the legislature as part of its revision of child support.\textsuperscript{91}

As regards the age of children before which the caregiving spouse cannot be expected to seek employment and thus be responsible for her or his own support, the Swiss Supreme Court has consistently applied the so-called '10/16 rule'.\textsuperscript{92} That means that the caregiving spouse is expected to take up part-time employment as soon as the youngest child has reached the age of ten; once the youngest child has reached the age of 16 it is expected that he or she will work full-time. However, trial courts regularly fall well below these thresholds.\textsuperscript{93}

In summary, probably as in many other countries, in Switzerland spousal support is losing acceptance more and more. A field study revealed that in more than 70 per cent of all divorces no spousal support was agreed upon by the parties nor ordered by the court.\textsuperscript{94}

\subsection*{2.2.4 Divorce proceedings}

In 2011 the Swiss Federal Code of Civil Procedure entered into force,\textsuperscript{95} finally abolishing 26 different cantonal statutes. The substantive family law in the Swiss Civil Code also already contained several procedural provisions, to guarantee at least a minimum of uniformity amongst the different cantons.\textsuperscript{96}

At the time of writing, except for one canton, no specialised family courts exist in Switzerland,\textsuperscript{97} despite numerous requests from scholars and practitioners alike and despite the fact that now more than 50 per cent of all cases in civil law matters tried before the judge of first instance are family law matters.

During the reform of divorce law, the issue of mediation was addressed. However, it was not possible to make it mandatory for the cantons to introduce the possibility of mediation in divorce proceedings.\textsuperscript{98}

\textsuperscript{90} BGE 118 II 235, 237 et seq.
\textsuperscript{91} See above n 13.
\textsuperscript{92} I Schwenzer in FamKomm, above n 73, article 125 n 59 with further references.
\textsuperscript{93} E Freivogel, 'Unterhaltsrecht quo vadis?' (2010) FamPra.ch 362, 366 et seq.
\textsuperscript{94} I Egli, 'Die Eigenversorgungskapazität des unterhaltsberechtigten Ehegatten nach Scheidung' in I Schwenzer and A Büchler (eds) Schriftenreihe zum Familienrecht (Stämpfli Verlag 2007) 154.
\textsuperscript{95} See above n 9.
\textsuperscript{96} Msg. CCP, above n 9, 7359.

Since then, out of court mediation has flourished on a private basis in Switzerland. The Federal Code of Civil Procedure which entered into force in 2011 acknowledged these positive developments and has for the first time established certain rules on mediation.\textsuperscript{98}

\subsection*{2.3 Same-sex Relationships}

In 2007 Switzerland introduced the possibility for same-sex couples to legalise their relationship via a registered partnership.\textsuperscript{99} While other countries opened up marriage to same-sex couples, Switzerland chose to enact a special statutory scheme outside the Civil Code, which shows the intention to separate registered partnerships from other family forms.\textsuperscript{100}

In essence, the rules for registered partnerships in many respects closely mirror those for heterosexual marriage. Often differences only concern semantics. However, substantive differences can be found as far as financial regulations during the on-going partnerships and upon dissolution are concerned. Furthermore, in order not to endanger the whole legislative project by a possible referendum rejecting the proposal, the legislature did not allow same-sex couples to adopt children or to gain access to medically assisted procreation.\textsuperscript{101} At the time of writing, a draft allowing step-parent adoption in same-sex relationships as well as adoption by a single person (living in a registered partnership) is pending.\textsuperscript{102}

Registered partnership property law reflects the legislature's concept of two economically independent individuals who pursue their careers separately and thus do not suffer any partnership-related detriments.\textsuperscript{103} The same holds true for support after dissolution of the partnership. After dissolution each of the partners is responsible for his or her own maintenance,\textsuperscript{104} except if one partner has given up his or her gainful employment for the common partnership\textsuperscript{105} or in cases where due to a

\textsuperscript{98} Generally articles 213-218 CCP and article 297 CCP with regard to matters relating to a child.
\textsuperscript{99} See above n 7.
\textsuperscript{100} I Schwenzer, 'Registrierte Partnerschaft: Der Schweizer Weg' (2002) FamPra.ch 223, 225.
\textsuperscript{101} Article 28 LRegP.
\textsuperscript{102} See above n 14.
\textsuperscript{103} Msg. LRegP, above n 7, 1311; Schwenzer, above n 100, 223, 226.
\textsuperscript{104} Article 34(1) LRegP.
\textsuperscript{105} Article 34(2) LRegP.
special need of one of the partners a support obligation appears appropriate in all the circumstances.\textsuperscript{106} However, registered partners are treated in the same way as heterosexual married spouses where pension splitting is concerned.\textsuperscript{107} This does not seem to be in line with the regime of separate property and in the end may yield unsatisfactory results.\textsuperscript{108}

2.4 Unmarried Cohabitation

At the time of writing, unmarried cohabitation, be it heterosexual or homosexual, has not received any statutory recognition in Switzerland. Until the 1990s unmarried cohabitation was even a criminal offence in some Swiss cantons.\textsuperscript{109}

The most urgent financial problems upon the dissolution of unmarried cohabitation since the 1980s have been addressed by the Swiss Supreme Court applying principles of the law of obligations relating to simple partnerships.\textsuperscript{110} If the unmarried partners have formed an economic unit with joint finances to which both have contributed either financially or through work and labour, compensation may be sought upon the dissolution of the unmarried union.\textsuperscript{111} In these cases everything depends on the interpretation of the common partnership goal pursued by the partners.\textsuperscript{112} However, up to now, only financial contributions or contributions in the form of work and labour in the joint or the other partner’s business gave rise to compensation. Taking care of the household and caring for the children did not amount to such financial contributions.\textsuperscript{113} Unmarried housewives and caregivers for children therefore remain unprotected even after decades of sacrifices for the family.

\textsuperscript{106} Article 34(3) LRegP.
\textsuperscript{107} Article 33 LRegP.
\textsuperscript{109} B Pulver, Unverheiratete Paare (Helbing und Lichtenhahn Verlag 2000), 10.
\textsuperscript{110} Cf M Cottier and C Crevoisier, ‘Die nichteheliche Lebensgemeinschaft als einfache Gesellschaft’ (2012) AJP 33 et seq.
\textsuperscript{111} BGE 108 II 204, 209.
\textsuperscript{112} Cottier and Crevoisier, above n 110, 33, 37.
\textsuperscript{113} Compensation was denied in BGer 4A_441/2007 (17.01.2008), where a woman in an unmarried cohabitation had taken care of the common child for 16 years.

2.5 Domestic Violence

Civil law remedies in cases of domestic violence were enacted in Switzerland in 2007.\textsuperscript{114} They are found in the chapter on the protection of personality rights. This ensures that these provisions apply irrespective of the legal status of the persons involved, and even encompass stalking by persons who are wholly unrelated to the victim.

In case of violence, threats or harassment two protective measures can be ordered. If the victim and the offender share the same residence, the victim can ask the court to evict the offender from the common home for a certain time.\textsuperscript{115} This period may be extended once.\textsuperscript{116} Furthermore and in all other cases the court may prohibit the offender from approaching the victim, may order the offender to stay beyond a certain distance from his or her apartment or other places, and not to contact or molest the victim in any way.\textsuperscript{117}

3. VERTICAL FAMILY LAW

3.1 Parentage

3.1.1 Motherhood

Under Swiss law motherhood is still based upon the principle mater semper certa est, which means that the birth mother is the legal mother of the child.\textsuperscript{118} Even in cases of split motherhood, where biological and genetic motherhood are different, this principle applies and the legal status of the birth mother may not be challenged.\textsuperscript{119}

3.1.2 Paternity

The starting point to determine paternity is whether a man is married to the birth mother or not.

In case of marriage the paternity presumption pater est quem nuptiae demonstrant applies. That means that the husband of the birth mother is

\textsuperscript{114} See above n 8.
\textsuperscript{115} Article 28b(2) CC.
\textsuperscript{116} Article 28b(2) last sentence CC.
\textsuperscript{117} Article 28b(1) CC.
\textsuperscript{118} Article 252 (1) CC.
the legal father of the child if the child was born during marriage or within 300 days of the husband’s death.120 There are no other requirements, such that even if paternity of the husband is improbable or impossible, he is still to be regarded as the father.121

If the mother is not married there is no paternity presumption under Swiss law, even in cases of cohabitation. A legal relationship between father and child arises by means of acknowledgement by the father.122 Genital paternity is not a requirement for acknowledgement.123 Besides acknowledgement by the father, it is possible for the mother and child to bring a paternity suit and have legal fatherhood of the genetic father established by a court decree.124

The possibility of a challenge to fatherhood varies depending on whether the presumed father is married to the mother or not. In case of the \textit{pater est} presumption, the husband may challenge his paternity,\textsuperscript{126} except in cases where he consented to insemination by another man including cases of medically assisted procreation with donor sperm.\textsuperscript{127} The child can only challenge the paternity of the husband of the mother if the joint household of the mother and the husband has been dissolved during the time the child is a minor.\textsuperscript{128} The mother may not challenge the husband’s paternity, and nor may the man claiming to be the genetic father of the child.\textsuperscript{129} The presumption of paternity by acknowledgement can be challenged much more easily. Everybody having a pecuniary or non-pecuniary interest in doing so can challenge the acknowledgement.\textsuperscript{130} This even includes the commune of origin or domicile of the man acknowledging the child.\textsuperscript{131}

It is now generally accepted that the Swiss provisions on paternity and especially those on challenges to paternity clearly contradict the provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) as well as the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) as they infringe upon the child’s right to know its origins in the case of married parents, exclude the genetic father from his child regardless of the circumstances of the case, and discriminate against children born out of wedlock.\textsuperscript{132}

\subsection{3.1.3 Medically assisted procreation}
Switzerland pursues a rather restrictive approach to medically assisted procreation by international standards. The statute on medically assisted procreation, which came into force in 2001,\textsuperscript{133} allows insemination with donor sperm in the case of a married couple only.\textsuperscript{134} Homologous insemination \textit{post mortem} is not allowed.\textsuperscript{135} Any treatments that could result in split motherhood such as egg donation, embryo transfer and surrogacy are prohibited.\textsuperscript{136} The law on registered partnerships furthermore explicitly excludes same-sex couples from medical reproductive treatments.\textsuperscript{137}

Although no paternity action may be brought against the donor of sperm,\textsuperscript{138} the child having reached the age of 18 is entitled to be informed about the physical appearance and personal data of the donor.\textsuperscript{139} Thus, the right to know one’s origins in a case of medically assisted procreation is secured.

\subsection{3.2 Adoption}

\subsubsection{3.2.1 General}
As in most legal systems, Swiss law provides for adoption as a means to generate a legal parent child relationship. During recent decades the focus has been on international adoption, as only few children are put up for adoption in Switzerland.\textsuperscript{140}
3.2.2 Prerequisites for adoption
Swiss law distinguishes between the adoption of minors and adoption of adults, putting the primary emphasis on the adoption of minors. The first consideration is the best interests of the child.

A minor child may be adopted after one year of foster care by the prospective parents. Joint adoption is only possible for a married couple; in general a married couple may only adopt jointly. However, in a step-parent adoption one spouse may adopt the child of the other spouse. For unmarried persons only single adoption is possible. Registered same-sex couples are excluded from both joint and single adoption. This exclusion has been heavily criticised and is now being discussed by the legislature.

Under Swiss adoption law certain age requirements exist. In general the prospective parent must have reached the age of 35; in the case of a married couple five years of marriage suffice. In any case, there must be an age difference of 16 years between the child and the prospective parent(s). However, no statutory upper age limit exists for the adoptive parent(s).

Both birth parents of the child must consent to the adoption. The consent of the child is required if the child has the respective capacity. Adoption of adults is only possible in exceptional cases if the adopting person has no other offspring and if a foster relationship has existed for at least five years.

At the time of writing, a reform of the law of adoption is pending. Amongst other amendments, the new law is introducing the possibility of step-parent adoption for same-sex relationships as well as for unmarried cohabitants, a change of the minimum age for the adopting parents from 35 to 28 years and a required duration of the relationship of an adoptive couple of three years.

3.2.3 Consequences of adoption
Since 1973 Swiss law has followed the principle of full adoption, in other words the child acquires the status of a legal child of the adoptive parent equivalent to any other parentage. Previous parent-child relationships are extinguished, except in the case of a step-parent adoption where the legal relationship with the father or mother who is married to the adoptive parent continues.

To secure the child’s right to know his or her origins, he or she is entitled to request information regarding the identity of his or her biological parents as soon as he or she reaches the age of 18.

3.3 Parental Responsibility

3.3.1 General
Parental responsibility, which is still called parental care (elterliche Sorge) in Switzerland, is linked to legal parentage. A person who is not a legal parent of the child cannot exercise parental responsibility. He or she may only be appointed as a guardian for a child. Parental responsibility encompasses the duty of upbringing and caring for a child as well as the power to represent the child in all dealings with third parties.

3.3.2 Attribution of parental responsibility
If the parents of a child are married, parental responsibility vests in both of them and they exercise it jointly during marriage.

If the parents of a child are not married, up until recently parental responsibility was primarily vested in the mother. It was not until the divorce reform in 2000 that the father could be awarded parental
responsibility upon the joint request of the parents after they had entered into an agreement regulating their shares of the childcare and the division of maintenance costs. Still this situation contravened the ECHR. The Swiss legislature has therefore reformed the rules on parental responsibility in order to strengthen the unmarried father's position. Although parental responsibility is not automatically conferred upon the unwed legal father he may at least initiate proceedings for joint parental responsibility even if the mother does not consent.

The step-parent does not possess parental responsibility as she or he is not a legal parent. However, she or he must give the other spouse reasonable support in exercising parental responsibility for the latter's children. The same applies in the case of registered same-sex partners.

3.3.3 Change of parental responsibility

If the parents have exercised parental responsibility jointly, in the case of the death of one parent sole parental responsibility automatically vests with the surviving parent. If the deceased parent exercised sole parental responsibility, the child protection authority may either confer parental responsibility upon the surviving parent or appoint a guardian for the child depending on what is in the child's best interests.

Until recently, in the case of divorce the court had to award parental responsibility to only one parent. Joint parental responsibility could only be awarded where the parents had submitted a joint request and concluded an agreement regulating their contributions to childcare and the division of maintenance costs. Since July 2014 joint parental responsibility is no longer affected by divorce; sole parental responsibility can, however, be conferred by the court upon one parent if this is necessary to safeguard the welfare of the child.

In cases of joint parental responsibility of unmarried parents, parental responsibility may be modified if this is in the child's best interests in the light of a substantial change of circumstances.

3.3.4 Visitation rights

Parents who do not hold parental responsibility are entitled to reasonable access to their under-age children, and vice versa. The justification for such visitation rights is found in the parent-child relationship itself. Persons other than parents, in particular relatives such as grandparents or siblings, may be granted access to the child only and to the extent that this serves the child's best interests.

3.4 Child Support

Legal parents are obliged to support the child. This obligation does not depend upon the parent being vested with parental responsibility. Maintenance is provided by caring for and raising the child and in the form of monetary payments. If at that time the child has not yet completed an adequate education, the support obligation continues until the child can complete his or her education.

A major revision of child support has currently being adopted by the legislature. First, the support obligation towards a minor child prevails over any other support obligations, be it towards adult children or a former spouse. Secondly, and most importantly, child support encompasses the costs incurred by the person caring for the child for foregoing

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163 Former article 298а(1) CC.
165 See above n 12.
166 Article 298а CC, the parents have to declare that they want to exercise joint parental responsibility; Msg. Parental Responsibility, above n 12, 9092.
167 Article 298b CC.
168 Article 299 CC.
169 Article 27(1) LRegP.
170 Article 297(1) CC.
171 Article 297(2) CC.
172 Former Article 133(1) CC.
173 Former Article 133(3) CC.
174 Former article 298а(1) CC.
175 Article 298(1) CC.
176 Article 298d CC.
177 Article 273(1) CC.
178 Article 274a(1) CC.
179 Article 276(1) CC.
180 Article 276(2) CC.
181 Final Vote on 20 March 2015, BBl 2015 2723, see above n 13.
182 According to 276a(2) CC the court may however, refrain from this general rule in order to avoid any disadvantages towards adult children entitled to maintenance.
183 Article 276a(1) CC.
gainful employment. This means that child support replaces the support obligation towards the former spouse who is caring for the child. Furthermore, for the first time under Swiss law an unwed mother receives financial support, at least indirectly, via child support.

Finally, the reform introduces the obligation of the court or the child protection authority to consider the possibility of alternating care in cases of joint parental responsibility of parents who are not living together if either the child or one of the parents requests this. This applies to divorced parents as well as to non-married parents.

4. INDIVIDUAL FAMILY LAW

4.1 Name

The statutory obligation of choosing a common family name upon marrying has been abolished. Until recently Swiss law was very strict in requiring a common family name in case of marriage. On the other hand, registered same-sex partners were denied the choice of such a common name. Since 2013 a new statutory regime on the name and citizenship of persons entered into force. Now married spouses keep their own name and are no longer forced to choose a common family name although they are still allowed to do so. Likewise this option is now also given to registered same-sex partners. If the couple chooses to carry a common family name, the spouse/partner forgoing his or her name may not add the previously carried name to the family name as was possible under the old law. However, it is a long-standing custom in Switzerland to hyphenate the previously carried name of the yielding partner with the family name.

Children of married parents acquire the family name if the parents have chosen such a name. If they decide to keep their names, they must determine which of the two names shall be given to any (and all) future children. However, within one year of the birth of the first child, married parents may revise their decision and request that the child bear the name of the other parent. In the case of unmarried parents it must be distinguished whether the parents exercise parental responsibility jointly or not. In the case of sole parental responsibility, the child receives the name of the parent vested with parental responsibility. If the unmarried parents exercise joint parental responsibility they must declare which name the child is to bear. If joint parental responsibility is established after the child's birth, the parents may, within one year after being awarded joint parental responsibility, request that the child bear the name of the other parent. If neither of the parents is vested with parental responsibility, the child receives the name of the mother. Any person may request to have his or her name changed if there are reasonable grounds to do so. The change of name is thus facilitated in comparison to the former law, which required a good cause. Furthermore, upon divorce or after the death of a spouse, the spouse whose name has not become the family name may revert to his or her birth name.

4.2 Change of Legal Gender

Swiss law concerning legal gender is firmly based on a binary system. Upon birth each person is either attributed to the masculine or the feminine gender.

Up until now, Swiss law has not had a statutory regime relating to the change of legal gender. Case law and legal scholars, however, suggest

187 Article 285(2) CC.
188 Article 125(2) No 6 CC.
189 According to Article 295(1) No 2 CC the unwed mother could until then claim compensation for costs of maintenance for 12 weeks only.
190 Art. 298(2ter) and 298b(3ter) CC.
191 Schwenzer and Bock, above n 107, 445, 449.
192 See above n 11.
193 Article 160(1) CC.
194 Pursuant to Article 160(2) CC they may choose the unmarried name of either the wife or the husband.
195 Article 12a(2) LRegP.
196 So-called Doppelname.
that a person may request a change of legal gender in the register on the civil status. In order to change legal gender in the register on the civil status, the Swiss Supreme Court 20 years ago held that the sex change must be irreversible. However, although infertility is still required, it has recently been held that a sex change surgery is not a compulsory prerequisite to register a change of legal gender.

Although marriage is restricted to persons of the opposite sex, there is no forced divorce if one of the spouses changes his or her legal gender. In March 2015 the Swiss Federal Council published its report answering the parliamentary request. In a first step, need for a political discussion on the revision of family law is identified in the following areas; assimilating the law of registered partnership to marriage or opening marriage to same-sex couples; introducing rules for non-marital cohabitation in cases of hardship; considering the introduction of a marriage "light". In a second step, among other issues, parental responsibility for non-parents is mentioned, as well as modernising the rules on parentage and those on medically assisted procreation.

Although there have been major revisions of Swiss family law during recent decades, it must be conceded that Switzerland more often than not trails behind the developments of other European countries. There are several areas where Swiss law does not yet comply with the requirements of international conventions on human rights. All in all, Swiss family law still embodies a rather traditional view of marriage and family and may not always be adequate to deal with the problems and demands of society and family in the 21st century.

5. FUTURE CHALLENGES

In 2012 a request was launched in the Swiss National Assembly asking the Swiss Federal Council to deliver a report on the adaptation of Swiss family law to the socio-demographic changes, most importantly with regard to the plurality of family relationships. Three expert opinions were published in 2013/14 which attracted significant attention throughout the Swiss media.

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208 For example BGE 119 II 264; cf H Voigt, Schweiz, in J Basedow and JM Scherpe (eds), Transsexualität, Staatsangehörigkeit und internationals Privatrecht (Mohr Siebeck, 2004), 64 et seq; A Büchler and M Cottier, ‘Transsexualität und Recht. Oder: Das falsche Geschlecht. Über Inkongrenz biologischer, sozialer und rechtlicher Geschlechterkategorisierungen’ (2002) FamPra.ch 20, 35 with further references.

209 BGE 119 II 264, 270.

210 Case NCO90012 of the Obergericht Zürich (2011) para 2.3.2.


212 Postulat Fehr 12.3607, ‘Zeitgemässes kohärentes Zivil- und insbesondere Familienrecht’ (15.06.2012).


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RECOMMENDED FURTHER READING


Cyril Hegnauer, 'Entwicklungen des schweizerischen Familienrechts' (2000) Die Praxis des Familienrechts (FamPra.ch) 1–23

P Pichonnaz and C Fountoulakis, 'Droit de la famille, procédure et exécution: un panorama des nouveautés', in C Fountoulakis, P Pichonnaz and A Rumo-Jungo (eds), Droit de la famille et nouvelle procédure. Aspects de droit de fond et de procédure. 6th symposium on droit de la famille 2011 Université de Fribourg (Schulhess 2012) 1–36.

