2nd Edition

A TREATISE

ON THE

LAW OF EVIDENCE.

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Quorsum enim sacræ leges inventæ et sancitæ fuere, nisi ut ex ipsarum justitia unicuique jus suum tribuatur? — MASCARDUS EX ULPIAN.

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PART IV.

OF THE EVIDENCE REQUISITE

IN CERTAIN

PARTICULAR ACTIONS AND ISSUES

AT

COMMON LAW.

A

TREATISE

ON THE

LAW OF EVIDENCE.

PART IV.

OF THE EVIDENCE REQUISITE IN CERTAIN PARTICULAR ACTIONS AND ISSUES, AT COMMON LAW.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

§ 1. Having, in the preceding Volume, treated, *First*, Of the Nature and Principles of Evidence, — *Secondly*, Of the Object of Evidence, and the Rules which govern in the production of Testimony, — and *Thirdly*, Of the Means of Proof, or the Instruments by which facts are established; it is now proposed to consider, *Fourthly*, The Evidence requisite in certain Particular Actions and Issues, at Common Law, with reference both to the nature of the suit or of the issue, and to the legal or official character and relations of the parties.

§ 2. We have already seen, that the evidence must correspond with the allegations, and be confined to the point in issue;[1] that the substance of the issue, and that only, must be proved;[2] that the burden of proof generally lies on the party holding the affirmative of the issue;[3] and that the best evidence, of which the nature of the case is susceptible, must be adduced.[4] These doctrines, therefore, will not be again discussed in this place.

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[1] Vol. 1, Pt. 2, ch. 1.
[2] Vol. 1, Pt. 2, ch. 2.
[3] Vol. 1, Pt. 2, ch. 3.
[4] Vol. 1, Pt. 2, ch. 4.

§ 3. The first thing, which will receive attention, in the preparation of a cause for trial, will naturally be the issue, or proposition to be maintained or controverted. In the early age of the Common Law, the pleadings were altercations in open Court, in presence of the judges; whose province it was to superintend or moderate the oral contention thus conducted before them. In doing this, their general aim was, to compel the pleaders so to manage their alternate allegations, as at length to arrive at some specific point or matter, affirmed on one side, and denied on the other. If this point was matter of fact, the parties then, by mutual agreement, referred it to one of the various methods of trial then in use, or to such trial as the Court should think proper. They were then said to be at *issue* (*ad exitum*, that is, at the *end* of their pleading); and the question thus raised for decision, was called the *issue*.[1] In this course of proceeding, every allegation, passed over without denial, was considered as admitted by the opposite party, and thus the controversy finally turned upon the proposition, and that alone, which was involved in the issue. This method was found so highly beneficial, that it was retained after the pleadings were conducted in writing, and it still constitutes one of the cardinal doctrines of the law of pleading.

§ 4. It will be observed, that, by the Common Law, the issue is formed by the parties themselves, through their attornies; the Court having nothing to do with the progress of the altercation, except to see that it is conducted in the forms of law; and it always consists of a single proposition, precisely and distinctly stated. The advantages of this mode over all others in use, especially where the trial is by jury, are strikingly apparent. The opposite to this method is that, which was pursued in the Roman tribunals, and which still constitutes a principal feature in the proceedings in the Courts of Continental Europe; by which the complaint of the plain-

[1] Stephen on Pleading, p. 29, 30.

tiff may be set forth at large, with its circumstances and in all its relations, even to diffuseness, in his bill or libel, and the answer and defence of the defendant may be made with equal variety and minuteness of detail. Proceedings in this form are utterly unfit for trial by a jury; and accordingly, when material facts are to be settled in Chancery, in England, the Chancellor directs proper issues to be framed and sent for trial to the Courts of Common Law. In the United States, the same course is pursued, wherever the Equity and Common Law jurisdictions are vested in separate tribunals. But where the Courts of Common Law are also clothed with Chancery powers, if important facts are asserted and denied, which are proper to be tried by a jury, the Court, in its discretion, will direct the making up and trial of proper issues, at its own bar.[1] In the Courts of the States of Continental Europe, where the forms of procedure are derived from the Roman Law, the necessity has been universally felt, of adopting some method of extracting from the multifarious counter-allegations of the parties the material points in controversy, the decision of which will finally terminate the suit; and various modes have been pursued, to attain this necessary object. In the Courts of Scotland, where the course of procedure is still by libel and answer, the practice, since the recent introduction of trials by jury, is for the counsel first to prepare and propose the issues to be tried, and if these are not agreed to, (or, which is more usual, are omitted to be prepared,) the Clerks frame the issues, which are sent to the Lord Ordinary for his approval. In all these methods, the point for decision is publicly adjusted by a retrospective selection from the pleadings; but in the more simple and certain method of the Common Law, the altercations of the parties, being conducted by the established rules of good pleading, will, by the mere operation of these rules, finally and unerringly evolve the true point in dispute, in the form of a single proposition.

[1] Charles River Bridge *v.* Warren Bridge, 7 Pick. 344.

§ 5. Of the issues, thus raised, some are termed *general issues;* others are *special.* The general issue is so called, because it is a general and comprehensive denial of the whole declaration, or of the principal part of it. The latter kind of issue generally arises in some later stage of the pleadings, and is so called by way of distinction from the former. The general issue, as will be more distinctly shown in its proper place, puts in controversy the material part of the declaration, and obliges the plaintiff to prove it, in each particular. Thus, upon the plea of not guilty, in trespass *quare clausum fregit,* the plaintiff must prove his possession by right as against the defendant, the unlawful entry of the defendant, and the damages done by him, if more than nominal damages are claimed. But if the defendant specially pleads, that the plaintiff gave him a license to enter, then no evidence of the plaintiff's title or possession, or of the defendant's entry, need be adduced, the fact of the license being alone in controversy.

§ 6. The form of the general issue in *assumpsit* is, "that the defendant did not promise (or undertake) in manner and form," &c. This would seem to put in issue only the fact of his having made the promise alleged; and so, upon true principle, it appears to have been originally regarded. But for a long time, in England, and still, in the American Courts, a much wider effect has been given to it in practice; the defendant being permitted, under this issue, to give in evidence any matter, showing that the plaintiff, at the time of the commencement of the suit, had no cause of action.[1] The same latitude has been allowed, under the general issue of not guilty, in actions of trespass on the case; by permitting the defendant not only to contest the truth of the declaration, but, in most cases, to prove any matter of defence, tending to show that the plaintiff has no right of action, even though the matter be in confession and avoidance, such for example, as a release, or a satisfaction given.[2]

[1] Stephen on Pleading, p. 179, 180. [2] Ibid. p. 182, 183.

§ 7. It is obvious, that so very general a mode of pleading and practice, is contrary to one of the great principles of the law of remedy, which is, that all pleadings should be certain, that is, should be distinct and particular; in order that the party may have full knowledge of what he is to answer, and to meet in proof at the trial, as well as that the jury may know what they are to try, and that the Courts may know not only what judgment to render, but whether the matter in controversy has been precisely adjudicated upon in a previous action. To the parties themselves, this distinctness of information is essential, on principles of common justice. These considerations led to the passage of an act,[1] in England, under which the Courts have corrected the abuse of the general issue, by restricting its meaning and application to its original design and effect.[2]

§ 8. Thus, in all actions of *assumpsit*, except on bills of exchange and promissory notes, the general issue, by the English rules, now operates only as a denial in fact of the express contract or promise alleged, or of the matters of fact, from which the contract or promise alleged may be implied by law. In actions on bills of exchange and promissory notes, the plea of *non assumpsit* is no longer admissible, but a plea in denial must traverse some particular matter of fact. All matters in confession and avoidance, whether going to the original making of the contract, or to its subsequent discharge, must now be specially pleaded. The plea of *non est factum*, in debt or covenant, is restricted in its operation, to the mere denial of the execution of the deed, in point of fact; all other defences, whether showing the deed absolutely void, or only voidable, being required to be specially pleaded. The plea of *non detinet*, also, now puts in issue only the detention of the goods, and not the plaintiff's property therein. In actions on the case, the plea of not guilty is now

[1] 3 & 4 W. 4, c. 42.

[2] See Regulæ Generales, Hil. T. 1834; 10 Bing. 453 - 475.

restricted in its effect to a mere denial of the breach of duty, or wrongful act, alleged to have been committed by the defendant, and not of the facts stated in the inducement; in actions of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, the same plea operates only as a denial, that the defendant committed the act alleged, in the place mentioned, and not as a denial of the plaintiff's possession or title; and in actions of trespass *de bonis asportatis*, this plea operates only as a denial of the fact of taking or damaging the goods mentioned, but not of the plaintiff's property therein.

§ 9. While the learned Judges in England have thus labored to restore this part of the system of remedial justice to more perfect consistency, by limiting the general issue to its original meaning, thus securing greater fairness in the trial, by preventing the possibility of misapprehension or surprise; the course of opinion in the United States seems to have tended in the opposite direction. The general issue is here still permitted to include all the matters of defence, which it embraced in England prior to the adoption of the New Rules; and in several of the States, the defendant is, by statute, allowed in all cases to plead the general issue, and under it to give in evidence any special matter pleadable in bar, of which he has given notice by a brief statement, filed at the same time with the plea, or within the time specified in the rules of the respective Courts.[1] In some States, however,

[1] See New York Rev. Stat. Vol. 2, p. 352, § 10; Maine Rev. Stat. ch. 115, § 18; LL. Ohio, ch. 822, § 48, (Chase's ed.); LL. Tennessee, 1811, ch. 114. In Massachusetts, this privilege is given only in certain specified cases. See Mass. Rev. St. ch. 21, § 49; ch. 58, § 17; ch. 85, § 11; ch. 100, § 26, 27; ch. 112, § 3; but in nearly all the States it is accorded to Justices of the Peace, and other public officers and their agents, in actions for anything done by them in the course of their official duties; our statutes being similar to 21 Jac. 1, c. 52, and the other English statutes on this subject. In Maine, the plaintiff may file a counter brief statement of any matter on which he intends to rely, in avoidance of the matter contained in the brief statement of the defendant; so that the substance of the Common Law of pleading is not totally abolished, though exceptions of form,

the course of remedy is by petition and answer, somewhat similar to proceedings in Equity.

§ 10. Amid such diversities in the forms of proceeding, it is obviously almost impossible to adjust a work like this to the particular rules of local practice, without at the same time confining its usefulness to a very small portion of the country. Yet as, in every controversy, under whatever forms it may be conducted, the parties must come at last to some material and distinct proposition, affirmed on one side and denied on the other; and as the declarations and pleas, and the rules of good pleading, adopted in the Courts of Common Law, exhibit the most precise and logical method of allegation, the principles of which are acknowledged and observed in all our tribunals, it may not be impracticable, by adhering to these principles, to lay down some rules, which will be found generally applicable, under whatever modifications of the Common Law of remedy justice may be administered. This will therefore be attempted in the following pages.

§ 11. A further preliminary observation may here be made, applicable to every action founded on a written document, namely, that the first step in the evidence on the side of the plaintiff, is the production of the document itself. If there is any variance between the document and the descrip-

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by special demurrer, can no longer be taken. Of the wisdom of such wide departures from the distinctness and precision of allegation required from both parties by the Common Law, grave doubts are entertained by many of the profession; especially where the rules do not require the plaintiff to file any notice of the reply, intended to be made to the matter set up in defence. Nor is it readily perceived how the Courts can administer equal and certain justice to the parties, without adopting, in the shape of rules of practice, or in some other form, the principle of the Common Law, which requires that each party be seasonably and distinctly informed, by the record, of the proposition intended to be maintained by his adversary at the trial, that he may come prepared to meet it. But these are considerations more properly belonging to another place.

tion in the declaration, it will, as we have previously seen,[1] be rejected. If the variance is occasioned by a mere mistake in setting out a written instrument, the record may generally be amended, by leave of the Court, under the statutes of amendment, of the United States, and of the several States; and in England, under Lord Tenterden's act.[2] Thus, where a written contract by letter was set forth as a promise to pay for certain goods, and on production of the letter, the contract appeared to be an undertaking to guarantee to the plaintiff the amount supplied, an amendment was permitted.[3] But if the variance is occasioned by the allegation of a matter totally different from that offered in evidence, it will not be amended. Thus, where, in a declaration for a malicious arrest, the averment was, that the plaintiff in that action "did not prosecute his said suit, but therein made default," and the proof by the record was, that he obtained a rule to discontinue, the plaintiff was not permitted to amend, the matter being regarded as totally different.[4]

§ 12. It is further to be observed, that though every part of a written document is descriptive, and therefore material to be proved as alleged, yet if, in declaring upon such an instrument, the allegation is, that it was *made upon such a day*, without stating that it *bore date* on that day, the day in the declaration is not material, and therefore need not be precisely proved; but if it is described as bearing date on a certain day, the date must be shown to be literally as alleged, and any variance herein will be fatal.[5] The date is not of the essence of the contract, though it is essential to the identity of the writing, by which the contract may be

[1] Vol. 1, § 61, 63, 66, 69, 70.

[2] 9 Geo. 4, c. 15. See also St. 3 & 4 W. 4, c. 42.

[3] Hanbury *v.* Ella, 1 Ad. & El. 61.

[4] Webb *v.* Hill, 1 M. & Malk. 253, per Ld. Tenterden.

[5] Coxon *v.* Lyon, 2 Campb. 307, n.; Anon. 2 Cambp. 308, n.; Cor. Ld. Ellenborough.

proved. The plaintiff therefore may always declare according to the truth of the transaction, only being careful, if he mentions the writing and undertakes to describe it, to describe it truly.[1]

§ 13. But an *immaterial discrepancy* between the record and the deed itself is not regarded. Thus, upon oyer of a deed, where the declaration was, that it bore date in a certain year of our Lord, and of the then king, and the deed simply gave the date thus — "March 30, 1701" — without mention of the Christian era, or of the king's reign, it was held well.[2] So, where the condition was, "without any fraud or *other* delay," the omission of the word "other" in the oyer was held immaterial.[3] Nor will literal mis-spelling be regarded as a variance.[4]

§ 14. Ordinarily, in stating an instrument or other matter in pleading, it should be set forth, not according to its *terms*, or its *form*, but according to its *effect in law;* for it is under its latter aspect, that it is ultimately to be considered. Thus, if a joint-tenant conveys the estate to his companion by the words "give, grant," &c., the deed is to be pleaded as a release, such only being its effect in law. So, if a tenant for life conveys to the reversioner by words of grant, it must be pleaded, not as a grant, but as a surrender.[5] So, where a bill of exchange is made payable to the order of a person, it may be declared upon as a bill payable to the person himself.[6] If no time of payment be mentioned, the instrument

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[1] Hague *v.* French, 3 B. & P. 173; De la Courtier *v.* Bellamy, 2 Show. 422.

[2] Holman *v.* Borough, 2 Salk. 658.

[3] Henry *v.* Brown, 19 Johns. 49.

[4] Cull *v.* Sarmin, 3 Lev. 66; Waugh *v.* Bussell, 5 Taunt. 707. The omission of the word "sterling," as descriptive of the kind of currency, is immaterial. Kearney *v.* King, 2 B. & Ald. 301.

[5] Stephen on Pl. 389, 390.

[6] Smith *v.* M'Clure, 5 East, 476; Fay *v.* Goulding, 10 Pick. 122.

should be declared upon as payable on demand.[1] If a bill be drawn or accepted, or a deed be made, by an agent in the name of his principal, it should be pleaded as the act of the principal himself.[2] And a bill payable to a fictitious person or his order, is, in effect, a bill payable to bearer, and may be declared on as such, in favor of a *bonâ fide* holder, ignorant of the fact, against all the parties who had knowledge of the fiction.[3]

§ 15. But, on the other hand, it will not always suffice to adhere to the *literal terms* of the instrument, in setting it forth in the declaration; for sometimes the true interpretation of the instrument itself may lead to a result totally different from the intendment of law upon the face of the declaration. Thus, where a bill was drawn and dated at Dublin, for a certain sum, and in the pleadings it was described as drawn "at Dublin, to wit, at Westminster," without any mention of Ireland, or of Irish currency, it was held, that here was a material variance between the allegation and the evidence. For though the place and the sum corresponded, even to the letter, yet by the legal interpretation of the bill, the currency intended was Irish, whereas by the allegation in the record, the Court could not legally understand any other than British sterling, because no other was averred, and the bill was not alleged to have been drawn in Ireland.[4] So, where a note was made without any mention of the time of payment, and none was averred in the declaration, the judgment was reversed, upon error brought, the plaintiff not having declared upon the contract, according to its legal effect, but on the evidence only.[5]

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[1] Gaylord *v.* Van Loan, 15 Wend. 308.

[2] Heys *v.* Heseltine, 2 Campb. 604.

[3] Chitty on Bills, 178; Bayley on Bills, 26, 431; Grant *v.* Vaughan, 3 Burr. 1516; Minet *v.* Gibson, 1 H. Bl. 569.

[4] Kearney *v.* King, 2 B. & Ald. 301.

[5] Bacon *v.* Page, 1 Conn. R. 404. But see Herrick *v.* Bennett, 8 Johns. 374, where such a declaration was held well on demurrer.

§ 16. In regard to the *proof* of the *formal execution* of deeds, bills of exchange, and other written documents, it was formerly the right of the adverse party to require precise proof of all signatures and documents, making part of the chain of title in the party producing them. But the great and unnecessary expense of this course, as well as the inconvenience and delay which it occasioned, have led to the adoption of salutary rules, restricting the exercise of the right to cases, where the genuineness of the instrument is actually in controversy, being either put in issue by the pleadings, or by actual notice given, pursuant to the rules of the Court.[1]

§ 17. If the *instrument* declared on is *lost*, the fact of the loss may be proved by the affidavit of the plaintiff, a founda-

[1] By the Rules of Hil. T. 1834, Reg. 20, (10 Bing. 456,) either party, after plea pleaded, and a reasonable time before trial, may give notice to the other of his intention to adduce in evidence certain written or printed documents; and unless the adverse party shall consent, in the manner therein prescribed, to admit their formal execution, or the truth of the copies to be adduced, he may be summoned before a Judge to show cause why he should not consent to such admission, and ultimately, if the Judge shall deem the application reasonable, may be compelled to pay the costs of the proof. See also Tidd's New Practice, p. 481, 482. In some of the United States, the original right to require formal proof of documents, remains as at Common Law, unrestricted by rules of Court. In others, it has been restricted either to cases where the genuineness of the document has been put in issue by the pleadings, or where previous notice of an intention to dispute it has been seasonably given; (Reg. Gen. Sup. Jud. Court Mass. 1836, Reg. LIII., 24 Pick. 399); or, where the attorney has been instructed by his client that the signature is not genuine; or, where the defendant, being present in Court, shall expressly deny that the signature is his. (Reg. Gen. Sup. Jud. Court Maine, 1822, Reg. XXXIII., 1 Greenl. 421.) In the Circuit Court U. S., First Circuit, the defendant is not permitted to deny his signature to a note or bill of exchange, or the signature of a prior indorser, unless upon affidavit made of reasonable cause, necessary for his defence. Reg. 34. In the Seventh Circuit, the rule requires that the defendant shall first make affidavit that the instrument was not executed by him. And this rule has been held to be legal, under the Judiciary Act of March 2, 1793, c. 22. Mills *v.* Bank of United States, 11 Wheat. 439, 440.

tion being first laid for this proof, by evidence, that the instrument once existed, and that diligent search has been made for it in the places where it was likely to be found.[1]

We now proceed to the consideration of the evidence to be offered under particular issues, in their order.

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[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 349, 558.

ABATEMENT.

§ 18. Such of the causes of abatement as may also be pleaded in bar, will generally be treated under their appropriate titles. It is proposed here to consider those only, which belong more especially to this title.

§ 19. The plea of *alien enemy* must be pleaded with the highest degree of legal certainty, or, as it is expressed in the books, with certainty to a certain intent in particular; that is, it must be so certain as to exclude and negative every case in which an alien enemy may sue. It therefore states the foreign country or place in which the plaintiff was born; that he was born and continues under allegiance to its sovereign, of parents under the same allegiance, or adherents to the same sovereign; that such sovereign or country is an enemy to our own; and, if he is here, that he came hither, or remains, without a safe conduct or license;[1] and that he has been ordered out of the country by the President's proclamation.[2] If the plaintiff should reply, that he is a native citizen and not an alien, concluding, as seems proper in such cases, to the country, the defendant has the affirmative, and must prove, that the plaintiff is an alien, as alleged in the plea.[3] If the plaintiff should reply, that he was *duly naturalized*, the proper evidence of this is the record of the Court

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[1] Casseres *v.* Bell, 8 T. R. 166; Wells *v.* Williams, 1 Ld. Raym. 282; 1 Chitty on Pl. 214; Stephen on Pl. 67. License and safe conduct are implied, until the President shall think proper to order the party, either by name or character, out of the United States. 10 Johns. 72.

[2] Stat. U. S. July 6, 1798 (ch. 75.); Clarke *v.* Morey, 10 Johns. 69, 72; Bagwell *v.* Babe, 1 Rand. 272; Russell *v.* Skipwith, 6 Binn. 241.

[3] Jackson on Pleading in Real Actions, p. 62, 65; Smith *v.* Dovers, 2 Doug. 428.

in which it was done. If the judgment is entered on record in legal form, it closes all inquiry, it being, like other judgments, complete evidence of its own validity.[1] These proceedings in naturalization have been treated with great indulgence, and the most liberal intendments made in their favor.[2] The oath of allegiance appearing to have been duly taken, it has been held, that no order of the Court, that he be admitted to the rights of a citizen, was necessary, the record of the oath amounting to a judgment of the Court for his admission to those rights.[3] And such record is held conclusive evidence, that all the previous legal requisites were complied with.[4]

§ 20. If the plea is founded on a defective or improper *service of the process*, as, for example, that it was served on Sunday, the day will be taken notice of by the Court, and any almanac may be referred to. So, if the service is made on any other day, on which, by public statute, no service can be made, the like rule prevails; and this, whether the day is fixed by the statute, or by proclamation by the Executive.[5]

§ 21. If the defendant, in pleading a *misnomer*, allege that he was *baptized* by such a name, though the averment of his baptism was unnecessary, yet he is bound to prove the allegation, as laid, by producing the proper evidence of his baptism.[6] This may be proved by production of the register of his baptism, or, a copy of the registry or record, duly authenticated, together with evidence of his identity with the person there named.[7] If there is no averment of the

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[1] Spratt *v.* Spratt, 4 Pet. 393, 408.

[2] Priest *v.* Cummings, 16 Wend. 617, 625.

[3] Campbell *v.* Gordon, 6 Cranch, 176.

[4] Stark *v.* The Chesapeake Ins. Co. 7 Cranch, 420; Ritchie *v.* Putnam, 13 Wend. 524; Spratt *v.* Spratt, 4 Pet. 393.

[5] Ante, Vol. I, § 5, 6.

[6] Ante, Vol. I, § 60; Weleker *v.* Le Pelletier, 1 Campb. 479.

[7] Ante, Vol. I, § 484, 493.

fact of baptism, the name may be proved by any other competent evidence, showing that he bore and used that name.[1]

§ 22. In *criminal cases*, it is a good objection, in abatement, that twelve of the grand jury did not concur in finding the bill; in which case the fact may be shown by the testimony of the grand jurors themselves, it not being a secret of State, but a constitutional right of the citizen.[2]

§ 23. In real actions, *non-tenure* is classed among pleas in abatement, because it partakes of the character of dilatory pleas; though it shows that the tenant is not liable to the action, in any shape, inasmuch as he does not hold the land.[3] The replication, putting this fact in issue, alleges that the tenant "was tenant as of freehold of the premises," and concludes to the country. Tenure may be proved, *primâ facie*, by evidence of actual possession.[4] It is also shown, by proof of an entry with claim of title;[5] or, by a deed of conveyance from a grantor in possession.[6] If a *disclaimer* is pleaded in abatement, the only advantage in contesting it seems to be the recovery of costs, where they are given by statute to the party prevailing. In such cases, the only proper replication

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[1] Holman *v.* Walden, 1 Salk. 6.

[2] Low's case, 4 Greenl. 439.

[3] 2 Saund. 44, n. (4); Jackson on Pl. in Real Actions, p. 91. The form of the plea is this: — "And the said T. comes and defends his right, when, &c. and says, that he cannot render to the said D. the tenements aforesaid with the appurtenances, because he says, that he is not, and was not on the day of the purchase of the original writ in this action, nor at any time afterwards, tenant of the said tenements as of freehold; and this he is ready to verify. Wherefore he prays judgment of the writ aforesaid, and that the same may be quashed; and for his costs." See Jackson on Plead. in Real Actions, p. 93; Story's Pleadings, p. 41; Stearns on Real Actions, App. No. 49.

[4] Newhall *v.* Wheeler, 7 Mass. 189, 199.

[5] 1 Mass. 484; per Sewall, J.; Prop'rs Kennebec Purchase *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416; Higbee *v.* Rice, 5 Mass. 344, 352.

[6] Pidge *v.* Tyler, 4 Mass. 541; Knox *v.* Jenks, 7 Mass. 488.

is the same, in form, as to the plea of non-tenure, as before stated.[1]

§ 24. The *non-joinder* of proper parties is also pleadable in abatement. If the defendant plead that he made the promise jointly with another, the plea will be maintained by evidence of a promise jointly with an infant;[2] for the promise of an infant is in general voidable only, and not void;[3] and it is good until avoided by himself. If he has avoided the promise, this fact will constitute a good replication, and must be proved by the plaintiff. Where the plea was, that several persons, named in the plea, being the assignees of H., a bankrupt, ought to have been joined as co-defendants, it was held, that proof of their having acted as assignees was not sufficient, and that nothing less than proof of the assignment itself would satisfy the allegation.[4] And if, on the face of the assignment, it should appear that there were other as-

[1] Jackson's Plead. p. 100, 101. The form of a general disclaimer, in abatement, is as follows: — "And the said T. comes and defends his right when, &c. and says that he has nothing, nor does he claim to have any thing, in the said demanded premises, nor did he have, nor claim to have, any thing therein on the day of the purchase of the original writ in this action, nor at any time afterwards; but he wholly disclaims to have any thing in the said premises; and this he is ready to verify; wherefore he prays judgment of the writ aforesaid, and that the same may be quashed; and for his costs." Ib. p. 100.

[2] Gibbs *v.* Merrill, 3 Taunt. 307; Woodward *v.* Newhall, 1 Pick. 500. The form of such plea may be thus: — "And the said D. comes, &c., when, &c., and prays judgment of the writ and declaration aforesaid, because he says that the said several promises in said declaration mentioned, were and each of them was made by one A. B. *jointly* with the said D.; which A. B. is still alive, to wit, at ——, and this he is ready to verify. Wherefore, because the said A. B. is not named in said writ and declaration, the said D. prays judgment of said writ and declaration, and that the same may be quashed." Story's Pl. 35; 1 Wentw. Pl. 17; 1 Chitty's Precedents, p. 197; Gould *v.* Lasbury, 1 C. M. & R. 254; Gale *v.* Capern, 1 Ad. & El. 102.

[3] Fisher *v.* Jewett, 1 Berton's R. 35. In this case, upon an able review of the authorities, it was held, by the learned Court of the Province of New Brunswick, that an infant's negotiable note was voidable only, and not void. See also 2 Kent, Comm. 234 – 236.

[4] Pasmore *v.* Bousfield, 1 Stark. R. 296, Per Ld. Ellenborough.

signees, not named in the plea, this would falsify the plea.[1] If, upon the plea of the non-joinder of other partners as defendants, it is proved that, though the contract was made in the name of the firm, it was made by the agency of the defendant alone, and for his own use, and the proceeds were actually so applied by him, in fraud of his partners, the plea will not be maintained.[2]

§ 25. In cases of *partnership*, if one be sued alone, and plead this plea, proof of the existence of secret partners will not support it, unless it also appears that the plaintiff had knowledge of the fact at the time of the contract.[3] If he subsequently discovers the existence of a secret partner, he may join him or not in the action.[4] But if the partnership is ostensible and public, and one partner buys goods for the use of the firm, and in the ordinary course of the partnership business, and is sued alone for the price; proof that the goods were so bought and applied, will support the plea of non-joinder, though the plaintiff did not, in fact, know of the existence of the partnership, unless there are circumstances showing that the partner dealt in his own name.[5] Any acts done by the defendant in these cases, such as writing letters in his own name, and the like, tending to show that he treated the contract as his own and not his partners', may be given in evidence by the plaintiff, to disprove the plea.[6] If

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[1] Pasmore *v.* Bousfield, 1 Stark. R. 296, Per Ld. Ellenborough.

[2] Hudson *v.* Robinson, 4 M. & S. 475. So, if one partner was an infant, and the bill was accepted by the other, in the name of the firm, it has been held, that he was chargeable in a special count, as upon an acceptance by himself in the name of the firm. Burgess *v.* Merrill, 4 Taunt. 468. See further as to abatement, Post, tit. Assumpsit, § 110, 130 - 134.

[3] Baldney *v.* Ritchie, 1 Stark. R. 338. But if the suit is against one secret partner, it is cause of abatement, that another secret partner is not joined. Ela *v.* Rand, 4 N. Hamp. 307; Story on Partn. § 241; Post, tit. Assumpsit, § 110, 130 - 134.

[4] Ibid.; De Mautort *v.* Saunders, 1 B. & Ad. 398; Ex parte Norfolk, 19 Ves. 455, 458; Mullett *v.* Hook, 1 M. & Malk. 88.

[5] Alexander *v.* McGinn, 3 Watts, 220.

[6] Murray *v.* Somerville, 2 Campb. 99, n.; Clark *v.* Holmes, 3 Johns.

both partners reside abroad, and one alone being found in this country is sued here, and pleads the non-joinder of the other in abatement, his foreign domicil and residence is a good answer to the plea.[1] So, the bankruptcy and discharge of the other, is made by statute[2] a good replication.

§ 26. Where the *pendency of a prior suit* is pleaded in abatement, the plea must be proved by production of the record, or an exemplification, duly authenticated.[3] If the priority is doubtful, both suits being commenced on the same day, it will be determined by priority of service of process.[4] And if both suits were commenced at the same time, the pendency of each abates the other.[5]

149; Hall *v.* Smith, 1 B. & C. 407; Marsh *v.* Ward, Peake's Cas. 130.

[1] Guion *v.* McCulloch, N. Car. Cas. 78. By Stat. 3 & 4 W. 4, c. 42, § 8, the plea itself is bad, unless it shows, that the other party is resident within the jurisdiction.

[2] Stat. 3 & 4 W. 4, c. 42, § 9. *Quære*, whether it be good by the Common Law; and see *post*, tit. Assumpsit, § 135.

[3] Commonwealth *v.* Churchill, 5 Mass. 174; Parker *v.* Colcord, 2 N. Hamp. 36.

[4] Morton *v.* Webb, 7 Vermont R. 124.

[5] Beach *v.* Norton, 8 Conn. R. 71; Haight *v.* Holley, 3 Wend. 258. One form of the plea of prior action pending, is as follows: — "And the said [defendant] comes and defends &c., when &c., and says, that he ought not to be compelled to answer to the writ and declaration of the plaintiff aforesaid, because he says, that the plaintiff heretofore, to wit, at the [*here describe the Court and Term*] impleaded the said [defendant] in a plea of ———, and for the same cause in the declaration aforesaid mentioned; as by the record thereof, in the same Court remaining, appears; and that the parties in the said former suit and in this suit are the same parties; and that the said former suit is still pending in the said Court last mentioned; and this he is ready to verify. Wherefore he prays judgment if he ought to be compelled to answer to the writ and declaration aforesaid, and that the same may be quashed," &c. Story's Pleadings, p. 65; 1 Chitty's Precedents, p. 201. The last averment, that the former suit is still pending, is generally inserted; but it has been held to be unnecessary, it being sufficient if the plaintiff has counted in the first action, so that it may appear of record, that both were for the same cause. See Commonwealth *v.* Churchill, 5 Mass. 177, 178; 39 H. 6, 12, pl. 16; Parker *v.* Colcord, 2 N.

§ 27. In all cases where a fact is pleaded in abatement, and issue is taken thereon, if it be found for the plaintiff, the judgment is peremptory and in chief, *quod recuperet.*[1] The plaintiff should therefore come prepared to prove his damages; otherwise, he will recover nominal damages only.[2]

Hamp. 36; Gould on Pleading, ch. 5, § 125. But see Toland *v.* Tichenor, 3 Rawle, R. 320.

[1] Eichorn *v.* Le Maitre, 2 Wils. 367; Bowen *v.* Shapcott, 1 East, 542; Dodge *v.* Morse, 3 N. H. 232; Jewett *v.* Davis, 6 N. H. 518.

[2] Weleker *v.* Le Pelletier, 1 Campb. 479.

ACCORD AND SATISFACTION.

§ 28. In the plea of accord and satisfaction, the issue is upon the delivery or acceptance of something, in satisfaction of the debt or damages demanded.[1] In cases of contract for the payment of a sum of money, the payment of a less sum will not be a good satisfaction; unless it was either paid and accepted before the time when it was to have been paid, or at a different place from that appointed for the payment. But the acceptance of a collateral thing, of value, whenever and wherever delivered, is a good satisfaction. And if the action is for general and unliquidated damages, the payment and acceptance of a sum of money as a satisfaction, is a good bar.[2] But if the action is upon covenant, the satisfaction must have

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[1] The plea is, that, "after the making of the promises in the declaration mentioned," (in *assumpsit*) or, "after committing the said supposed *grievances* in the declaration mentioned," (in *case*,) or, "*trespasses*," (in *trespass*,) or, "after the making of the said writing obligatory," (in *debt*, or *covenant*,) "to wit, on, (&c.) and before (*or after*) the commencement of this suit, he the said (*defendant*) delivered to the plaintiff, and the plaintiff then accepted and received of and from the said (*defendant*) [*here describing the goods or thing delivered*] of great value, in full satisfaction and discharge of the several promises," [*or*, damages, *or*, debts and moneys, *as the action may be*,] "in the declaration mentioned, and of all the damages by the plaintiff sustained by reason of the non-performance," [*or*, non-payment, *as the action may be*] "thereof. And this," &c. The usual form of the replication is by protesting the delivery of the thing, and traversing the acceptance of it in satisfaction. Chitty's Precedents, p. 205, 444 a., 619; Story's Pleadings, p. 120, 156; Stephen on Pl. 235, 236.

[2] Fitch *v.* Sutton, 5 East, 230; Steinman *v.* Magnus, 11 East, 390; Co. Lit. 212 b; Cumber *v.* Wane, 1 Stra. 426; Thomas *v.* Heathorn, 2 B. & C. 477; Pinnel's case, 5 Co. 117; Smith *v.* Brown, 3 Hawks, 580; Wilkinson *v.* Byers, 1 Ad. & El. 113, per Parke, J.; Watkinson *v.* Inglesby, 5 Johns. 391, 392; Seymour *v.* Minturn, 17 Johns. 169. But payment and acceptance of the principal sum, in full, without the interest, is sufficient. Johnston *v.* Brannan, 5 Johns. 271.

been made after breach; for if it were before breach, it is not good.[1] And where a duty in certain accrues by deed, *tempore confectionis scripti*, as, by an obligation to pay a certain sum of money, this certain duty having its origin and essence in the deed alone, the obligation, it seems, is not discharged but by deed; and therefore a plea of accord and satisfaction of the bond by matter *en pais* would be bad; but if it were a bond with condition, and the plea in such case had been in discharge of the sum mentioned in the condition of the bond, it would be good.[2]

§ 29. In the United States, an accord with satisfaction may be *given in evidence* under the general issue in *assumpsit*, and in actions on the case; but in debt, covenant, and trespass, it must be specially pleaded. In England, since the late Rules, it must be specially pleaded in all cases.[3]

§ 30. As to the *parties to an accord*, proof of an accord and satisfaction made by one of several joint obligors, or joint trespassers, is good and available to all.[4] So, if it is made to one of several plaintiffs, though no authority appear from the

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[1] Kaye *v.* Waghorne, 1 Taunt. 428; Snow *v.* Franklin, Lutw. 108; Smith *v.* Brown, 3 Hawks, 580; Harper *v.* Hampton, 1 H. & J. 675.

[2] Blake's case, 6 Co. 43; Neal *v.* Sheffield, Yelv. 192; Cro. Jac. 254; S. C. Story's Plead. 157, note; Preston *v.* Christmas, 2 Wils. 86; Strang *v.* Holmes, 7 Cow. 224.

[3] 1 Chitty on Pl. 418, 426, 429, 432, 441; Bird *v.* Randall, 3 Burr. 1353; Chitty's Prec. 477, 478; Weston *v.* Foster, 2 Bing. N. C. 693; 1 Stephens's Nisi Prius, 391. Where the plaintiff, in an action of slander, agreed to waive the action, in consideration that the defendant would destroy certain writings relative to the charge; and he accordingly destroyed them, this was held admissible under the general issue, as evidence of an accord and satisfaction. Lane *v.* Applegate, 1 Stark. R. 97.

[4] Strang *v.* Holmes, 7 Cow. 224; Ruble *v.* Turner, 2 Hen. & M. 38. If several tortfeasors are jointly sued, and a sum of money is accepted from one of them, and the action is thereupon dropped, this may be shown as a full satisfaction in bar of a subsequent action against the others. Dufresne *v.* Hutchinson, 3 Taunt. 117.

others to make the agreement.[1] If the action is for an act done by the defendant as the servant of another, an accord and satisfaction by the latter is a good defence.[2] And as to the *subject matter*, it is not necessary that it proceed directly from the defendant; the obligation or security of a third person who is *sui juris*, is sufficient,[3] if it be accepted in satisfaction of the whole amount, and not of a part only;[4] though it may be of a less amount than was actually due.[5] It is well settled that an accord, alone, not executed, is no bar to an action for a pre-existing demand. And the rule is equally clear, that the person who is to be discharged is bound to do the act which is to discharge him; and not the other party.[6]

§ 31. Whether an accord, with a *tender of satisfaction*, is sufficient, without acceptance, is a point upon which the authorities are not agreed. It is, however, perfectly clear, that a mere agreement to accept a less sum in composition of a debt, is not binding, and cannot be set up in bar of an action upon the original contract.[7] Thus, where an agreement was made between a debtor and his creditors, that the latter should accept five shillings and six pence in the pound, in full satisfaction of their respective debts, which sum was tendered and refused; it was held, that this constituted no bar to an action for the whole debt, for it was without consideration;

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[1] Wallace *v.* Kelsall, 7 M. & W. 264. But if the payment be to one of the plaintiffs for his part only of the damages, it is no bar to the action. Clark *v.* Dinsmore, 5 N. Hamp. 136.

[2] Thurman *v.* Wild, 11 Ad. & El. 453.

[3] Kearslake *v.* Morgan, 5 T. R. 513; Booth *v.* Smith, 3 Wend. 66; Wentworth *v.* Wentworth, 5 N. Hamp. 410; Bullen *v.* M'Gillicuddy, 2 Dana, 90.

[4] Walker *v.* Seaborne, 1 Taunt. 526.

[5] Steinman *v.* Magnus, 11 East, 390; Lewis *v.* Jones, 4 B. & C. 506, 513; Reay *v.* White, 1 C. & M. 748; Cranley *v.* Hillary, 2 M. & S. 120.

[6] Cranley *v.* Hillary, 2 M. & S. 120, 122.

[7] Cumber *v.* Wane, 1 Stra. 425; 1 Smith's Leading Cases, p. 146, (Am. Ed.); 43 Law Lib. 249–263.

though it was admitted, that had the debtor assigned his effects to a trustee, under an agreement for this purpose, it would have constituted a good consideration, and would have been valid.[1] So, where the agreement was to receive part of the debt in money, and the residue in specific articles, no tender of the latter being averred, though it was alleged that the defendant was always ready to perform, the plea was held bad, the accord being only executory.[2] But whether, where the agreement is for the performance of some collateral act, and is upon sufficient consideration, a tender of performance is equivalent to a satisfaction, seems still to be an open question; though the weight of authority is in the affirmative. In one case, which was very fully considered, it was laid down as a rule, warranted by the authorities, that a contract or agreement, which will afford a complete recompense to a party for an original demand, ought to be received, as a substitute and satisfaction for such demand, and is sufficient evidence to support a plea of accord and satisfaction.[3] Therefore, where the holder of a promissory note, agreed in writing with the indorser, to receive payment in coals at a stipulated price, and they were tendered accordingly, but refused, the agreement and tender were held to be a sufficient accord and satisfaction to bar an action on the note.[4] So, where a man's creditors agreed to take a composition on their respective debts, to be secured partly by the acceptances of a third person, and partly by his own notes, and to execute a compo-

[1] Heathcote *v.* Crookshanks, 2 T. R. 24. To the same effect are Tassall *v.* Shane, Cro. El. 193; Balston *v.* Baxter, Ib. 304; Clark *v.* Dinsmore, 5 N. Hamp. 136; Lynn *v.* Bruce, 2 H. Bl. 317.

[2] Rayne *v.* Orton, Cro. El. 305; James *v.* David, 5 T. R. 141.

[3] Coit *v.* Houston, 3 Johns. Cas. 249, per Thompson, J.; Case *v.* Barber, T. Raym. 450. The later case of Allen *v.* Harris, 1 Ld. Raym. 122, that an accord upon mutual promises is not binding, because no action lies upon mutual promises, admits the general doctrine of the text, though it differs in its application. The same is true of Preston *v.* Christmas, 2 Wils. 86.

[4] Coit *v.* Houston, 3 Johns. Cas. 243. The same principle seems to have been conceded by Ashhurst and Grose, Js. in James *v.* David, 5 T. R. 141.

sition-deed, containing a clause of release; it was held by Lord Ellenborough, that an action for the original debt could not be maintained by a creditor, who had promised to come in under the agreement, to whom the acceptances and notes were regularly tendered, and who refused to execute the composition-deed, after it had been executed by all the other creditors; the learned Judge remarking, that a party should not be permitted to say there is no satisfaction, *to whom satisfaction* has been tendered, according to the terms of the accord.[1] But it has since been held, in this country, that a readiness to perform a collateral agreement is not to be taken for a performance, or as the satisfaction required by law.[2]

§ 32. If the defendant *pleads payment and acceptance* of a sum of money in satisfaction, and the plaintiff replies, traversing the acceptance in satisfaction, this *puts both facts in issue;* and the defendant must therefore prove the payment, as well as the acceptance in satisfaction.[3]

§ 33. The plea of accord and satisfaction may often be *proved by the lapse of time* and acquiescence of the parties. Thus, it has been held, in an action upon a covenant against incumbrances, that the lapse of twenty years after damages sustained by the breach, unless rebutted by other evidence, was sufficient proof of the plea.[4]

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[1] Bradley *v.* Gregory, 2 Campb. 383.

[2] Russell *v.* Lytle, 6 Wend. 390. But in this case, the decision of the same Court in Coit *v.* Houston, many years before, was not cited or adverted to, and the question was decided upon the earliest authorities. Yet in several of these, the reason why an accord without satisfaction is not binding, is stated to be, that the plaintiff has no remedy upon the accord; thus tacitly seeming to admit that, where there is such remedy, the accord with a tender of satisfaction is sufficient. 1 Roll. Abr. tit. Accord, pl. 11, 12, 13; Allen *v.* Harris, 1 Ld. Raym. 122; Brook. Abr. tit. Accord, &c., pl. 6; 16 Ed. 4, 8, pl. 6. So in Lynn *v.* Bruce, 2 H. Bl. 317. See, however, Hawley *v.* Foote, 19 Wend. 516, where an agreement to accept a collateral thing in satisfaction, with a tender and refusal, was held not a good bar.

[3] Ridley *v.* Tindall, 7 Ad. & El. 134.

[4] Jenkins *v.* Hopkins, 9 Pick. 543.

ACCOUNT.

§ 34. The remedy at Common Law, by the action of account, has fallen into disuse in most parts of the United States; suits by bill in Chancery, or by action of *assumpsit*, being resorted to in its stead. It is, however, a legal remedy, where not abolished by statute.

§ 35. This action lies at Common Law between merchants, naming them such, between whom there was privity; also against a guardian in socage by the heir; and against bailiffs and receivers.[1] And by statutes it lies between joint-tenants and tenants in common, and their personal representatives; and by and against the executors and administrators of those who were liable to this action.[2] But it does not lie against an infant; nor against a wrongdoer, or any other person, where no privity exists.[3]

§ 36. Where the action is against one as receiver, it is necessary to set forth by whose hands the defendant received the money; but where he is charged as bailiff, it is not necessary.[4] But it seems he may be charged in both capacities, in the same action.[5] The pleas in bar appropriate to

[1] 1 Com. Dig. Accompt, A. B.

[2] 13 Ed. 1, c. 23; 25 Ed. 3, c. 5; 31 Ed. 3, c. 11; 4 Ann. c. 16.

[3] Co. Lit. 172 a; Harker *v.* Whitaker, 5 Watts, 474.

[4] Co. Lit. 172 a; Walker *v.* Holyday, 1 Com. R. 272; Bull. N. P. 127; Bishop *v.* Eagle, 11 Mod. 186; Jordan *v.* Wilkins, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 482. For, where the money was received of the plaintiff, the defendant might have waged his law. Hodsden *v.* Harridge, 2 Saund. 65. Nor is it necessary, where the action is between merchants. Moore *v.* Wilson, 2 Chipm. 91.

[5] Wells *v.* Some, Cro. Car. 240; 1 Roll. Abr. 119, pl. 10; 1 Com. Dig. Accompt, E. 2. The declaration against a bailiff, is as follows: — "In a plea of account; for that the said D. was bailiff to the plaintiff of one messuage, with the appurtenances in ——— from ——— to ———, and

this action, are, that he never was bailiff; or guardian; or receiver; or, that he has fully accounted, either to the plaintiff; or before auditors; or, that the money was delivered to him for a specific purpose, which has been accomplished.[1] Whatever admits the defendant once liable to account, such as payment over by the plaintiff's order, &c., though it goes in discharge, should be pleaded before the auditors, and not in bar of the action; excepting the pleas of release, *plene computavit*, and the statute of limitations.[2]

§ 37. In this, as in other cases, the *evidence on the part of the plaintiff* must support the material averments in the declaration. There must be evidence of a privity, either by contract, express or implied,[3] or by law; and if the defendant is charged as bailiff, or guardian, or receiver, or tenant in common, or joint-tenant, he must be proved to have acted in

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during that time had the care and management thereof, and sufficient power to improve and demise the same, and to collect and receive the issues, rents, and profits of the said premises to the use of the plaintiff; yet, though requested, the said D. hath never rendered to the plaintiff his reasonable account of said monies, rents, and profits, nor of his doings in the premises, but refuses so to do." The form of charging one as receiver is thus: — "for that the said D. was from —— to —— the plaintiff's receiver, and as such had received of the monies of the plaintiff by the hands of one E, —— dollars, and by the hands of one F, —— dollars, to render his reasonable account thereof on demand. Yet," — &c.

[1] 1 Com. Dig. Accompt, E. 3, 4, 5. In these cases, the form of pleading is: — "that he never was bailiff of the premises, goods, and chattels aforesaid, to render an account thereof, to the said plaintiff in manner and form (&c.)"; or, "that he never was receiver of the monies of the plaintiff in manner, (&c.)"; or, that after the time during which (&c.), to wit, on —— he fully accounted with the plaintiff of and concerning the said premises, rents, (&c.) for the time he was so bailiff as aforesaid"; or, — "of and concerning the monies so by him received as aforesaid"; or, — "fully accounted before A. and B., auditors assigned by the Court here to audit the account aforesaid," &c. Story's Pleadings, 71, 72; 3 Chitty's Pl. 1297 – 1299.

[2] 1 Com. Dig. Accompt, E. 6; Godfrey *v.* Saunders, 3 Wils. 94; Bredin *v.* Divin, 2 Watts, 15.

[3] King of France *v.* Morris, cited 3 Yeates, 251; Co. Lit. 172 a.

the specific character charged; for the measure of their liability is different; tenants in common and joint-tenants being answerable for what they have actually received, without deducting costs and expenses; receivers being charged in the same manner, but allowed costs and expenses in special cases, in favor of trade; and guardians and bailiffs being held to account for what they might, with proper diligence, have received, deducting reasonable costs and expenses.[1] The property in the money demanded, or goods bailed, must be precisely stated and proved as laid, it being a material allegation. If therefore the declaration is for the money of the plaintiff, and the proof is of money belonging to the plaintiff and others as partners, the declaration is not supported.[2] And if there are several defendants, they must be proved to be jointly and not severally liable.[3] A special demand to account is not necessary to be proved.[4]

§ 38. If the plea is, that the defendant accounted before two, it will be supported by *evidence*, that he accounted before one of them only; for the accounting is the substance.[5] In general, to support the plea of *plene computavit*, it is necessary for the defendant to show a balance, ascertained and agreed upon.[6] But if the course of dealing is such as to call for daily accounts and payments by the defendant, as, where the demand is against a servant for the proceeds of daily petty sales, of which it is not the course to take written vouchers, it will be *presumed*, that the defendant has accounted; and the burden of proof will lie on the plaintiff

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[1] 1 Selw. N. P. 1 – 3; Co. Lit. 172 a.; Sargent *v.* Parsons, 12 Mass. 149; Griffith *v.* Willing, 3 Binn. 317; Wheeler *v.* Horne, Willes, R. 208; Jordan *v.* Wilkins, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 482; Stat. 4 & 5 Ann. c. 27; Irvine *v.* Hanlin, 10 S. & R. 221.

[2] Jordan *v.* Wilkins, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 482.

[3] Whelen *v.* Watmough, 15 S. & R. 158.

[4] Sturges *v.* Bush, 5 Day, 442.

[5] Bull. N. P. 127.

[6] Baxter *v.* Hozier, 5 Bing. N. C. 288.

to show, that this ordinary course of dealing has been violated.[1] If the contract was, upon the consignment of goods to the defendant, that he should account for the sales, and return the goods which should remain unsold, the plea of *plene computavit* will not be maintained by evidence of having accounted for the sales, unless it be also proved, that the goods unsold have been returned.[2] This plea, and that of *ne unques* bailiff, &c., may be pleaded together; and the plea does not in that case admit the liability of the defendant to account.[3]

§ 39. After a *judgment quod computet*, and a reference to auditors, all articles of account between the parties, incurred since the commencement of the suit, are to be included by the auditors, and the whole to be brought down to the time when they make an end of the account.[4] But after such judgment, rendered upon confession, against a receiver, if the auditors certify issues to be tried, the plaintiff, upon the trial of such issues, cannot give evidence of moneys received by the defendant during any other period than that described in the declaration.[5] The judgment *quod computet*, however, does not conclude the defendant as to the precise sums or times mentioned in the declaration; but the account is to be taken according to the truth of the matter, without regard to the verdict.[6]

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[1] Evans *v.* Birch, 3 Campb. 10.

[2] Read *v.* Bertrand, 4 Wash. 556.

[3] Whelen *v.* Watmough, 15 S. & R. 158.

[4] Robinson *v.* Bland, 2 Burr. 1086; Couscher *v.* Toulam, 4 Wash. 442.

[5] Sweigart *v.* Lowmarter, 14 S. & R. 200.

[6] Newbold *v.* Sims, 2 S. & R. 317; James *v.* Browne, 1 Dall. 339; Sturges *v.* Bush, 5 Day, 452.

ADULTERY.

§ 40. The proof of this crime is the same, whether the issue arises in an indictment, a libel for divorce, or an action on the case. The *nature of the evidence*, which is considered sufficient to establish the charge before any tribunal, has been clearly expounded by Lord Stowell, and is best stated in his own language. "It is a fundamental rule," he observes, "that it is not necessary to prove the direct fact of adultery; because, if it were otherwise, there is not one case in a hundred in which that proof would be attainable; it is very rarely, indeed, that the parties are surprised in the direct fact of adultery. In every case, almost, the fact is inferred from circumstances, that lead to it by fair inference as a necessary conclusion; and unless this were the case, and unless this were so held, no protection whatever could be given to marital rights. What are the circumstances which lead to such a conclusion, cannot be laid down universally, though many of them, of a more obvious nature, and of more frequent occurrence, are to be found in the ancient books; at the same time, it is impossible to indicate them universally; because they may be infinitely diversified by the situation and character of the parties, by the state of general manners, and by many other incidental circumstances, apparently slight and delicate in themselves, but which may have most important bearings in decisions upon the particular case. The only general rule, that can be laid down upon the subject, is, that the circumstances must be such as would lead the guarded discretion of a reasonable and just man to the conclusion; for it is not to lead a rash and intemperate judgment, moving upon appearances, that are equally capable of two interpretations, — neither is it to be a matter of artificial reasoning, judging upon such things differently from

what would strike the careful and cautious consideration of a discreet man. The facts are not of a technical nature; they are facts determinable upon common grounds of reason; and courts of justice would wander very much from their proper office of giving protection to the rights of mankind, if they let themselves loose to subtilties, and remote and artificial reasonings upon such subjects. Upon such subjects the rational and the legal interpretation must be the same."[1]

§ 41. The rule has been elsewhere more briefly stated to require, that there be such *proximate circumstances* proved, as by former decisions, or in their own nature and tendency, satisfy the legal conviction of the Court, that the criminal act has been committed.[2] And therefore it has been held, that *general cohabitation* excluded the necessity of proof of particular facts.[3] Ordinarily, it is not necessary to prove the fact to have been committed at any particular or certain time or place.

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[1] Loveden *v* Loveden, 2 Hagg. Cons. R. 2, 3. The husband's remedy against the seducer of his wife may be in trespass, or by an action on the case. The latter is preferable, where there is any doubt whether the fact of adultery can be proved, and there is a ground of action for enticing away or harboring the wife without the husband's consent; because a count for the latter offence may be joined with the former; and a count in trover for wearing apparel, &c., may also be added. James *v.* Biddington, 6 C. & P. 589.

The declaration for seduction may be as follows: — "For that whereas the defendant, contriving and wrongfully intending to injure the plaintiff, and to deprive him of the comfort, society, aid and assistance of S., the wife of the plaintiff, and to alienate and destroy her affection for him, heretofore, to wit, on " —— [inserting the day on or near which the first act of adultery can be proved to have been committed] " and on divers other days and times after that day and before the commencement of this suit, wrongfully and wickedly debauched and carnally knew the said S., she being then and ever since the wife of the plaintiff; by means whereof the affection of the said S. for the plaintiff was wholly alienated and destroyed; and by reason of the premises the plaintiff has wholly lost the comfort, society, aid and assistance of his said wife, which during all the time aforesaid he otherwise might and ought to have had." To the damage, &c.

[2] Williams *v.* Williams, 1 Hagg. Cons. R. 299.

[3] Cadogan *v.* Cadogan, 2 Hagg. Cons. R. 4, note; Rutton *v.* Rutton, ib. 6, note.

It will be sufficient, if the circumstances are such as to lead the Court, travelling with every necessary caution, to this conclusion; which it has often drawn between persons living in the same house, though not seen in the same bed, or in any equivocal situation. It will neither be misled by equivocal appearances, on the one hand, nor, on the other, will it suffer the object of the law to be eluded by any combination of parties to keep without the reach of direct and positive proof.[1] And in examining the proofs, they will not be taken insulated and detached; but the whole will be taken together.[2] Yet, in order to infer adultery from general conduct, it seems necessary, that a *suspicio violenta* should be created.[3] But the adulterous disposition of the parties being once established, the crime may be inferred from their afterwards being discovered together in a bedchamber, under circumstances authorizing such inference.[4]

§ 42. The nature of this crime has occasioned a slight departure, at least in the Ecclesiastical Courts, from the general rule of evidence as to matters of opinion; it being the course to interrogate the witnesses, who speak of the behavior of the parties, as to their *impression and belief*, whether the crime has been committed or not. For it is said, that in cases of this peculiar character, the Court, though it does not rely on the opinions of the witnesses, yet has a right to know their impression and belief.[5]

§ 43. Where criminal intercourse is once shown, it must be *presumed*, if the parties are still living under the same

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[1] Burgess *v.* Burgess, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 226, 227; Hammerton *v.* Hammerton, 2 Hagg. Eccl. R. 14; Rix *v.* Rix, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 74.

[2] Durant *v.* Durant, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 748.

[3] Such seems to have been the view of Ld. Stowell, in Loveden *v.* Loveden, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 7, 8, 9, 16, 17; and in Burgess *v.* Burgess, Ib. 227, 228.

[4] Soilleaux *v.* Soilleaux, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 373.

[5] Crewe *v.* Crewe, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 128.

roof, that it *still continues*, notwithstanding those who dwell under the same roof are not prepared to depose to that fact.[1] The circumstance, that witnesses hesitate and pause about drawing that conclusion, will not prevent the Court, representing the law, from drawing the inference to which the proximate acts proved unavoidably lead.[2]

§ 44. Adultery of the *wife* may be proved by the birth of a child, identity, and non-access of the husband, he being out of the realm.[3] Adultery of the *husband*, on the other hand, may be proved by habits of adulterous intercourse, and by the birth, maintenance, and acknowledgment of a child.[4] A married man going into a known *brothel*, raises a suspicion of adultery, to be rebutted only by the very best evidence.[5] His going there, and remaining alone for some time in a room with a common prostitute, is sufficient proof of the crime.[6] The circumstance of a woman going to such place with a man, furnishes similar proof of adultery.[7] The venereal disease, long after marriage, is *primâ facie* evidence of this crime.[8]

§ 45. As to proof by the *confession* of the party, no difference of principle is perceived between this crime and any other. It has already been shown, that a *deliberate and voluntary confession of guilt* is among the most weighty and effectual proofs in the law.[9] Where the consequences of

[1] Turton *v.* Turton, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 350.

[2] Elwes *v.* Elwes, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 278.

[3] Richardson *v.* Richardson, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 6.

[4] D'Aguilar *v.* D'Aguilar, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 777, note.

[5] Astley *v.* Astley, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 720; Loveden *v.* Loveden, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 24; Kenrick *v.* Kenrick, 4 Hagg. Eccl. R. 114, 121, 132.

[6] Astley *v.* Astley, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 719.

[7] Eliot *v.* Eliot, cited 1 Hagg. Con. R. 302; Williams *v.* Williams, Ib. 303.

[8] Durant *v.* Durant, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 767.

[9] Ante, Vol. 1, § 214 to 219; Mortimer *v.* Mortimer, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 315.

the confession are altogether against the party confessing, there is no difficulty in taking it as indubitable truth. But where these consequences are more than counterbalanced by incidental advantages, it is plain that they ought to be rejected. In suits between husband and wife, where the principal object is separation, these countervailing advantages are obvious, and the danger of collusion between the parties is great. This species of evidence, therefore, though not inadmissible, is regarded in such cases with great distrust, and is on all occasions to be most accurately weighed.[1] And it has been held, as the more rational doctrine, that confession, proved to the satisfaction of the Court to be perfectly free from all suspicion of a collusive purpose, though it may be sufficient to found a decree of divorce *a mensâ et thoro*, is not sufficient to authorize a divorce from the bonds of matrimony, so as to enable a party to fly to other connexions.[2] It is never admitted alone for this purpose ;[3] nor must it be ambiguous.[4] But it need not refer to any particular time or place ; it will be applied to all times and places, at which it appears probable, from the evidence, that the fact may have been committed.[5] And it is admissible, when made under apprehension of death, though it be afterwards retracted.[6] Where, in cross libels for divorce *a vinculo* for adultery, each respondent pleaded in recrimination of the other, it has been held, that these pleas could not be received as mutual admissions of the facts articulated in the libels.[7] But the record of the con-

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[1] Williams *v.* Williams, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 304.

[2] Mortimer *v.* Mortimer, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 316.

[3] Searle *v.* Price, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 189 ; Mortimer *v.* Mortimer, Ib. 316 ; Betts *v.* Betts, 1 Johns. Ch. 197 ; Baxter *v.* Baxter, 1 Mass. 346 ; Holland *v.* Holland, 2 Mass. 154 ; Doe *v.* Roe, 1 Johns. Cas. 25. But, where the whole evidence was such as utterly to exclude all suspicion of collusion, and to establish the contrary, a divorce has been decreed upon confession alone. Vance *v.* Vance, 8 Greenl. 132 ; Owen *v.* Owen, 4 Hagg. Eccl. R. 261.

[4] Williams *v.* Williams, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 304.

[5] Burgess *v.* Burgess, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 227.

[6] Mortimer *v.* Mortimer, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 317, 318.

[7] Turner *v.* Turner, 3 Greenl. 398.

viction of the respondent, upon a previous indictment for that offence, has been held sufficient proof of the libel, both as to the marriage, and the fact of adultery.[1]

§ 46. The paramour is an admissible witness; but being *particeps criminis*, his evidence is but weak.[2] His confession may be used in evidence against her, if connected with some act or confession of her own, in the nature of a joint acknowledgment; but independently and alone, it is inadmissible.[3]

§ 47. Where the fact of adultery is alleged to have been committed *within a limited period* of time, it is not necessary that the evidence be confined to that period; but proof of acts anterior to the time alleged may be adduced, in explanation of other acts of the like nature within that period. Thus, where the statute of limitations was pleaded, the plaintiff was permitted to begin with proof of acts of adultery, committed more than six years preceding, as explanatory of acts of indecent familiarity within the time alleged.[4] So, where one act of adultery was proved by a witness, whose credibility the defendant attempted to impeach, evidence of prior acts of improper familiarity between the parties, has been held admissible to corroborate the witness.[5] But, where the charge is of one act of adultery only, in a single count, to which evidence has been given, the prosecutor is not per-

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[1] Anderson *v.* Anderson, 4 Greenl. 100; Randall *v.* Randall, Ib. 326. The conviction could not have been founded upon the testimony of the party offering it in evidence.

[2] Soilleaux *v.* Soilleaux, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 376; Croft *v.* Croft, 2 Hagg. Eccl. R. 318.

[3] Burgess *v.* Burgess, 2 Hagg. Con. R. 235, n.

[4] Duke of Norfolk *v.* Germaine, 12 Howell's St. Tr. 929, 945. It has, however, been held, that the proof of acts within the period must first be adduced. Gardiner *v.* Madeira, 2 Yeates, 466.

[5] Commonwealth *v.* Meriam, 14 Pick. 518.

mitted afterwards to introduce evidence of other acts, committed at different times and places.[1]

§ 48. By the *Common Law*, the simple act of adultery is not punishable by *indictment*, but is left to the cognizance of the spiritual Courts alone. It is only the open lewdness or public indecency of the act which is indictable.[2] But in many of the United States it is now made *indictable, by statutes.* Whether, to constitute this crime, it is necessary that both the guilty parties be married persons, is a point not perfectly agreed by authorities;[3] but the better opinion seems to be, that the act of criminal intercourse, where only one of the parties is married, is adultery in that one, and fornication in the other.[4] Some of the statutes, upon a divorce *a vinculo* for adultery, disable the guilty party from contracting a lawful marriage, during the life of the other; but it has been held, that a second marriage does not, in such case, render the party guilty of the crime of adultery; but only exposes to a prosecution under the particular provisions of the statute, whatever they may be.[5] And if such second marriage is had in another State, where it is not unlawful, the parties may lawfully cohabit in either State.[6]

§ 49. Upon every charge of adultery, whether in an indict-

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[1] Stante *v.* Pricket, 1 Campb. 473; Downes *v.* Skrymsher, 1 Brownl. 233; 19 H. 6, 47; The State *v.* Bates, 10 Conn. 372.

[2] 4 Bl. Comm. 64, 65; Anderson *v.* The Commonwealth, 6 Rand. 627; The State *v.* Brunson, 2 Bailey, R. 149; The Commonwealth *v.* Isaaks, 5 Rand. 634.

[3] The State *v.* Pearce, 2 Blackf. 318; Respublica *v.* Roberts, 2 Dall. 124; 1 Yeates, 6.

[4] Bouvier's Law Dict. verb. Adultery. In The State *v.* Wallace, 9 N. Hamp. R. 515, it was held that adultery was committed whenever there was unlawful intercourse, from which spurious issue might arise; and that therefore it was committed by an unmarried man, by illicit connexion with a married woman.

[5] Commonwealth *v.* Putnam, 1 Pick. 136.

[6] Putnam *v.* Putnam, 8 Pick. 433.

ment or a civil action, the case for the prosecution is not made out without *evidence of the marriage.* And it must be proof of an actual marriage, in opposition to proof by cohabitation, reputation, and other circumstances, from which a marriage may be inferred, and which, in these cases, are held insufficient; for otherwise persons might be charged upon pretended marriages, set up for bad purposes.[1] Whether the *defendant's admission* of the marriage may be given in evidence against him has been doubted; but no good reason has been given to distinguish this from other cases of admission, where, as we have already shown,[2] the evidence may be received, though it may not amount to sufficient proof of the fact. Thus, in a civil action for adultery, where the defendant, being asked where the plaintiff's wife was, replied, that she was in the next room, this was held insufficient to prove a marriage, for it amounted only to an admission, that she was reputed to be his wife.[3] But any recognition of a person standing in a given relation to others, is *primâ facie* evidence, against the person making such recognition, that such relation exists;[4] and if the defendant has seriously and solemnly admitted the marriage, it will be received as sufficient proof of the fact.[5] Thus, where the defendant deliberately declared, that he knew that the female was married to the plaintiff, and that with full knowledge of that fact he had seduced and debauched her, this was held sufficient proof of the marriage.[6]

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[1] Morris *v.* Miller, 4 Burr. 2059, expounded in 1 Doug. 174. In a libel for divorce, the Court will require proof of the marriage, even though the party accused makes default of appearance. Williams *v.* Williams, 3 Greenl. 135.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 209. In an indictment for adultery, where the defendant was married in a foreign country, his admission of that fact has been held sufficient proof of the marriage. Cayford's case, 7 Greenl. 57; Regina *v.* Simmonsto, 1 Car. & Kirw. 164, S. P.

[3] Bull. N. P. 28.

[4] Dickenson *v.* Coward, 1 B. & Ald. 679, per Ld. Ellenborough.

[5] Rigg *v.* Curgenven, 2 Wils. 399.

[6] Forney *v.* Hallacher, 8 S. & R. 159.

§ 50. In indictments, and actions for criminal conversation, as the prosecution is against a wrongdoer, and not a claim of right, it is sufficient to prove the *marriage according to any form* of religion, as Jews, Quakers, and the like.[1] The evidence on this head will be treated hereafter, under the appropriate title. But in whatever mode the marriage was celebrated or is proved, there must be satisfactory proof of the identity of the parties.[2]

§ 51. In *defence of a libel for divorce*, or of an *action for criminal conversation*, it may be shown that the adultery was committed, or the act of apparent criminality was done, by *collusion* between the parties, for the purpose of obtaining a separation, or of supporting an action at law. For the law permits no such co-operation, and refuses a remedy for adultery committed with such intent.[3] But the non-appearance of the wife, and a judgment by default against the paramour, are held no proof of collusion.[4] *Passive sufferance*, or *connivance* of the husband, may also be shown in bar, both of a libel and a civil action. But mere negligence, inattention, confidence, or dullness of apprehension, are not sufficient for this purpose; there must be passive acquiescence and consent, with the intention and in the expectation that guilt will follow.[5] The proof, from the nature of the case, may be made out by a train of conduct and circumstances; but it is not necessary to show connivance at actual adultery, any more than it is necessary to prove an actual and specific fact of adultery; for if a system of connivance at improper familiarity, almost amounting to proximate acts, be established, the

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[1] Bull. N. P. 28.

[2] See post, tit. Marriage.

[3] Crewe *v.* Crewe, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 128, 130.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Rogers *v.* Rogers, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 58; Timmings *v.* Timmings, Ib. 76; Lovering *v.* Lovering, Ib. 85; Pierce *v.* Pierce, 3 Pick 299; Duberley *v.* Gunning, 4 T. R. 655; Bull. N. P. 27; Hodges *v.* Windham, Peake's Cas. 39; 1 Selw. N. P. 8, 9, (10th Ed.)

Court will infer a corrupt intent as to the result.[1] But if the evidence falls short of actual connivance, and only establishes negligence, or even loose and improper conduct in the husband, not amounting to consent, it is no bar to an action for criminal conversation, but goes only in reduction of the damages.[2] It is not always necessary, that the husband be proved to have connived at the particular acts of adultery charged; for if he suffers his wife to live as a prostitute, and criminal intercourse with a third person ensues, he can have no action; it is *damnum absque injuria*.[3] Nor will an action lie for criminal conversation, had after the husband and wife have separated by articles of agreement, and the husband has released all claim to the person of his wife; for the *gist* of this action is the loss of the comfort, society, and assistance of the wife.[4]

§ 52. *Recrimination* is also a good defence to a libel for divorce;[5] though it is no bar to an action for criminal conversation.[6] The principle on which this plea of *compensatio*

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[1] Moorsum *v.* Moorsum, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 95.

[2] Foley *v.* Ld. Peterborough, 4 Doug. 294; Duberley *v.* Gunning, 4 T. R. 655.

[3] Smith *v.* Alison, Bull. N. P. 27, per Ld. Mansfield; Sanborn *v.* Neilson, 4 N. Hamp. 591. If the husband connive at adultery with A., he cannot have a divorce for an act of adultery, nearly contemporaneous, with B. Lovering *v.* Lovering, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 85.

[4] Weedon *v.* Timbrell, 5 T. R. 357; Chambers *v.* Caulfield, 6 East, 244; Winter *v.* Henn, 4 C. &. P. 494; Bartelot *v.* Hawker, Peake's Cas. 7; Wilton *v.* Webster, 7 C. & P. 198. But if the separation was without any relinquishment by the husband of his right to the society of the wife, so that a suit for restitution of conjugal rights is still maintainable, it is no bar. Graham *v.* Wigley, 2 Roper on Husb. & Wife, 323, n. Some of the earlier cases seem to favor the idea, that if the separation was by deed, the action would not lie; but this notion is not now favored, the true question being, whether the husband has or has not released his right to her person and society.

[5] Beeby *v.* Beeby, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 789; Forster *v.* Forster, 1 Hagg. Con. R. 144.

[6] Bromley *v.* Wallace, 4 Esp. 237. It goes only to the damages, in the

criminis is allowed, is, that the party cannot justly complain of the breach of a contract, which he has himself violated.[1] This plea may be sustained on evidence, not as strong as might be necessary to sustain a suit for adultery;[2] and it makes no difference whether the offence, pleaded by way of compensation, were committed before or after the fact charged in the libel.[3] It has been questioned whether a single act of adultery is sufficient to support this plea, against a series of adulteries proved on the other side; but the better opinion seems to be that it is.[4]

§ 53. *Condonation* is a sufficient answer to the charge of adultery, in a *libel;* but it does not follow, that it is a good answer to a recriminatory *plea;* for circumstances may take off the effect of condonation, which would not support an original cause.[5] Condonation is forgiveness, with an implied condition, that the injury shall not be repeated, and that the party shall be treated with conjugal kindness; and on breach of this condition, the right to a remedy for former injuries revives.[6] It must be free; for if obtained by force and violence, it is not binding; and if made upon an express condition, the condition must be fulfilled.[7] It must also appear,

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civil action; though Lord Kenyon formerly held it good in bar. Wyndham *v.* Wycombe, 4 Esp. 16.

[1] Beeby *v.* Beeby, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 789; Forster *v.* Forster, 1 Hagg. C. R. 153.

[2] Forster *v.* Forster, supra; Astley *v.* Astley, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 714, 721.

[3] Procter *v.* Procter, 2 Hagg. C. R. 299; Astley *v.* Astley, supra. If the act pleaded by way of recrimination has been forgiven, the condonation is a sufficient answer to the plea. Anichini *v.* Anichini, 2 Curt. 210.

[4] Astley *v.* Astley, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 722–724; Naylor *v.* Naylor, ib. cit. Brisco *v.* Brisco, 2 Addams, R. 259.

[5] Beeby *v.* Beeby, supra; D'Aguilar *v.* D'Aguilar, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 782.

[6] Durant *v.* Durant, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 761; Ferrers *v.* Ferrers, 1 Hagg. C. R. 130.

[7] Popkin *v.* Popkin, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 767, note.

that the injured party had full knowledge, or, at least, an undoubting belief of all the adulterous connexion, and that there was a condonation subse uent to that knowledge.[1]

§ 54. Where the parties have separate beds, there must, in order to show condonation, be some *evidence of matrimonial connexion*, beyond mere dwelling under the same roof.[2] But if a wife overlooks one act of human infirmity in the husband, it is not a legal consequence, that she pardons all others. It is not necessary for her to withdraw from cohabitation on the first or second instance of misconduct; on the contrary, it is legal and meritorious for her to be patient as long as possible; forbearance does not weaken her title to relief, especially where she has a large family, and endures in in the hope of reclaiming her husband.[3] But, on the other hand, the situation and circumstances of the husband do not usually call for such forbearance; and a facility of condonation of adultery on his part leads to the inference, that he does not duly estimate the injury; and if he is once in possession of the fact of adultery, and still continues cohabitation, it is proof of connivance and collusion.[4] In either case, to establish a condonation, knowledge of the crime must be clearly and distinctly proved.[5]

§ 55. In proof of *damages, on the part of the plaintiff* in a civil action for adultery, evidence is admissible showing the

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[1] Turton *v.* Turton, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 351; Anon. 6 Mass. 147; Perkins *v.* Perkins, Ib. 69; North *v.* North, 5 Mass. 320; Backus *v.* Backus, 3 Greenl. 136.

[2] Beeby *v.* Beeby, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 794; Westmeath *v.* Westmeath, 2 Hagg. Eccl. R. 118, supt.

[3] D'Aguilar *v.* D'Aguilar, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 786; Durant *v.* Durant, Ib. 752, 768; Beeby *v.* Beeby, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 793; Turton *v.* Turton, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 351.

[4] Timmings *v.* Timmings, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 78; Dunn *v.* Dunn, 2 Phill. 411.

[5] Durant *v.* Durant, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 733.

state of domestic happiness, in which he and his wife had previously lived ; and a marriage settlement, or other provision, if any, for the children of the marriage ; [1] the relations, whether of friendship, blood, confidence, gratitude, hospitality, or the like, which subsisted between him and the defendant ; [2] and the circumstances attendant upon the intercourse of the parties.[3] But it seems, that evidence of the defendant's property cannot be given in chief, in order to acquire damages, the true question being, not how much money the defendant is able to pay, but how much damage the plaintiff has sustained.[4] The state of the affections and feelings entertained by the husband and wife towards each other, prior to the adulterous intercourse, may be shown by their previous conversations, deportment, and letters ; [5] and the language and letters of the wife, addressed to other persons, have been received as evidence, for the same object.[6] Conversations also, and letters, between the wife and the defendant, and a draft of a letter from her to a friend, in the defendant's handwriting, have been admitted in evidence against him.[7] But her confessions, alone, when not a part of the *res gestæ*, are not admissible.[8] If the wife dies, pending the suit, the hus-

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[1] Bull. N. P. 27 ; 1 Stephens's N. P. 24. It has been said, that the rank and circumstances of the plaintiff may be given in evidence by him ; but this has been denied ; for the character of the husband is not in issue, except merely as far as that relation is concerned. Norton *v.* Warner, 6 Conn. R. 172.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Duke of Norfolk *v.* Germaine, 12 How. State Tr. 927.

[4] James *v.* Biddington, 6 C. & P. 589. But in an action for breach of promise to marry, such evidence is material, as showing what would have been the station of the plaintiff in society, if the defendant had not broken his promise. Ibid. See *post*, § 267.

[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 102.

[6] Ante, Vol. 1, § 102 ; Jones *v.* Thompson, 6 C. & P. 415. Even though the letters contain other facts, which of themselves could not properly be submitted to the jury. Willis *v.* Bernard, 8 Bing. 376.

[7] Baker *v.* Morley, Bull. N. P. 28 ; Wilton *v.* Webster, 7 C. & P. 198.

[8] Ibid ; Aveson *v.* Ld. Kinnaird, 6 East, 188 ; Walter *v.* Green, 1 C. & P. 621 ; Winsmore *v.* Greenbank, Willes, 577.

band is still entitled to damages for the shock which has been given to his feelings, and for the loss of the society of the wife, down to the time of her death; and this, though he was unaware of his own dishonor, till it was disclosed to him by the wife, upon her death-bed.[1]

§ 56. As the husband, by bringing the action, puts the wife's character in issue, the defendant may show, in what is called *mitigation of damages*,[2] the *previous* bad character and conduct of the wife, whether in general, or in particular instances of unchastity;[3] her letters to, and deportment towards himself, tending to prove, that she made the the first advances;[4] the husband's connivance at the adulterous intercourse;[5] his criminal connexion with other women;[6] the bad terms on which he previously lived with his wife; his improper treatment of her; his gross negligence and inattention in regard to her conduct with respect to the defendant; and any other facts, tending to show either the little intrinsic value of her society, or the light estimation in which he held it.[7] The evidence produced by the husband to show the harmony previously subsisting between him and his wife, may be rebutted by evidence of her declarations, prior to the criminal intercourse, complaining of his ill-treatment; and general evidence of similar complaints may also be given in reduction of damages.[8] But no evidence of the misconduct of the

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[1] Wilton *v.* Webster, 7 C. & P. 198, per Coleridge, J.

[2] See *post*, tit. Damages, § 265–267.

[3] Bull. N. P. 296; Ibid. 27; Hodges *v.* Windham, Peake's Cas. 39; Gardiner *v.* Jadis, 1 Selw. N. P. 24; Ante, Vol. 1, § 54.

[4] Elsam *v.* Fawcett, 2 Esp. 562.

[5] 1 Steph. N. P. 26; Ante, § 51; 1 Selw. N. P. 23, 24. The representation made by the wife to her husband, on the eve of her elopement, is admissible, as part of the *res gestæ*, to repel the imputation of connivance. Hoare *v.* Allen, 3 Esp. 276.

[6] Bromley *v.* Wallace, 4 Esp. 237.

[7] Trelawney *v.* Coleman, 2 Stark. R. 191; 1 B. & Ald. 90; Jones *v.* Thompson, 6 C. & P. 415; Winter *v.* Wroot, 1 M. & Rob. 404.

[8] Winter *v.* Wroot, 1 M. & Rob. 404.

wife, subsequent to her connexion with the defendant, can be received.[1]

§ 57. The *letters* of the wife, in order to be admitted in favor of the husband, must have been written before any attempt at adulterous intercourse had been made by the defendant.[2] And whenever her letters are introduced as expressive of her feelings, they must have been of a period anterior to the existence of any facts, tending to raise suspicions of her misconduct, and when there existed no ground to impute collusion.[3] But in all these cases, the time when the letters were written must be accurately shown; the dates not being sufficient for this purpose, though the post-marks may suffice.[4]

§ 58. Though the *general character of the wife* is in issue in this action, the plaintiff cannot go into general evidence in support of it, until it has been impeached by evidence on the part of the defendant, either in cross-examination, or in chief; but whether the plaintiff can rebut the proof of particular instances of misconduct, by proof of general good character, may be doubted; and the weight of authority seems against its admission.[5]

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[1] Elsam *v.* Fawcett, 2 Esp. 562.

[2] Wilton *v.* Webster, 7 C. & P. 198.

[3] Edwards *v.* Crock, 4 Esp. 39.

[4] Edwards *v.* Crock, 4 Esp. 39; 1 Steph. N. P. 27.

[5] Bamfield *v.* Massey, 1 Campb. 460; Dodd *v.* Norris, 3 Campb. 519; Doe, d. Farr *v.* Hicks, Bull. N. P. 296; 4 Esp. 51, S. C.; Stephenson *v.* Walker, 4 Esp. 50, 51; Bate *v.* Hill, 1 C. & P. 100; Ante, Vol. 1, § 54, 55; 1 Steph. N. P. 26.

AGENCY.

§ 59. An agent is one who acts in the place and stead of another. The act done, if lawful, is considered as the act of the principal. It is not always necessary, that the authority should precede the act; it may become in law the act of the principal, by his subsequent ratification and adoption of it.[1] The vital principle of the law of agency lies in the legal identity of the agent and the principal, created by their mutual consent.

§ 60. The evidence of agency is either *direct* or *indirect.* Agency is directly proved by express words of appointment, whether orally uttered, or contained in some deed or other writing. It is indirectly established by evidence of the relative situation of the parties, or of their habit and course of dealing and intercourse, or it is deduced from the nature of the employment, or from subsequent ratification.[2]

§ 61. As a *general rule,* it may be laid down, that the authority of an agent may be proved by parol evidence, that is, either by words spoken, or by any writing not under seal, or by acts and implications.[3] But to this rule there are some *exceptions.* Thus, whenever an act is required to be done *under seal,* the authority of the agent to do it, must also be proved by an instrument under seal. A writing without seal will not be sufficient, at law, to give validity to a deed,

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[1] Maclean *v.* Dunn, 4 Bing. 722; Story on Agency, § 239 to 260.

[2] Story on Agency, § 45; 2 Kent, Comm. 612, 613; Paley on Agency, p. 2.

[3] Story on Agency, § 47; 3 Chitty on Comm. & Man. p. 5; Coles *v.* Trecothick, 9 Ves. 250.

though a Court of Equity might, in such case, compel the principal to confirm and ratify the deed.[1] The principle of this exception, however, is not entirely followed out in the Common Law; for an authority to sign or indorse promissory notes may be proved by mere oral communications, or by implication;[2] and even where the Statute of Frauds requires an engagement to be in writing, the authority of an agent to sign it may be verbally conferred.[3]

§ 62. Where a *corporation aggregate* is the principal, it was formerly held, that the authority of its agent could be proved only by deed, under the seal of the corporation. But this rule is now very much relaxed both in England and America; and however necessary it still may be to produce some act under the corporate seal, as evidence of the authority of a special agent, constituted immediately by the corporation, to transact business affecting its essential and vital interests; yet, in all matters of daily necessity, within the ordinary powers of its officers, or touching its ordinary operations, the authority of its agents may be proved as in the case of private persons.[4]

§ 63. If the authority of the agent is in writing, the

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[1] Story on Agency, § 49; Harrison *v.* Jackson, 7 T. R. 207; Paley on Agency, by Lloyd, 157, 158. If the deed is executed in the presence of the principal, no other authority is necessary. Story on Agency, § 51.

[2] Story on Agency, § 50.

[3] Maclean *v.* Dunn, 4 Bing. 722; Coles *v.* Trecothick, 9 Ves. 250; Paley on Agency, by Lloyd, 158–161; Emmerson *v.* Heelis, 2 Taunt. 48; Story on Agency, § 50.

[4] Story on Agency, § 53; East London Waterworks Co. *v.* Bailey, 4 Bing. 283; Bank of Columbia *v.* Patterson, 7 Cranch, 299–305; Smith *v.* The Birmingham Gas Light Co. 1 Ad. & El. 526; Bank of the United States *v.* Dandridge, 12 Wheat. 67–75; Randall *v.* Van Vechten, 19 Johns. 60; Dunn *v.* St. Andrews Church, 14 Johns. 118; Perkins *v.* The Washington Ins. Co. 4 Cow. 645; Troy Turnp. Co. *v.* M'Chesney, 21 Wend. 296; Angell & Ames on Corp. 152, 153; Rex *v.* Bigg, 3 P. Wms. 427.

writing must be *produced* and proved; and if, from the nature of the transaction, the authority must have been in writing, parol testimony will not be admissible to prove it, unless as secondary evidence, after proof of the loss of the original.[1] Where the authority was verbally conferred, the agent himself is a competent witness to prove it;[2] but his declarations, when they are no part of the *res gestæ*, are inadmissible.[3]

§ 64. Where the agency is inferred from the *relative situation* of the parties, it is generally sufficient to establish the fact, that the relationship in question was actually created; and this must be proved by the kind of evidence appropriate to the case. Thus, where the sheriff was sued for the wrongful act of a bailiff, it was held not enough to prove him a general bailiff, by official acts done by him as such; but proof was required of the original warrant of execution, directed by the sheriff to the bailiff, which is the only source of a bailiff's authority, he not being the general officer of the sheriff.[4] If the relation is one which may be created by parol, it may be shown by evidence of the servant or agent, acting in that relation with the knowledge and acquiescence of the principal, whether express or implied.[5] The actual command of a ship, as master, is evidence sufficient to charge the owner for all acts done by the master in the ordinary scope of his employment.[6]

§ 65. The most numerous class of cases of agency is that, which relates to affairs of trade and commerce, where the

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[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 86, 87, 88; Johnson *v.* Mason, 1 Esp. 89.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 416, 417, and cases there cited.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 113; Clark *v.* Baker, 2 Whart. 340.

[4] Drake *v.* Sykes, 7 T. R. 113.

[5] Price *v.* Marsh, 1 C. & P. 60; Rex *v.* Almon, 5 Burr. 2686; Garth *v.* Howard, 5 C. & P. 346; 8 Bing. 451, S. C.; Story on Agency, § 55; White *v.* Edgman, 1 Overton's Tenn. R. 19.

[6] Story on Agency, § 116 - 123; Abbott on Shipping, Part ii. ch. 2, 3.

agency is proved by inference from the *habit and course of dealing* between the parties. This may be such as either to show, that there must have been an original appointment, or a subsequent and continued ratification of the acts done; but in either case the principal is equally bound. Having himself recognized another as his agent, factor, or servant, by adopting and ratifying his acts done in that capacity, the principal is not permitted to deny the relation, to the injury of third persons, who have dealt with him as such.[1] Cases frequently occur, in which, from the habit and course of conduct and dealing adopted by the principal, the Jury have been advised and permitted to infer the grant of authority to one to act as his salesman,[2] broker,[3] servant,[4] or general agent,[5] and even to his wife,[6] to transact business in his behalf; and he has been accordingly held bound. A single payment, without disapprobation, for what a servant bought upon credit, has been deemed equivalent to a direction to trust him in future;[7] and the employer has been held bound in such case, though he sent him the second time with ready money, which the servant embezzled.[8] In regard to the payment of moneys due, the authority to receive payment is inferred from the possession of a negotiable security; and in regard to bonds and other securities not negotiable, the person who is entrusted to

[1] 2 Kent, Comm. 614, 615.

[2] Story on Agency, § 55; Harding *v.* Carter, Park on Ins. p. 4; Prescott *v.* Flinn, 9 Bing. 19. Evidence that the defendant's son, a minor, had in three or four instances signed for his father, and had accepted bills for him, has been held sufficient *primâ facie* evidence of authority to sign a collateral guaranty. Watkins *v.* Vince, 2 Stark. R. 368.

[3] Whitehead *v.* Tuckett, 15 East, 400.

[4] Hazard *v.* Treadwell, 1 Stra. 506.

[5] Burt *v.* Palmer, 5 Esp. 145; Peto *v.* Hague, 5 Esp. 134.

[6] Palethorp *v.* Furnish, 2 Esp. 511; Ante, Vol. 1, § 185, and cases there cited; Emmerson *v.* Blonden, 1 Esp. 142; Anderson *v.* Sanderson, 2 Stark. R. 204; Clifford *v.* Burton, 1 Bing. 199; 1 Bl. Comm. 430; Fenner *v.* Lewis, 10 Johns. 38.

[7] 1 Bl. Comm. 430; Bryan *v.* Jackson, 4 Conn. 291; Story on Agency, § 56.

[8] Rusby *v.* Scarlett, 5 Esp. 76; Hazard *v.* Treadwell, 1 Stra. 506; Story on Agency, § 56.

take the security and to retain it in his custody, is generally considered as entrusted with power to receive the money, when it becomes due.[1]

§ 66. Where the agency is to be proved by the *subsequent ratification* and adoption of the act by the principal, there must be evidence of previous knowledge, on the part of the principal, of all the material facts.[2] The act of an unauthorized person, in such cases, is not void, but voidable;[3] but when the principal is once fully informed of what has been done in his behalf, he is bound, if dissatisfied, to express his dissatisfaction within a reasonable time; and if he does not, his assent will be presumed.[4] But where the act of the agent was by deed, the ratification also must in general be by deed.[5] The acts and conduct of the principal, evincing an assent to the act of the agent, are interpreted liberally in favor of the latter; and slight circumstances will sometimes suffice to raise the presumption of a ratification; which becomes stronger, in proportion as the conduct of the principal is inconsistent with any other supposition.[6] Thus, if goods are sold without authority, and the owner receives the price, or pursues his remedy for it by action at law against the purchaser, or if any other act be done in behalf of another, who afterwards claims the benefit of it, this is a ratification.[7]

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[1] Story on Bills, § 415; Story on Agency, § 98, 104; Wolstenholm *v.* Davies, 2 Freem. 289; 2 Eq. Cas. Abr. 709; Duchess of Cleaveland *v.* Dashwood, 2 Freem. 249; 2 Eq. Cas. Abr. 708; Owen *v.* Barrow, 1 New Rep. 101; Kingman *v.* Pierce, 17 Mass. 247; Anon. 12 Mod. 564; Gerard *v.* Baker, 1 Ch. Cas. 94.

[2] Owings *v.* Hull, 9 Pet. 607; Bell *v.* Cunningham, 3 Pet. 81; Courteen *v.* Touse, 1 Campb. 43, n.

[3] Denn *v.* Wright, 1 Pet. C. C. R. 64.

[4] Cairnes *v.* Bleecker, 12 Johns. 300; Bradin *v.* Dubarry, 14 S. & R. 27; Amory *v.* Hamilton, 17 Mass. 103; Ward *v.* Evans, 2 Salk. 442. If he assents while ignorant of the facts, he may disaffirm when informed of them. Copeland *v.* Merchants' Ins. Co. 6 Pick. 198.

[5] Blood *v.* Goodrich, 9 Wend. 68; 12 Wend. 525, S. C.; Story on Agency, § 252.

[6] Story on Agency, § 253; Ward *v.* Evans, 2 Salk. 442.

[7] Peters *v.* Ballistier, 3 Pick. 495. But if the action is discontinued or

Payment of a loss, upon a policy subscribed by an agent, is evidence that he had authority to sign it.[1] Proof that one was in the habit of signing policies in the name and as the agent of another, and with his knowledge, is evidence of his authority to sign the particular policy in question;[2] and if the principal has been in the habit of paying the losses upon policies so signed in his name, this has been held sufficient proof of the agency, though the authority was conferred by an instrument in writing.[3] And an authority to sign a policy, is sufficient evidence of authority to adjust the loss.[4] Where the principal, in an action against himself on a policy signed by an agent, used the affidavit of the agent to support a motion to put off the trial, in which the agent stated, that he subscribed the policy for and on account of the defendant, this was held a ratification of the signature.[5]

§ 67. *Long acquiescence* of the principal, after knowledge of the act done for him by another, will also, in many cases, be sufficient evidence of a ratification. If an agency actually existed, the silence or mere acquiescence of the principal may well be taken as proof of a ratification. If there are peculiar relations between the parties, such as that of father and son, the presumption becomes more vehement, whether there was an agency in fact or not, and the duty of disavowal is more urgent. And if the silence of the principal is either contrary to

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withdrawn, on discovering that the remedy is misconceived, it is not a ratification. Ibid. See also Lent *v.* Padelford, 10 Mass. 230; Episcopal Charit. Soc. *v.* Episcopal Ch. in Dedham, 1 Pick. 372; Kupfer *v.* Augusta, 12 Mass. 185; Odiorne *v.* Maxcy, 13 Mass. 178; Herring *v.* Polley, 8 Mass. 113; Pratt *v.* Putnam, 13 Mass. 361; Fisher *v.* Willard, Ibid. 379; Copeland *v.* Merchants' Ins. Co. 6 Pick. 198.

[1] Courteen *v.* Touse, 1 Campb. 43, n.

[2] Neal *v.* Erving, 1 Esp. 61.

[3] Haughton *v.* Ewbank, 4 Campb. 88. So of bills of exchange. Hooe *v.* Oxley, 1 Wash. 19, 23.

[4] Richardson *v.* Anderson, 1 Campb. 43, n. See also 2 Kent, Comm. 614, 615.

[5] Johnson *v.* Ward, 6 Esp. 47; Ante, Vol. 1, § 196, 210.

his duty, or has a tendency to mislead the other side, it is conclusive. Such is the case among merchants, when notice of the act done is given by a letter, which is not answered in a reasonable time. Whether a mere voluntary intermeddler, without authority, is entitled to the benefit of the principal's silence, is not clearly agreed; but the better opinion is, that where the act was done in good faith, for the apparent benefit of the principal, who has full notice of the act, and has done nothing to repudiate it, the agent is entitled to the benefit of his silence, as a presumptive ratification.[1]

§ 68. If the act of the agent was in itself *unlawful, and directly injurious* to another, no subsequent ratification will operate to make the principal *a trespasser;* for an authority to commit a trespass does not result by mere implication of law. The master is liable in trespass for the act of his servant, only in consequence of his previous express command; which may be proved, either by direct evidence of the fact, or by his presence at the time of the transaction, or by any other legal evidence, which will satisfy the jury. In the absence of such proof, the master is not liable in *tort;* for the only act of the master is the employment of the servant, from which no immediate prejudice can arise to any one; and the only authority presumed by the law, is an authority to do all lawful acts belonging to his employment.[2] But if the servant, in doing such acts, perpetrates a fraud upon another, or occasions a consequential injury, the master is liable, in an action on the case.[3]

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[1] Story on Agency, § 255, 256, 257, 258, cum notis; Amory *v.* Hamilton, 17 Mass. 103; Kingman *v.* Pierce, Ib. 247; Frothingham *v.* Haley, 3 Mass. 70; Erick *v.* Johnson, 6 Mass. 193.

[2] McManus *v.* Crickett, 1 East, 106; Middleton *v.* Fowler, 1 Salk. 282; Odiorne *v.* Maxcy, 13 Mass. 178; Salem Bank *v.* Gloucester Bank, 17 Mass. 1; Wyman *v.* The Hal. & Augusta Bank, 14 Mass. 58.

[3] Story on Agency, § 308; 1 Bl. Comm. 431; Foster *v.* The Essex Bank, 17 Mass. 479; Gray *v.* The Portland Bank, 3 Mass. 264; Williams *v.* Mitchell, 17 Mass. 98; Lane *v.* Cotton, 12 Mod. 488. The sheriff, however, on grounds of public policy, is liable in trespass, for the act of his deputy. Campbell *v.* Phelps, 17 Mass. 244; 1 Pick. 62.

ARBITRATION AND AWARD.

§ 69. A SUBMISSION to arbitration may be by parol, with mutual promises to perform the award; or by deed; or by rule of Court; or by any other mode, pointed out by statute. In the first case, the remedy may be by an action of *assumpsit*, upon the promise to perform the award; in the second, it may be by *debt* for the penalty of the arbitration bond, or, by *covenant*, upon the agreement or indenture of submission; in the third case, it may be by *attachment*, or, by *execution* upon the judgment entered up pursuant to the rule of Court, or to the statute; and in any case it may be by an action of *debt upon the award.* An award, duly made and performed, may also be pleaded in bar of any subsequent action for the same cause.[1]

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[1] In the simplest form of arbitration, namely, a *verbal submission* to a single arbitrator, the declaration is as follows: — "For that on —— there were divers controversies between the plaintiff and the said D., concerning their mutual accounts, debts and dealings, and thereupon they then, at —— by their mutual agreement, appointed one E. to hear and determine for them all the said controversies, and mutually promised each other to stand to, abide by, and perform the award of the said E. thereupon. And the said E. afterwards, on —— there heard the plaintiff and the said D., and adjudged upon the premises, and awarded that the said D. should pay to the plaintiff a balance of —— on demand, and published [and notified the said parties of] the same. Yet," &c.

The following form is proper, where the agreement is *in writing without seal*, and the submission is to *three persons*, with power in any two to make an award: — "For that whereas on —— there were divers controversies between the plaintiff and the said D. concerning their mutual accounts, debts and dealings, and thereupon they then, by their mutual agreement in writing, submitted and referred said controversies [and all other mutual demands between them] to the final award and determination of A. B. and C., and in and by said writing further agreed [*here set out any other material parts of the agreement*] that the award of the said A. B. and C., or any

§ 70. The action of *debt on the award* itself, is sometimes *preferable* to any other form of action, inasmuch as if judgment goes by default, it is final in the first instance, the sum to be recovered being ascertained through the medium of the award; whereas in debt on the bond, breaches must be suggested, and a hearing had pursuant to statutes; and in assumpsit, and in covenant, the judgment by default is but interlocutory.[1] But this is only where the award is for a single sum of money; for if it is to do any other thing, the remedy should be sought in some other mode. Where the submission is by deed, with a penalty, the best form of action

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two of them, being duly made in the premises, [in writing, and ready to be delivered to the said parties or either of them on or before ——, (*or*) and duly notified to the parties, *as the case may have been*] should be binding and final; and the plaintiff and the said D. then and there mutually promised each other to stand to, abide by, and perform the award so made. And the plaintiff avers, that the said A. B. and C. afterwards heard the plaintiff and the said D. upon all the matters referred to them as aforesaid, and thereupon, on —— the said [A. and B. two of said] referees [the said C. refusing to concur therein] made and published their award [in writing] of and concerning the premises, [and then and there duly notified the said parties of the same] and did thereby award and finally determine, that there remained a balance due from the said D. to the plaintiff, of —— to be paid to the plaintiff [on demand], (&c.) Yet," &c.

The count in *covenant* contains averments similar to that in *assumpsit*.

The count in *debt on an award* is as follows: — "For that, whereas the said D. on —— was indebted to the plaintiff in the sum of ——, upon and by virtue of an award made by one E., on a submission before that time made by the plaintiff and the said D. to the award and determination of the said E., concerning certain matters in difference then depending between the plaintiff and the said D., and upon which said reference the said E. awarded, that the said D. should pay to the plaintiff the sum of money aforesaid, upon request; whereby, and by reason of the nonpayment whereof, an action has accrued to the plaintiff, to demand and have of and from the said D. the sum aforesaid. Yet the said D. has not paid the same, nor any part thereof. To the damage," &c.

[1] 1 Steph. N. P. 180. In those of the United States, in which the damages, upon default, are made up forthwith by the Court, or by a jury impannelled on the spot, without a writ of inquiry, this mode of remedy does not seem to possess any practical advantage over others.

is debt for the penalty; for by declaring on the award, the plaintiff takes upon himself the burden of proving a mutual submission; but by declaring on the bond, he transfers the burden to the defendant, on whom it will then lie to discharge himself of the penalty, by showing a performance of the conditions.[1]

§ 71. In proving an award, it must first appear, that the arbitrators had *sufficient authority* to make it.[2] If the agreement of submission was in writing, it must be produced, and its execution by all the parties to the submission must be proved.[3] Therefore, where four persons being copartners, agreed to refer all matters in difference between them, or any two of them, to certain arbitrators, who made an award, in which they found several sums due to and from the partnership, and also divers private balances due among the partners from one to another; in an action between two of them upon the award, to recover one of these private balances, it was held necessary to prove the execution of the deed of submission by them all; the execution of each being presumed to have been made upon the condition, that all were to be bound equally with himself.[4] If the submission was by rule of Court, an office copy of the rule will be sufficient proof of the Judge's order.[5]

§ 72. If the *submission* was *by parol*, it is material to prove not only that both parties promised to abide by the

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[1] Ferrer *v.* Oven, 7 B. & C. 427, per Bayley, J.

[2] Antram *v.* Chace, 15 East, 209. An attorney has no sufficient authority to refer, on behalf of an infant plaintiff. Biddell *v.* Dowse, 6 B. & C. 255. Nor has one partner authority to bind the firm. Stead *v.* Salt, 3 Bing. 101. Proof of the submission has been held necessary, even after the lapse of forty years. Burghardt *v.* Turner, 12 Pick. 534.

[3] Ferrer *v.* Oven, 7 B. & C. 427.

[4] Antram *v.* Chace, 15 East, 209. See also Brazier *v.* Jones, 8 B. & C. 124.

[5] Still *v.* Halford, 4 Campb. 17; Gisborne *v.* Hart, 5 M. & W. 50.

award, but that the promises were concurrent and mutual; for otherwise each promise is but *nudum pactum*.[1]

§ 73. If the award was made by an *umpire*, his appointment must also be proved. The recital of his authority in the award, signed by himself and the arbitrators, is not sufficient.[2] He cannot be selected by the arbitrators by lot, without consent of the parties.[3] His appointment will be good, though made before the arbitrators enter on the business referred to them;[4] and they may well join with him in making the award.[5] And if the arbitrators appoint an umpire without authority, yet if the parties appear and are heard before him, without objection, this is a ratification of his appointment.[6]

§ 74. The next point in the order of evidence, is the *execution of the award;* which must be proved, as in other cases, by the subscribing witnesses, if there be any, and if not, then by evidence of the handwriting of the arbitrators.[7] If the award does not *pursue the submission*, it is inadmissible. If therefore the submission be to several, without any authority in the majority to decide, and the award is not

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[1] Keep *v.* Goodrich, 12 Johns. 397; Livingston *v.* Rogers, 1 Caines, 583; Kingston *v.* Phelps, Peake's Cas. 227.

[2] Still *v.* Halford, 4 Campb. 17. Nor is such recital necessary. Semble. Rison *v.* Berry, 4 Rand. 275.

[3] Young *v.* Miller, 3 B. & C. 407; Wells *v.* Cooke, 2 B. & A. 218; Harris *v.* Mitchell, 2 Vern. 485; In re Cassell, 9 B. & C. 624 (overruling Neale *v.* Ledger, 16 East, 51); Ford *v.* Jones, 3 B. & Ad. 248. But if the parties agree to a selection by lot, it will be good. In re Tunno, 5 B. & Ad. 488.

[4] Roe d. Wood *v.* Doe, 2 T. R. 644; Bates *v.* Cooke, 9 B. & C. 407; McKinstry *v.* Solomons, 2 Johns. 57; Van Cortlandt *v.* Underhill, 17 Johns. 405.

[5] Soulsby *v.* Hodgson, 3 Burr. 1474; 1 W. Bl. 463, S. C.; Beck *v.* Sargent, 4 Taunt. 232.

[6] Matson *v.* Trower, Ry. & M. 17; Norton *v.* Savage, 1 Fairf. 456.

[7] Ante, Vol. 1, § 569–581.

signed by all, it is bad.[1] And though a majority have power to decide, yet, in an award by a majority only, it must appear that all the arbitrators heard the parties, as well those who did not, as those who did concur in the decision.[2] It will be presumed that all matters, included within the terms of the submission, were laid before the arbitrators, and by them considered; but this presumption is not conclusive, evidence being admissible to prove that a particular matter of claim was not in fact laid before them, nor considered in their award.[3]

§ 75. If the submission required, that *notice of the award* should be given to the parties, this notice, as it must in that case have been averred in the declaration, is the next point to be proved; but if it was not required by the submission, both the averment and the proof are superfluous.[4] It is essential, however, to allege, and therefore to prove, that the award was *published;*[5] and an award is published whenever the arbitrator gives notice, that it may be had on payment of his charges.[6] If the agreement is, that the award shall be ready to be *delivered* to the parties by a certain day, this is satisfied by proof of the delivery of a *copy* of the award, if it

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[1] Towne *v.* Jaquith, 6 Mass. 46; Baltimore Turnp. Case, 5 Binn. 481; Crofoot *v.* Allen, 2 Wend. 494.

[2] Short *v.* Pratt, 6 Mass. 496; Walker *v.* Melcher, 14 Mass. 148. But upon a rehearing, if one of the arbitrators refuses to attend, the others are competent to re-affirm the former award; Peterson *v.* Loring, 1 Greenl. 64; though not to revise the merits of the case. Cumberland *v.* North Yarmouth, 4 Greenl. 459.

[3] Martin *v.* Thornton, 4 Esp. 180; Ravee *v.* Farmer, 4 T. R. 146; Webster *v.* Lee, 5 Mass. 334; Hodges *v.* Hodges, 9 Mass. 320; Smith *v.* Whiting, 11 Mass. 445 (Rand's ed.), and cases cited in note (a); Bixby *v.* Whitney, 5 Greenl. 192.

[4] Juxon *v.* Thornhill, Cro. Car. 132; Child *v.* Horden, 2 Bulstr. 144; 2 Saund. 62, a. note (4), by Williams.

[5] Kingsley *v.* Bill, 9 Mass. 198.

[6] McArthur *v.* Campbell, 5 B. & Ad. 518; Musselbrook *v.* Dunkin, 9 Bing. 605. See also Munroe *v.* Allaire, 2 Caines, 320.

be accepted without objection on that account;[1] and if it be only *read* to the losing party, who thereupon promises to pay the sum awarded, this is sufficient proof of the delivery of the award, or rather is evidence of a waiver of his right to the original or a copy, even though it was afterwards demanded and refused.[2]

§ 76. It is not necessary to allege, nor, of course, to prove, a *demand* of payment; except where the obligation is to pay a collateral sum upon request, as, where the defendant promised to pay a certain sum upon request, if he failed to perform an award; in which case an actual request must be alleged and proved. In all other cases, where the award is for money, which is not paid, the burden of proof is on the defendant, to show that he has paid the sum awarded, the bringing of the action being a sufficient request.[3] The averment of a promise to pay, will be supported by evidence of an agreement to abide by the decision of the arbitrators.[4]

§ 77. Where the thing, to be done by the defendant, depends on a *condition precedent*, to be performed by the plaintiff, such performance must be averred and proved by the plaintiff. And if, by the terms of the award, acts are to be done by both parties on the *same day*, as, where one is to convey land, and the other to pay the price, there, in an action for the money, the plaintiff must aver and prove a performance, or an offer to perform, on his part, or he cannot recover; for the conveyance, or the offer to convey, from the nature of the case, was precedent to the right to the price.[5]

§ 78. In *defence* of an *action* on an award, or for not per-

[1] Sellick *v.* Adams, 15 Johns. 197.
[2] Perkins *v.* Wing, 10 Johns. 143.
[3] Birks *v.* Trippet, 1 Saund. 32, 33, and note (2), by Williams.
[4] Efner *v.* Shaw, 2 Wend. 567.
[5] Hay *v.* Brown, 12 Wend. 591.

forming an award, the defendant may avail himself of any material error or defect, apparent on the face of the award; such as excess of power by the arbitrators;[1] defect of execution of power, as, by omitting to consider a matter submitted;[2] want of certainty to a common intent;[3] or plain mistake of law, as, in allowing a claim of freight, where the ship had never broken ground;[4] and the like. In regard to corruption, or other misconduct or mistake of the arbitrators in making their award, the Common Law seems not to have permitted these to be shown in bar of an action at law for non-performance of the award; but the remedy must be pursued in Equity.[5] But in this country, in those States where the jurisdiction in Equity is not general, and does not afford complete relief in such cases, it has been held, that if arbitrators act corruptly, or commit gross errors or mistakes in making their award, or take into consideration matters not submitted to them, or omit to consider matters which were submitted, or the award be obtained by any fraudulent

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[1] Morgan *v.* Mather, 2 Ves. 18; Fisher *v.* Pimbley, 11 East, 189; Macomb *v.* Wilber, 16 Johns. 227; Jackson *v.* Ambler, 14 Johns. 96. See also, Commonwealth *v.* Pejepscot Propr's, 7 Mass. 399.

[2] Mitchell *v.* Stavely, 16 East, 58; Bean *v.* Farnam, 6 Pick. 269. But not unless the omission is material to the award. Davy *v.* Faw, 7 Cranch, 171; Harper *v.* Hough, 2 Halst. 187; Doe *v.* Horner, 8 Ad. & El. 235.

[3] Jackson *v.* Ambler, 14 Johns. 96.

[4] Kelly *v.* Johnson, 3 Wash. R. 45. See also, Gross *v.* Zorger, 3 Yeates, 521; Ross *v.* Overton, 3 Call, 309; Morris *v.* Ross, 2 H. & M. 408; Greenough *v.* Rolfe, 4 N. H. 357; Ames *v.* Milward, 8 Taunt. 637.

[5] Watson on Arbitrations, p. 153, in 11 Law Libr. 79; Shepherd *v.* Watrous, 3 Caines, 166; Barlow *v.* Todd, 3 Johns. 367; Cranston *v.* Kennedy, 9 Johns. 212; Cortlandt *v.* Underhill, 17 Johns. 405; Kleine *v.* Catara, 2 Gallis. 61; Sherron *v.* Wood, 5 Halst. 7; Newland *v.* Douglas, 2 Johns. 62. In practice, where no suit is pending, arbitrations are now generally entered into under the statutes, enacted for the purpose of making the submission a rule of Court; and in all cases where the submission is made a rule of Court, the Court will generally administer relief, wherever it could be administered in Equity.

practice or suppression of evidence by the prevailing party, the defendant may plead and prove any of these matters in bar of an action at law to enforce the award.[1] And though arbitrators, ordinarily, are not bound to disclose the grounds of their award,[2] yet they may be examined to prove that no evidence was given upon a particular subject;[3] or, that certain matters were or were not examined, or acted on by them, or, that there is mistake in the award;[4] and also as to the time and circumstances under which the award was made,[5] and as to any facts which transpired at the hearing.[6] Fraud in obtaining the submission may be given in evidence under the plea of *non assumpsit*, or *nil debet*, by the Common Law.[7]

§ 79. The defendant may also show that the authority of the arbitrators was *revoked* before the making of the award. And the *death* of either of the parties to a submission at Common Law, before the award made, will amount to a *revocation;*[8] unless it is otherwise provided in the submission.[9] Whether *bankruptcy* is a revocation, is not clearly settled.[10] Where the submission is at Common Law, and

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[1] Bean *v.* Farnam, 6 Pick. 269; Brown *v.* Bellows, 4 Pick. 183; Parsons *v.* Hall, 3 Greenl. 60; The Boston Water Power Co. *v.* Gray, 6 Metc. 131; Williams *v.* Paschall, 3 Yeates, 564.

[2] *Ante*, Vol. 1, § 249.

[3] Martin *v.* Thornton, 4 Esp. 180.

[4] Roop *v.* Brubacker, 1 Rawle, 304; Alder *v.* Savill, 5 Taunt. 454; Zeigler *v.* Zeigler, 2 S. & R. 286.

[5] Woodbury *v.* Northy, 3 Greenl. 85.

[6] Gregory *v.* Howard, 3 Esp. 113.

[7] Sackett *v.* Owen, 2 Chitty, R. 39.

[8] Edmunds *v.* Cox, 2 Tidd's Pr. 877; 3 Doug. 406, S. C.; 2 Chitty, R. 422, S. C.; Cooper *v.* Johnson, 2 B. & Ald. 394; Potts *v.* Ward, 1 Marsh. 366; Toussaint *v.* Hartop, 7 Taunt. 571. But if the submission is under a rule of Court, and the action survives, it is not revoked by death. Bacon *v.* Crandon, 15 Pick. 79.

[9] Macdougall *v.* Robertson, 2 Y. & J. 11; 4 Bing. 435, S. C.

[10] Marsh *v.* Wood, 9 B. & C. 659; Andrews *v.* Palmer, 4 B. & Ald. 450; Ex parte Remshead, 1 Rose, 149.

even where it is under the statute, but is not yet made a rule of Court, it seems that either *party may revoke* the authority of the arbitrators; though he may render himself liable to an action for so doing.[1] But if the submission is by two, a revocation by one only is void.[2] If the reference is made an order of a Court of Equity, the revocation of the authority of the arbitrators is a high contempt of the Court, and, upon application of the other party, will be dealt with accordingly.[3] If a feme sole, having entered into a submission to arbitration, takes husband, the marriage is a revocation of the submission; but it is also, like every other revocation by the voluntary act of the party, a breach of the covenant to abide by the award.[4]

§ 80. The defendant may also show, in defence, that one or more of the parties to the submission was a *minor*, or a *feme covert*, and that therefore the submission was void for want of mutuality.[5] So, he may show that the arbitrators, before making their award, declined that office; for thereupon they ceased to be arbitrators.[6]

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[1] Skee *v.* Coxon, 10 B. & C. 483; Milne *v.* Gratrix, 7 East, 608; Clapham *v.* Higham, 1 Bing. 27; 7 Moore, 703; Greenwood *v.* Misdale, 1 McCl. & Y. 276; Brown *v.* Tanner, Ib. 464; 1 C. & P. 651, S. C.; Warburton *v.* Storer, 4 B. & C. 103; Vynior's case, 8 Co. 162; Frets *v.* Frets, 1 Cow. 335; Allen *v.* Watson, 16 Johns. 205; Fisher *v.* Pimbley, 11 East, 187; Peters *v.* Craig, 6 Dana, R. 307; Marsh *v.* Bulteel, 5 B. & Ald. 507; Grazebrook *v.* Davis, 5 B. & C. 534, 538.

[2] Robertson *v.* McNeil, 12 Wend. 578.

[3] Haggett *v* Welsh, 1 Sim. 134; Harcourt *v.* Ramsbottom, 1 Jac. & Walk. 511.

[4] Charnley *v.* Winstanley, 5 East, 266; Andrews *v.* Palmer, 4 B. & Ald. 252.

[5] Cavendish *v.* ———, 1 Chan. Cas. 279; Biddell *v.* Dowse, 6 B. & C. 255. But it is not a good objection, that one was an executor or administrator only, for he has authority to submit to arbitration. Coffin *v.* Cottle, 4 Pick. 454; Bean *v.* Farnam, 6 Pick. 269; Dickey *v.* Sleeper, 13 Mass. 244.

[6] Relyea *v.* Ramsay, 2 Wend. 602; Allen *v.* Watson, 16 Johns. 203.

§ 81. Where the action is *assumpsit, upon a submission by parol*, the plea of *non assumpsit*, where it is not otherwise restricted by Rules of Court, puts in issue every material averment. Under this issue, therefore, the defendant may not only show those things, which affect the original validity of the submission, or of the award, such as infancy, coverture, want of authority in the arbitrators, fraud, revocation of authority, intrinsic defects in the award, and, if there is no other mode of relief, extrinsic irregularities also, such as want of notice, and the like ; but he may also show anything, which at law would defeat and destroy the action, though it operate by way of confession and avoidance, such as, a release, payment, or performance.[1] And sometimes, where assumpsit has been brought upon the original cause of action, either party has been permitted to show the submission and award, under the general issue, as evidence of a statement of accounts and an admission of the balance due, or of a mutual adjustment of the amount in controversy.[2]

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[1] Stephen on Pleading, p. 179 – 182 [Am, Ed. 1824] ; Taylor *v.* Coryell, 12 S. & R. 243, 251 ; Allen *v.* Watson, 16 Johns. 203.

[2] Keen *v.* Batshore, 1 Esp. R. 194 ; Kingston *v.* Phelps, Peake's Cas. 228.

ASSAULT AND BATTERY.

§ 82. An *assault* is *defined* to be an inchoate violence to the person of another, with the present means of carrying the intent into effect.[1] Mere threats alone do not constitute the offence; there must be proof of violence actually offered.[2] Thus, if one ride after another, and oblige him to run to a place of security to avoid being injured;[3] or throw at him any missile capable of doing hurt, with intent to wound, whether it hit him or not;[3] or level a loaded gun, or brandish any other weapon, in a menacing manner, within such a distance as that harm might ensue;[5] or advance, in a threatening manner, to strike the plaintiff, so that the blow would have reached him in a few seconds, if the defendant had not been stopped;[6] in all these cases the act is an assault. So, if he violently attack, and strike with a club, the horse, which is harnessed to a carriage, in which the plaintiff is riding.[7]

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[1] 1 Steph. N. P. 208; Finch's Law, 202; Stephens *v.* Myers, 4 C. & P. 349.

[2] Stephens *v.* Myers, 4 C. & P. 349; Tuberville *v.* Savage, 1 Mod. 3. The declaration for an assault and battery is thus: — "In a plea of trespass; For that the said (defendant) on the —— day of —— at —— in and upon the plaintiff, with force and arms made an assault, and him the said plaintiff then and there did beat, wound, and ill treat," [here may be stated any special matter of aggravation] "and other wrongs to the plaintiff then and there did against the peace. To the damage," &c. The material allegations in an indictment are the same as in a civil action.

[3] Morton *v.* Shoppee, 3 C. & P. 373.

[4] 2 Hawk. P. C., B. 1, c. 62, § 1.

[5] Ibid. If the gun is not loaded, it is no assault. Blake *v.* Barnard, 9 C. & P. 626.

[6] Stephen *v.* Myers, 4 C. & P. 349, per Tindal, C. J.

[7] De Marentille *v.* Oliver, 1 Penningt. 380, per Pennington, J. Taking

§ 83, The *intention to do harm*, is of the essence of an assault; and this intent is to be collected by the Jury, from the circumstances of the case. Therefore if the act of the defendant was merely an interference to prevent an unlawful injury, such as, to separate two combatants;[1] or if, at the time of menacing violence, he used words, showing that it was not his intention to do it at that time, as, in the familiar example of one's laying his hand on his sword, and saying, that if it were not assize-time he would not take such language;[2] or if, being unlawfully set upon by another, he puts himself in a posture of defence, by brandishing his fists, or a weapon;[3] it is no assault.

§ 84. A *battery*, is the actual infliction of violence on the person. This averment will be proved by evidence of any unlawful touching of the person of the plaintiff, whether by the defendant himself, or by any substance put in motion by him. The degree of violence is not regarded in the law;[4] it is only considered by the Jury, in assessing the damages in a civil action, or by the Judge, in passing sentence, upon indictment. Thus, any touching of the person, in an angry, revengeful, rude, or insolent manner;[5] spitting upon the person;[6] jostling him out of the way;[7] pushing another against him;[8] throwing a squib, or any missile, or water

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indecent liberties with a female pupil; Rex *v.* Nichol, Rus. & Ry. 130; or, with a female patient; Rex *v.* Rosinski, Ry. & M. 19; though unresisted, is an assault.

[1] Griffin *v.* Parsons, 1 Selw. N. P. 25, 26.

[2] Bull. N. P. 15; Tuberville *v.* Savage, 1 Mod. 3; 2 Keb. 545; Commonwealth *v.* Eyre, 1 S. & R. 347.

[3] Moriarty *v.* Brooks, 6 C. & P. 684.

[4] Leame *v.* Bray, 3 East, 602. Cutting off the hair of a parish pauper, by the parish officers, against her will, was held a battery. Forde *v.* Skinner, 4 C. & P. 239.

[5] 2 Hawk. P. C., B. 1, c. 62, § 2; 4 Bl. Comm. 120.

[6] 1 East, P. C. 406; Regina *v.* Cotesworth, 6 Mod. 172.

[7] Bull. N. P. 16.

[8] Cole *v.* Turner, 6 Mod. 149.

upon him;[1] striking the horse he is riding, whereby he is thrown;[2] taking hold of his clothes in an angry or insolent manner, to detain him;[3] it is a battery. So, striking the skirt of his coat, or the cane in his hand;[4] is a battery; for any thing attached to the person, partakes of its inviolability.[5]

§ 85. And here, also, the plaintiff must come prepared with evidence to show, either that the *intention* was unlawful, or, that the defendant was *in fault;* for if the injury was unavoidable, and the conduct of the defendant was free from blame, he will not be liable.[6] Thus, if one intend to do a lawful act, as, to assist a drunken man, or prevent him from going without help, and in so doing a hurt ensue, it is no battery.[7] So, if a horse, by a sudden fright, runs away with his rider, not being accustomed so to do, and runs against a man;[8] or if a soldier, in discharging his musket by lawful military command, unavoidably hurts another;[9] it is no battery; and in such cases the defence may be made under the general issue.[10] But to make out a defence under this plea, it must be shown that the defendant was free from any blame, and that the accident resulted entirely from a superior agency. A defence, which admits that the accident resulted from an act of the defendant, must be specially pleaded.[11]

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[1] Scott *v.* Shepherd, 2 W. Bl. 892; 3 Wils. 403, S. C.; Pursell *v.* Horn, 8 Ad. & El. 605; Simpson *v.* Morris, 4 Taunt. 821.

[2] Dodwell *v.* Burford, 1 Mod. 24.

[3] United States *v.* Ortega, 4 Wash. 534; 1 Baldw. 600.

[4] Respublica *v.* De Longchamps, 1 Dall. 111, 114, per McKean, C. J.; The State *v.* Davis, 1 Hill, S. Car. R. 46.

[5] Ibid.

[6] 1 Bing. 213, per Dallas, C. J.; 1 Com. Dig. 129, tit. Battery, A.; 1 Chitty on Pl. 120. See *post*, tit. Damages, § 269, 271.

[7] Bull. N. P. 16.

[8] Gibbons *v.* Pepper, 4 Mod. 404: Bull. N. P. 16.

[9] Weaver *v.* Ward, Hob. 134.

[10] 4 Mod. 405.

[11] Hall *v.* Fearnley, 3 Ad. & El. 919, N. S. See *post*, § 94.

Thus, if one of two persons fighting, unintentionally strikes a third;[1] or if one uncocks a gun without elevating the muzzle, or other due precaution, and it accidently goes off and hurts a looker on;[2] or, if he drives a horse too spirited, or pulls the wrong rein, or uses a defective harness, and the horse taking fright, injures another;[3] he is liable for the battery. But if the injury happened by unavoidable accident, in the course of an amicable wrestling match, or other lawful athletic sport, if it be not dangerous, it may be justified.[4] If it were done in a boxing match, or fight, though by consent, it is an unjustifiable battery;[5] the proof of consent being admissible only in mitigation of damages.[6]

§ 86. Neither the *time* nor the *place*, laid in the declaration, are, ordinarily, material to be proved. Evidence of the trespass committed previous to the commencement of the action is sufficient;[7] and it may be proved in any place, the action being personal and transitory.[8] But if the declaration contain only one count, and the plaintiff prove *one assault*, he cannot aferwards *waive* that, and prove another.[9] Nor can he give evidence of a greater number of assaults, than are laid in the declaration.[10] If the action is against several, for a joint trespass, the plaintiff, having proved a trespass against some only, cannot afterwards be permitted to prove a trespass done at another time, in which all, or any others, were concerned; but he is bound, by the election which he

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[1] James *v.* Campbell, 5 C. & P. 372.

[2] Underwood *v.* Hewson, Bull. N. P. 16; 1 Stra. 596, S. C. So, if he negligently discharges a gun. Dickerson *v.* Watson, T. Jones, 205; Taylor *v.* Rainbow, 2 Hen. & Munf. 423; Blin *v.* Campbell, 14 Johns. 432.

[3] Wakeman *v.* Robinson, 1 Bing. 213.

[4] 5 Com. Dig. 795, tit. Pleader, 3 M. 18; Foster, Cr. L. 259, 260.

[5] Boulter *v.* Clark, Bull. N. P. 16; Stout *v.* Wren, 1 Hawks, 420.

[6] Logan *v.* Austin, 1 Stew. 476. See *post*, tit. DAMAGES.

[7] 1 Saund. 24, note (1), by Williams; Bull. N. P. 86; Brownl. 233.

[8] Mostyn *v.* Fabrigas, Cowp. 161.

[9] Stante *v.* Pricket, 1 Campb. 473.

[10] Gillon *v.* Wilson, 3 Monr. 217.

has made, to charge some only ; for, otherwise, some might be charged for a trespass, in which they had no concern.[1] So, if he prove a trespass against all the defendants, he cannot afterwards elect to go upon a separate trespass against one.[2]

§ 87. Nor is it necessary to prove an *actual battery*, though it must be alleged in the declaration ; for, upon proof of an assault only, the plaintiff will be entitled to recover.[3]

§ 88. If the plaintiff would recover for *consequential injuries*, they must be specially laid in the declaration, under a *per quod*.[4] Of these, the loss of the society of his wife, or of the services of his servant, are examples.[5] The relation of husband and wife is proved, in such cases, by evidence of a marriage *de facto*. If the action is for assaulting and beating the plaintiff's son,[6] or for seducing his daughter, *per quod*, it is sufficient to show that the child lived in the parent's family, without proof of actual service ;[7] or, if the child lived in a neighbor's family, it is sufficient to prove that he also daily and ordinarily performed services for the parent.[8] If the daughter is emancipated, and resides apart from the parent's

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[1] Sedley *v.* Sutherland, 3 Esp. 202 ; Hitchen *v.* Teale, 2 M. & Rob. 30. But see Roper *v.* Harper, 5 Scott, 250.

[2] Tait *v.* Harris, 1 M. & Rob. 282, per Ld. Lyndhurst, Ch. B. In Hitchen *v.* Teale, 2 M. & Rob. 30, Patteson J. said he could not very well understand the principle on which this decision was founded.

[3] Bro. Abr. Tresp. pl. 40 ; 40 E. 3, 40 ; 1 Steph. N. P. 213 ; Lewis *v.* Hoover, 3 Blackf. 407.

[4] Pettit *v.* Addington, Peake's Cas. 62. But the plaintiff cannot recover in this form for any injury for which a separate action lies, either by himself, or by another, 1 Chitty on Pl. 347–349 ; Wallace *v.* Hardacre, 1 Campb. 45, 49 ; Bull. N. P. 89.

[5] Guy *v.* Livesey, Cro. Jac. 501 ; Woodward *v.* Walton, 2 New Rep. 476 ; 9 Co. 113, a ; Ream *v.* Rank, 3 S. & R. 215.

[6] Jones *v.* Brown, Peake's Cas. 233 ; 1 Esp. 217, S. C.

[7] Maunder *v.* Venn, 1 M. & Malk. 323 ; Mann *v.* Barrett, 6 Esp. 32.

[8] 1 Steph. N. P. 214.

family, the parent cannot recover.[1] But if the daughter actually resides with her father, even though she be a married woman, if she lives apart from her husband, the father may maintain the action.[2] In all these cases, it is sufficient to prove the relation of master and servant *de facto;* and proof of very slight acts of service is sufficient.[3]

§ 89. It is not, however, necessary to state specially any matters, which are the *legal and natural consequence* of the tortious act; for all such consequences of his own actions every man is presumed to anticipate; and as one of the objects of the rule, which requires particularity of averment in pleading, is, to give the other party notice, that he may come prepared to meet the charge, such particularity is, in these cases, superfluous. The plaintiff, therefore, under the usual allegation of assault and battery, may give evidence of any damages naturally and necessarily resulting from the act complained of.[4] But where the law does not imply the damage, as the natural and necessary consequence of the assault and battery, it should be set forth with particularity; such, for example, as the general loss of health, or the contracting of a contagious disease, or being stinted in allowance of food, in an action for an assault and false imprisonment; or, an injury to his clothes, in a personal rencounter, and the

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[1] Dean *v.* Peel, 5 East, 45; Anon. 1 Smith, 333; Postlethwaite *v.* Parkes, 3 Burr. 1878. If the daughter, being under age, is actually in the service of another, but the father has not divested himself of his right to reclaim her services, it has been held, that he may maintain this action. Martin *v.* Payne, 9 Johns. 387.

[2] Harper *v.* Luffkin, 7 B. & C. 387.

[3] Fores *v.* Wilson, Peake's Cas. 55; Bennett *v.* Allcott, 2 T. R. 166; Manvell *v.* Thomson, 2 C. & P. 303; Irwin *v.* Dearman, 11 East, 23; Nickleson *v.* Stryker, 10 Johns. 115. See also, 1 Chitty on Pl. 50.

[4] Moore *v.* Adam, 2 Chitty, R. 198, per Bayley, J.; 1 Chitty on Pl. 346. The plaintiff may recover for the damage he is likely to sustain, after the trial, as the natural consequence of the injury; because, for these damages, he can have no other action. Fetter *v.* Beale, 1 Ld. Raym. 339; 1 Salk. 11, S. C.

like.[1] The manner, motives, place, and circumstances of the assault, however, though tending to increase the damages, need not be specially stated, but may be shown in evidence. Thus, where the battery was committed in the house of the plaintiff, which the defendant rudely entered, knowing that the plaintiff's daughter-in-law was there sick, and in travail, evidence of this fact was held admissible, without a particular averment.[2] Nor are the Jury confined to the mere corporal injury, which the plaintiff has sustained; but they are at liberty to consider the malice of the defendant, the insulting character of his conduct, the rank in life of the several parties, and all the circumstances of the outrage, and thereupon to award such exemplary damages, as the circumstances may in their judgment require.[3]

§ 90. In proof of the trespass, the plaintiff may give in evidence a conviction of the defendant upon an indictment for the same offence, provided the conviction was upon the *plea of guilty;* but not otherwise.[4] And if it was a *joint trespass*, by several, the confessions and admissions of any of them, made during the pendency of the enterprise and in furtherance of the common design, may be given in evidence against the others, after a foundation has been laid by proving the fact of conspiracy by them all to perpetrate the offence.[5]

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[1] 1 Chitty on Pl. 346, 347; Lowden *v.* Goodrick, Peake's Cas. 46; Pettit *v.* Addington, Ib. 62; Avery *v.* Ray, 1 Mass. 12. See *post*, tit. DAMAGES, § 253, 255.

[2] Sampson *v.* Henry, 11 Pick. 379.

[3] Merest *v.* Harvey, 5 Taunt. 442. Heath, J., in this case remarked, that "it goes to prevent the practice of duelling, if juries are permitted to punish insult by exemplary damages." Bracegirdle *v.* Orford, 2 M. & S. 77; Tullidge *v.* Wade, 3 Wils. 19; Davenport *v.* Russell, 5 Day, 145; Shafer *v.* Smith, 7 Har. & J. 67. Previous threats of the defendant, in the presence of the plaintiff, may also be shown. Sledge *v.* Pope, 2 Hayw. 402. See *post*, tit. DAMAGES, § 267, &c.

[4] Ante, Vol. 1, § 537, note (1).

[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 111.

§ 91. The *alia enormia*, is an averment not essential to the declaration for an assault and battery; its office is merely to enable the plaintiff to give in evidence under it such circumstances belonging to the transaction, as could not conveniently be stated on the record.[1] Things which naturally result from the act complained of, may, as we have seen, be shown under the other averments.

§ 92. Matters of *defence* in this action are usually distributed under three heads, namely, first, *Inficiation*, or denial of the fact, which is done only by the plea of not guilty; secondly, *Excuse*, which is an admission of the fact, but saying it was done accidentally, or by superior agency, and without any fault of the defendant; and this may be either specially pleaded, or given in evidence under the general issue; and, thirdly, *Justification*, which must always be specially pleaded.[2] To these may be added matters in *discharge*, such as a *release*, *accord and satisfaction*, *arbitrament*, *former recovery*, the *statute of limitations*, and the like, which also must be specially pleaded.[3] But it should be observed, that these rules apply only to suits against private persons. For, where actions are brought against public officers, for acts done by virtue of their office, they are permitted, by statutes, to plead the general issue, with a brief statement in writing of the special matter of justification to be given in evidence.

§ 93. Under the *general issue*, the defendant, in mitigation of damages, may give in evidence a *provocation* by the plaintiff, provided it was so recent and immediate as to induce a presumption, that the violence was committed under the immediate influence of the passion thus wrongfully excited

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[1] 1 Chitty on Pl. 348; Lowden *v.* Goodrick, Peake's Cas. 45. See *post*, tit. DAMAGES, § 276; *Ante*, § 85.

[2] Bull. N. P. 17.

[3] 1 Chitty on Pl. 441.

by the plaintiff.[1] Indeed, the defendant, in mitigation of damages, may, under this issue, rely on any part of the *res gestæ*, though, if pleaded, it would have amounted to a justification; notwithstanding the general rule, that, whatever is to be shown in justification must be specially pleaded; for everything which passed at the time, is part of the transaction on which the plaintiff's action is founded, and therefore he could not be surprised by the evidence.[2] And it is also laid down, as a general rule, that whatever cannot be pleaded, may be given in evidence under this issue.[3] Therefore, where the beating in question was by way of punishment for misbehavior on board a ship, and for the maintenance of necessary discipline, this evidence was held not admissible in mitigation of damages, because the facts might have been pleaded in justification.[4] Where the action was for assault and false imprisonment, evidence of *reasonable suspicion of felony* has been held admissible, in mitigation of damages.[5]

§ 94. In the case of a mere assault, the *quo animo* is material, as, without an unlawful intention, there is no assault. Any evidence of *intention*, therefore, is admissible under the general issue.[6] But in the case of a battery, innocence of intention is not material, except as it may go in mitigation of damages; unless it can be shown that the

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[1] Dennis *v.* Pawling, 12 Vin. Abr. 159, tit. Evid. I. b. pl. 16, per Price, B.; Lee *v.* Woolsey, 19 Johns. 319; Cushman *v.* Waddell, 1 Baldw. 58; Avery *v.* Ray, 1 Mass. 12; Matthews *v.* Terry, 10 Conn. 455; Fullerton *v.* Warrick, 3 Blackf. 219; Anderson *v.* Johnson, 3 Har. & J. 162. In Fraser *v.* Berkley, 2 M. & Rob. 3, Ld. Abinger admitted evidence of provocation, namely, a libel, published some time previous to the battery.

[2] Bingham *v.* Garnault, Bull. N. P. 17.

[3] 2 B. & P. 224, note (a).

[4] Watson *v.* Christie, 2 B. & P. 224.

[5] Chinn *v.* Morris, 2 C. & P. 361; 1 Ry. & M. 324, S. C. The law of damages, in actions *ex delicto*, in regard to evidence in aggravation or mitigation, is treated with great ability and just discrimination, in an article in 3 Am. Jurist, p. 287 – 313.

[6] Griffin *v.* Parsons, 1 Selw. N. P. 25, 26; Ante, § 83.

defendant was wholly free from fault; because every man, who is not entirely free from all blame, is responsible for any immediate injury, done by him to the person of another, though it were not wilfully inflicted. Therefore, if the act of the defendant was done by inevitable necessity, as, if it be caused by ungovernable brute force, his horse running away with him without his fault;[1] or, if a lighted squib is thrown upon him, and to save himself he strikes it off in a new direction;[2] in these and the like cases, the necessity may be shown under the general issue, in disproof of the battery.

§ 95. Under the plea of *son assault demesne*, in excuse, with the general replication of *de injuria*, &c., the burden of proof is on the defendant, who will be bound to show, that the plaintiff actually committed the first assault; and also, that what was thereupon done, on his own part, was in the necessary defence of his person.[3] And even violence may be justified, where the safety of the person was actually endangered.[4] If the defendant's battery of the plaintiff was excessive, beyond what was apparently necessary for self-defence, it seems, by the American authorities, that this excess may be given in evidence under the replication of *de injuria*, without either a special replication or a new assignment.[5] For, in such case, the only question is as to the degree and

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[1] Wakeman *v.* Robinson, 1 Bing. 213; Gibbons *v.* Pepper, 4 Mod. 404; 1 Salk. 637; Bull. N. P. 16.

[2] Scott *v.* Shepherd, 3 Wils. 403. See also Beckwith *v.* Shordike, 4 Burr. 2092; Davis *v.* Saunders, 2 Chitty, R. 639; *Ante*, § 85.

[3] Crogate's case, 8 Co. 66; Cockerill *v.* Armstrong, Willes, 99; Jones *v.* Kitchen, 1 B. & P. 79, 80; Reece *v.* Taylor, 4 Nev. & M. 469; Guy *v.* Kitchiner, 2 Str. 1271; 1 Wils. 171, S. C.; Phillips *v.* Howgate, 5 B. & Ald. 220; Timothy *v.* Simpson, 1 Cr. M. & R. 757.

[4] Cockcroft *v.* Smith, 2 Salk. 642; Bull. N. P. 18.

[5] Curtis *v.* Carson, 2 N. Hamp. 539. So, where the plea is *moderatè castigavit;* Hannen *v.* Edes, 15 Mass. 347; or, *molliter manus imposuit;* Bennett *v.* Appleton, 25 Wend. 371. See also 1 Steph. N. P. 216, 220, 221; Dauce *v.* Luce, 1 Keb. 884; Sid. 246, S. C.; 1 Chitty on Pl. 512, n. 545, 627.

proportion of the beating, to the assault. But if the plaintiff's answer to the plea of *son assault demesne* consists of an admission of the fact, and a justification of it, this cannot, by the English authorities, be shown in evidence under the replication *de injuria*, but must always be specially replied.[1] If the declaration contains but one count, to which *son assault demesne* is pleaded, without the general issue, the defendant may give evidence of an assault by the plaintiff, on any day previous to the day alleged in the declaration; and if the plaintiff cannot answer the assault so proved, the defendant will be entitled to a verdict.[2] But if the general issue is pleaded, or the declaration contains charges of several assaults, the plaintiff is not thus restricted, and the defendant's evidence must apply to the assault proved.[3]

§ 96. In regard to the replication of *de injuria*, the general rule is, that, as it puts in issue only the matter alleged in the plea, nothing can be given in evidence under it, which is beyond and out of the plea. The plaintiff cannot go into proof of new matter, tending to show that the defendant's plea, though true, does not justify the actual injury. He cannot, for example, show that the defendant, being in his house, abused his family and refused to depart, and upon his gently laying hands on him to put him out, the defendant furiously assaulted and beat him.[4] So, if the defendant justifies in defence of his master, the plaintiff cannot, under this issue, prove that his own assault of the master was justifiable.[5] So if the defendant, being a magistrate, justifies

[1] Penn *v.* Ward, 2 Cr. Mees. & Rosc. 338; Dale *v.* Wood, 7 J. B. Moore, 33; Pigott *v.* Kemp, 1 Cr. & Mees. 197; Selby *v.* Bardons, 3 B. & Ad. 1; 1 Cr. & Mees. 500; Bowen *v.* Parry, 1 C. & P. 394; Lamb *v.* Burnett, 1 Cr. & Jer. 291; 2 Chitty's Prec. 731, 732; Oakes *v.* Wood, 3 M. & W. 150.

[2] Randle *v.* Webb, 1 Esp. R. 38; Gibson *v.* Fleming, 1 Har. & J. 483.

[3] Downs *v.* Skrymsher, Brownl. 233; Bull. N. P. 17; 1 Steph. N. P. 222.

[4] King *v.* Phippard, Carth. 280.

[5] Webber *v.* Liversuch, Peake's Add. Cas. 51.

an assault and imprisonment as a lawful commitment for a bailable offence, the plaintiff cannot show, under this issue, that sufficient bail was offered and refused.[1]

§ 97. To support the plea of *moderatè castigavit*, the defendant must show that the plaintiff was his apprentice, by producing the indentures of apprenticeship. He must also produce evidence of misbehavior on the part of the plaintiff, sufficient to justify the correction given.[2] The same rules apply, where the relation is that of parent and child, or gaoler and prisoner, or schoolmaster and scholar,[3] or shipmaster and seaman. It must also be shown, that the correction was reasonable and moderate; though in the case of shipmasters, if the chastisement was salutary and merited, and there was no cruelty, or use of improper weapons, the Admiralty Courts will give to the terms "moderate correction" more latitude of interpretation.[4]

§ 98. Under the plea of *molliter manus imposuit*, the matters justified are of great variety; but they will be found to fall under one of these general heads, namely, the prevention of some unlawful act, or resistance, for some lawful cause. If the force was applied to put the plaintiff out of the defendant's house, into which he had unlawfully entered, or, to resist his unlawful attempt to enter by force, it is sufficient to show the unlawfulness of the entry, or of the attempt, without showing a request to depart. But if the

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[1] Sayre *v.* E. of Rochford, 2 W. Bl. 1165.

[2] 1 Saund. on Pl. & Ev. 107. In the case of a hired servant, the right to inflict corporal chastisement, by way of discipline or punishment, is denied. Matthews *v.* Terry, 10 Conn. 455. If the servant is a young child, placed with a master *in loco parentis*, the ordinary domestic discipline would probably be justifiable.

[3] 1 Hawk. P. C. c. 60, § 23.

[4] Watson *v.* Christie, 2 B. & P. 224; Brown *v.* Howard, 14 Johns. 119; Thorne *v.* White, 1 Pet. Adm. R. 173; Sampson *v.* Smith, 15 Mass. 365.

entry was lawful, as, if the house were public, or, being private, if he entered upon leave, whether given expressly or tacitly and by usage, there, it is necessary to show that he was requested to depart, and unlawfully refused so to do, before the application of force can be justified.[1] And in all these cases, to make good the justification, it must appear that no more force was employed than the exigency reasonably demanded.[2] If there was a wilful battery, and it is justified, the defendant must show that the plaintiff resisted by force, to repel which the battery was necessary. And whenever the justification is founded on a defence of the possession of property, it is, ordinarily, sufficient for the defendant to show his lawful possession at the time, without adducing proof of an indefeasible title ;[3] and in such cases a temporary right of possession is sufficient. Thus, where no person dwelt in the house, but the defendant's servant had the key, to let himself in to work, this was held sufficient evidence of the defendant's possession, as against every one but the owner.[4] So, where a County Hall, the title to which was vested by statute in the Justices of the county, was in the actual occupancy of the stewards of a musical festival, as it had been on similar occasions, as they occurred, for several years, but there was no evidence of any express permission from the Justices, yet this was held a sufficient possession, against a person intruding himself into the hall without leave.[5]

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[1] Esp. on Evid. 155, 156 ; Gregory *v.* Hill, 8 T. R. 299 ; Bull. N. P. 18, 19 ; Green *v.* Goddard, 2 Salk. 641 ; Williams *v.* Jones, 2 Stra. 1049 ; Green *v.* Bartram, 4 C. & P. 308 ; Rose *v.* Wilson, 1 Bing. 353 ; 8 J. B. Moore, 362, S. C. ; Weaver *v.* Bush, 8 T. R. 78 ; Tullay *v.* Reed, 1 C. & P. 6 ; Adams *v.* Freeman, 12 Johns. 408.

[2] Imason *v.* Cope, 5 C. & P. 193 ; Esp. on Evid. 156 ; Eyre *v.* Norsworthy, 1 C. & P. 502 ; Simpson *v.* Morris, 4 Taunt. 821 ; Bush *v.* Parker, 1 Bing. N. C. 72.

[3] Skevill *v.* Avery, Cro. Car. 138 ; Esp. on Evid. 156 ; 1 Saund. on Pl. & Evid. 107.

[4] Hall *v.* Davis, 2 C. & P. 33.

[5] Thmas *v.* Marsh, 5 C. & P. 596.

§ 99. If the assault and battery is justified, as done to *preserve the peace*, or to prevent a crime, the defendant must show that the plaintiff was upon the point of doing an act, which would have broken the peace, or would manifestly have endangered the person of another, or was felonious;[1] and if the interference was to prevent others from fighting, he must show that he first required them to desist.[2] If the trespass justified, consisted in arresting the plaintiff as a felon, without warrant, the defendant must prove, either that a felony was committed by the plaintiff, in his presence, or, that the plaintiff stood indicted of felony, or, that he was found attempting to commit a felony, or, that he had actually committed a felony, and that the defendant, acting with good intentions, and upon such information as created a reasonable and probable ground of suspicion, apprehended the party, in order to carry him before a magistrate.[3] It seems also to have been held, that the defendant may in like manner justify the detention of the plaintiff, as found walking about suspiciously in the night, until he give a good account of himself;[4] or, because he was a common and notorious cheat, going about the country and cheating by playing with false dice and other tricks, being taken in the fact, to be carried before a magistrate; or, that he was found in the practice of other offences, in the like manner scandalous and prejudicial to the public.[5]

§ 100. It is further to be observed, that, whenever the

[1] Handcock *v.* Baker, 2 B. & P. 260.

[2] Hawk. P. C. b. 1, ch. 31, § 49; 1 East, P. C. 304.

[3] Hawk. P. C. b. 2, ch. 12, § 18, 19; 4 Bl. Comm. 293; 1 East, P. C. 300, 301; 1 Russ. on Crimes, 723–725; 1 Deacon, Crim. Law, 48, 49; Ledwith *v.* Catchpole, Cald. 291, per Ld. Mansfield; Rex *v.* Hunt, 1 Mood. Cr. Cas. 93; Stonehouse *v.* Elliott, 6 T. R. 315.

[4] Hawk. P. C. b. 2, ch. 12, § 20. But this is now doubted, unless the defendant is a peace-officer. 1 East, P. C. 303; 1 Russ. on Crimes, 726, 727.

[5] Hawk. P. C. b. 2, ch. 12, § 20; Holyday *v.* Oxenbridge, Cro. Car. 234; W. Jones, 249, S. C.; 2 Roll. Abr. 546.

defendant justifies the laying of hands on the plaintiff, to take him into custody as an offender, he ought to be prepared with evidence to show, that he detained him only till an officer could be sent for to take charge of him, or that he proceeded without unnecessary delay to take him to a magistrate, or peace-officer, or otherwise to deal with him according to law.[1]

Defences by magistrates and other officers will be treated hereafter, under appropriate heads.

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[1] Esp. on Evid. 158; Rose *v.* Wilson, 1 Bing. 353.

ASSUMPSIT.

§ 101. Under this head, it is proposed to consider only those matters, which pertain to this form of action, for whatever cause it may be brought, and to the Common Counts; referring, for the particular causes of special assumpsit, such as Bills of Exchange, Insurance, Sales, &c., and for particular issues in this action, such as Infancy, Payment, and the like, to their appropriate titles.

§ 102. The distinction between general or *implied contracts* and special or *express contracts*, lies not in the nature of the undertaking, but in the mode of proof. The action of assumpsit is founded upon an undertaking or promise of the defendant, not under seal; and the averment always is, that he undertook and promised to pay the money sued for, or to do the act mentioned. The evidence of the promise may be direct, or it may be circumstantial, to be considered and weighed by the Jury; or the promise may be imperatively and conclusively presumed by law, from the existing relations proved between the parties; in which case, the relation being proved, the Jury are bound to find the promise. Thus, where the defendant is proved to have in his hands the money of the plaintiff, which, *ex æquo et bono*, he ought to refund, the law conclusively presumes that he has promised so to do, and the Jury are bound to find accordingly; and, after verdict, the promise is presumed to have been actually proved.

§ 103. The law, however, presumes a promise only, where it does not appear that there is any special agreement between the parties.[1] For if there is a *special contract*, which

[1] Toussaint *v.* Martinnant, 2 T. R. 105, per Buller, J.; Cutter *v.* Powell, 6 T. R. 320.

is still open and unrescinded, embracing the *same subject-matter* with the *common counts*, the plaintiff, though he should fail to prove his case under the special count, will not be permitted to recover upon the common counts.[1] Thus, where the plaintiff paid seventy guineas for a pair of coach horses, which the defendant agreed to take back if the plaintiff should disapprove them ; and being dissatisfied with them, he offered to return them, but the defendant refused to receive them back ; it was held, that the plaintiff could not recover the amount paid, in an action for money had and received, but should declare upon the special contract.[2] So, where a seaman shipped for a voyage out and home, with a stipulation that his wages should not be paid till the return of the ship, and he was wrongfully discharged in the foreign port ; it was held, that he could not recover upon the common counts, but must sue for breach of the special contract, it being still in force.[3] But though there is a count on a special agreement, yet if the plaintiff fails altogether to prove its existence, he may then proceed upon the common counts.[4]

§ 104. The law on this subject may be reduced to these three *general rules*.[5] (1.) So long as the contract continues *executory*, the plaintiff must declare specially ; but when it has been *executed* on his part, and nothing remains but the

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[1] Cooke *v.* Munstone, 1 New Rep. 355 ; Bull. N. P. 139 ; Lawes on Assumpsit, p. 7, 12 ; Young *v.* Preston, 4 Cranch, 239 ; Russell *v.* South Britain Society, 9 Conn. 508 ; Clark *v.* Smith, 14 Johns. 326 ; Jennings *v.* Camp, 13 Johns. 94 ; Wood *v.* Edwards, 19 Johns. 205.

[2] Weston *v.* Downes, 1 Doug. 23 ; Power *v.* Wells, Cowp. 818 ; Towers *v.* Barrett, 1 T. R. 133.

[3] Hulle *v.* Heightman, 2 East, 145.

[4] Harris *v.* Oke, Bull. N. P. 139 ; Paine *v.* Bacomb, 2 Doug. 651 ; 1 New Rep. 355, 356.

[5] See Lawes on Assumpsit, p. 2 – 12. See also Mead *v.* Degolyer, 16 Wend. 637, 638, per Bronson, J. ; Cooke *v.* Munstone, 1 New Rep. 355 ; Bull. N. P. 139 ; Tuttle *v.* Mayo, 7 Johns 132 ; Robertson *v.* Lynch, 18 Johns. 451 ; Linningdale *v.* Livingston, 10 Johns. 36 ; Keyes *v.* Stone, 5 Mass. 391 ; Jennings *v.* Camp, 13 Johns. 94 ; Clark *v.* Smith, 14 Johns. 326.

payment of the price in money, by the defendant, which is nothing more than the law would imply against him, the plaintiff may declare generally, using the common counts, or may declare specially on the original contract, at his election.[1] If the mode of payment was any other than in money, the count must be on the original contract. And if it was to be in money, and a term of credit was allowed, the action, though on the common counts, must not be brought until the term of credit has expired.[2] This election to sue upon the common counts, where there is a special agreement, applies only to cases where the contract has been fully performed by the plaintiff. (2.) Where the contract, though partly performed, has been either abandoned by mutual consent, or rescinded and extinct by some act on the part of the defendant. Here, the plaintiff may resort to the common counts alone, for remuneration for what he has done under the special agreement. But in order to this, it is not enough to prove, that the plaintiff was hindered by the defendant from performing the contract on his part; for we have just seen, that, in such case, he must sue upon the agreement itself. It must appear, from the circumstances, that he was at liberty to treat it as at an end.[3] (3.) Where it appears, that what was done by the plaintiff, was done under a special agreement, but not in the stipulated time or manner, and yet was beneficial to the defendant, and has been accepted and enjoyed by him. Here, though the plaintiff cannot recover upon the contract, from which he has departed, yet he may recover, upon the common counts,[4] for the reasonable value

[1] Gordon *v.* Martin, Fitzg. 303; Paine *v.* Bacomb, 2 Doug. 651, cited 1 New Rep. 355, 356; Streeter *v.* Horlock, 1 Bing. 34, 37; Studdy *v.* Sanders, 5 B. & C. 628, per Holroyd, J.; Tuttle *v.* Mayo, 7 Johns. 132; Robertson *v.* Lynch, 18 Johns. 451; Felton *v.* Dickenson, 10 Mass. 287.

[2] Robson *v.* Godfrey, 1 Stark. R. 220.

[3] Giles *v.* Edwards, 7 T. R. 181; Burn *v.* Miller, 4 Taunt. 745; Hulle *v.* Heightman, 2 East, 145; Linningdale *v.* Livingston, 10 Johns. 36; Raymond *v.* Bearnard, 12 Johns. 274; Mead *v.* Degolyer, 16 Wend. 632.

[4] Keck's case, Bull. N. P. 139; Burn *v.* Miller, 4 Taunt. 745; Streeter

of the benefit which, upon the whole, the defendant has derived from what he has done.[1]

§ 105. In all actions upon contracts not under seal, except suits by indorsees, it is incumbent on the plaintiff, under the general issue, to prove a *consideration*[2] for the alleged promise of the defendant; and this, in actions upon the common counts, can, ordinarily, be done only by proof of all the circumstances of the transaction. Thus, proof of the relation of landlord and tenant, is sufficient proof of consideration for a promise to manage the farm in a husband-like manner.[3] And this manner is proved by evidence of the prevalent course of husbandry in that neighborhood.[4] The same evidence will also, necessarily, disclose a *privity* existing between the defendant and the plaintiff; for if the plaintiff is a stranger to the consideration, he cannot recover.[5] And in all these cases

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v. Horlock, 1 Bing. 34, 37; Jennings *v.* Camp, 13 Johns. 94; Jewell *v.* Schroeppel, 4 Cowen, R. 564. If the contract has been performed, as far as it extended, but something beyond it has been done, as, if a building were erected with some additions, not specified in the written agreement, the party must declare on the special agreement, as far as it goes, and in the common counts for the excess. Pepper *v.* Burland, Peake's Cas. 103; Dunn *v.* Body, 1 Stark. R. 175; Robson *v.* Godfrey, Ib. 220.

[1] Taft *v.* Montague, 14 Mass. 282.

[2] As to what constitutes a sufficient consideration, see 21 Amer. Jurist, 257–286; 1 Stephens's Nisi Prius, p. 240–260; Chitty on Contr. 22–55; 2 Kent, Comm. 463–468; Story on Contracts, ch. iv. That the entire consideration must be proved, see *ante*, Vol. 1, § 66, 67, 68.

[3] Powley *v.* Walker, 5 T. R. 373.

[4] Legh *v.* Hewitt, 4 East, 154.

[5] The common counts are in this form: — "for that the said (defendant) on the —— day of —— was indebted to the plaintiff in the sum of ——" [if for *goods sold*, say, — "for goods then sold and delivered," — or, "bargained and sold," if the case be so, — "by the plaintiff to the said (defendant) at his request,"] "and in consideration thereof, then and there promised the plaintiff to pay him that sum on demand. Yet," &c.
—[if for *work and materials*, say, — "for work then done and materials for the same provided, by the plaintiff for the said (defendant) at his request,"—]
—[if for *money lent*, say, — "for money then lent by the plaintiff to the said (defendant) at his request,"—]

the plaintiff may recover as much as he proves to be due to him, within the sum mentioned in the count. If the contract is in writing, and recites that a valuable consideration has been received, this is *primâ facie* evidence of the fact, and the burden of disproving it is devolved on the defendant. If the action is founded on a document or memorandum, usually circulating as evidence of property, such as a bank-check, or the like, proof of the usage and course of business may suffice as evidence of the consideration, until this presumption is outweighed by opposing proof.

§ 106. As the general issue is a traverse of all the *material allegations* in the declaration, it will be further necessary

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—[if for *money paid*, say, — "for money then paid by the plaintiff for the use of the said (defendant) at his request,"—]

—[if for *money received*, say, — "for money then received by the said (defendant) for the use of the plaintiff,"—]

—[if upon an *insimul computassent*, say, — "for money found to be due from the said (defendant) to the plaintiff, upon an account then stated between them,"—]

These counts may now, by the new rules of practice in the English Courts, and by those of some of the American States, be consolidated into one. Indeed it is conceived, that they may be consolidated by the general principles of the law of pleading; and it has been so practised in Massachusetts, for more than twenty years. The consolidated count may be as follows: — "for that the said (defendant) on the —— day of —— was indebted to the plaintiff in the sum of —— for goods then sold and delivered by the plaintiff to the said (defendant) at his request; — and in the sum of —— for work then done, and materials for the same provided by the plaintiff for the said (defendant) at his request; — and in the sum of —— for money then lent by the plaintiff to the said (defendant) at his request; — and in the sum of —— for money then paid by the plaintiff for the use of the said (defendant) at his request; — and in the sum of —— for money then received by the said (defendant) for the use of the plaintiff; — and in the sum of —— for money found to be due from the said (defendant) to the plaintiff, upon an account then stated between them; and in consideration thereof then and there promised the plaintiff to pay him the several moneys aforesaid upon demand. Yet the said (defendant) has never paid any of said moneys, but wholly neglects so to do." See 1 Chitty's Prec. p. 43, a. b.; Reg. Sup. Jud. Court, Mass. 1836, p. 44.

for the plaintiff, under this issue, to prove all the other material facts alleged; such as the performance of conditions precedent, if any, on his own part, notice to the defendant, request, where these are material, and the like; together with the amount of damages sustained by the breach of the agreement. Damages cannot, in general, be recovered beyond the amount of the *ad damnum* laid in the declaration; but in actions for torts to personal chattels, the Jury are not bound by the value of the goods, as alleged in the count, but may find the actual value, if it do not exceed the *ad damnum*.[1]

§ 107. In actions upon the common counts for goods sold, work and materials furnished, money lent, and money paid, a *request* by the defendant is material to be proved; for, ordinarily, no man can make himself the creditor of another by any act of his own, unsolicited, and purely officious. Nor is a mere *moral obligation*, in the ethical sense of the term, without any pecuniary benefit to the party, or previous request, a sufficient consideration to support even an express promise; unless where a legal obligation once existed, which is barred by positive statute, or rule of law, such as the statute of limitations, or, of bankruptcy, or the law of infancy, coverture, or the like.[2] But where the act done is

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[1] Steph. on Pl. 318; Hutchins *v.* Adams, 3 Greenl. 174; Pratt *v.* Thomas, Ware's Rep. 427; The Jonge Bastiaan, 5 Rob. Adm. 322.

[2] Chitty on Contracts, p. 40–42; Story on Contr. § 143; 1 Steph. N. P. 246–249; Eastwood *v.* Kenyon, 11 Ad. & El. 438; Ferrers *v.* Costello, 1 Longf. & Towns. 292. So, where the drawer of a bill of exchange had not been duly notified of its dishonor, but nevertheless promised the holder that he would pay it, the promise was held binding. Rogers *v.* Stephens, 2 T. R. 713; Lundie *v.* Robertson, 7 East, 231; Story on Bills, § 320. See also Duhammel *v.* Pickering, 2 Stark. R. 90. The nature of the moral obligation referred to in the text, is thus stated in a lucid and highly instructive series of articles on the Law of Contracts, attributed to Mr. Metcalf. "It is frequently asserted in the books, that a moral obligation is a sufficient consideration for an express promise, though not for an implied one. The terms 'moral obligation,' however, are not to be understood in their broad ethical sense; but merely to denote those duties, which would

beneficial to the other party, whether he was himself legally bound to have done it or not, his subsequent express promise will be binding; and even his subsequent assent will be sufficient evidence, from which the Jury may find a previous request, and he will be bound accordingly.[1] Thus, where an illegitimate child was put at nurse by the mother's friends, after which the father promised to pay the expenses, it was held by Lord Mansfield, that, as he was under an obligation to provide for the child, his bare approbation should be con-

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be enforced at law, through the medium of an implied promise, if it were not for some positive rule, which, with a view to general benefit, exempts the party, in the particular instance, from legal liability.

"A promise to pay a debt barred by the statute of limitations, or discharged under a bankrupt law, falls into this class of cases. So of an adult's promise to pay a debt contracted during his infancy, and of a borrower's promise to pay principal and lawful interest of a sum loaned to him on a usurious contract; and of a widow to pay a debt, or fulfil other contracts made during coverture. So of a promise by the drawer of a bill of exchange, or the indorser of a bill or note, to pay it, though he has not received seasonable notice of the default of other parties. So of a promise by a lessor to pay for repairs made by a lessee, according to agreement, but not inserted in the lease; and a promise to refund money received in part payment of a debt, the evidence being lost, and the whole original debt having, in consequence of the loss, been recovered by suit at law.

"In the foregoing cases, there was a good and sufficient original consideration for a promise—a contract on which an action might have been supported, if there had not been a rule of law, founded on policy (but wholly unconnected with the doctrine of consideration), which entitled the promisor to exemption from legal liability. In most, if not all these cases, the rule, which entitled the party to exemption, was established for his benefit. Such benefit, or exemption, he may waive; and he does waive it, by an express promise to pay. The consideration of such promise is the original transaction, which was beneficial to him, or detrimental to the other party.

"These cases give no sanction to the notion, that an express promise is of any binding validity, where there was nothing in the original engagement, which the law regards as a legal consideration." See American Jurist, Vol. 21, p. 276–278.

[1] 1 Saund. 264, note (1), by Williams; Yelv. 41, note (1), by Metcalf. This principle will reconcile some cases, which seem to conflict with the general rule previously stated in the text. Thus, in Watson *v.* Turner, Bull. N. P. 129, 147, the overseers, who made the express promise, were

strued into a promise, and bind him.[1] So, where two persons were bail for a debtor, in several actions, and one of them, to prevent being fixed for the debt, pursued the debtor into another State, into which he had gone, and brought him back, thereby enabling the other also to surrender him, after which the latter party promised the former to pay his proportion of the expense of bringing the debtor back, this promise was held binding; for the parties had a joint interest in the act done, and were alike benefited by it.[2]

§ 108. It is not necessary for the plaintiff to prove an express assent of the defendant, in order to enable the Jury to find a previous request; they may *infer it* from his *knowledge* of the plaintiff's act, and his silent *acquiescence*.[3] Thus, where the father knew where and by whom his minor daughter was boarded and clothed, but expressed no dissent, and did not take her away; this was held sufficient evidence, on the part of the plaintiff, to charge him for the expenses, unless he could show that they were incurred against his consent.[4] So also, as is familiarly said, if one see another at

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legally bound to relieve the pauper, for whose benefit the plaintiff had furnished supplies. See 1 Selwyn. N. P. 50, n. (11). So in Lord Suffield *v.* Bruce, 2 Stark. R. 175, the money had really been paid to the defendant's house by mistake, and the defendant had received the benefit of the payment, and was legally liable with the others to refund it, at the time of the promise. And for aught that appears in the report, the promise of indemnity may have been made at the time of the payment, and afterwards repeated in the letter of the defendant. In Atkins *v.* Banwell, 2 East, 505, which was an action between two parishes, for relief afforded to a pauper settled in the defendant parish, there was neither legal nor moral obligation, nor express promise, nor subsequent assent, on the part of the defendants. See also Wing *v.* Mill, 1 B. & A. 104.

[1] Scott *v.* Nelson, cited 1 Esp. N. P. 116.

[2] Greeves *v.* McAllister, 2 Binn. 591. See also Seago *v.* Deane, 4 Bing. 459.

[3] See 22 Am. Jurist, p. 2 – 11, where the doctrine of the obligation of promises, founded upon considerations executed and past, is very clearly and ably expounded. See also Yelv. 41, note (1), by Metcalf; Doty *v.* Wilson, 14 Johns. 378, 382, per Thompson, C. J.

[4] Nichole *v.* Allen, 3 C. & P. 36.

work in his field, and do not forbid him, it is evidence of assent, and he will be holden to pay the value of his labor. And sometimes the Jury may *infer a previous request*, even *contrary to the fact*, on the ground of *legal obligation alone;* as, in an action against a husband, for the funeral expenses of his wife, he having been beyond seas at the time of her burial; or, against executors, for the funeral expenses of the testator, for which they had neglected to give orders.[1] The law, however, does not ordinarily imply a promise, against the express declaration of the party. Thus, a promise will not be implied, on the part of a judgment debtor, to pay for the use and occupation of land taken from him by legal process, where he denies the regularity of the proceedings.[2] But where there is a legal duty, paramount to the will of the party refusing to perform it, there, as we have before intimated, he is bound, notwithstanding any negative protestation. Thus, if a husband wrongfully turns his wife out of doors, or a father wrongfully discards his child, this is evidence sufficient to support a count against him in assumpsit, for their necessary support, furnished by any stranger.[3] And if one commits a tort, by which he gains a pecuniary benefit, as if he wrongfully takes the goods of another and sells them, or otherwise applies them to his own use, the owner may waive the tort, and charge him in assumpsit on the common counts, as for goods sold or money received, which he will not be permitted to gainsay.[4]

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[1] Jenkins *v.* Tucker, 1 H. Bl. 90; Tugwell *v.* Heyman, 3 Campb. 298; 10 Pick 156. See also Alna *v.* Plummer, 4 Greenl. 258; Hanover *v.* Turner, 14 Mass. 227.

[2] Wyman *v.* Hook, 2 Greenl. 337.

[3] Robison *v.* Gosnold, 6 Mod. 171; Van Valkinburg *v.* Watson, 13 Johns. 480; 20 Am. Jurist, p. 9; 22 Am. Jurist, p. 2–11.

[4] Hambly *v.* Trott, Cowp. 372, 375; Miller *v.* Miller, 7 Pick. 133; Webster *v.* Drinkwater, 5 Greenl. 319; Lightly *v.* Clouston, 1 Taunt. 114, per Mansfield, C. J.; Johnson *v.* Spiller, Doug. 167, n. 55, per Buller, J.; Cummings *v.* Noyes, 10 Mass. 436; Cravath *v.* Plympton, 13 Mass. 454; Hill *v.* Davis, 3 N. Hamp. R. 384; Bull. N. P. 130.

§ 109. In regard to the *privity* necessary to be established between the parties, it is in general true, that an *entire stranger* to the consideration, namely, one who has taken no trouble or charge upon himself, and has conferred no benefit upon the promissor, cannot maintain the action in his own name. But it has been said, and after some conflict of opinions it seems now to be settled, that, in cases of simple contract, if one person makes a promise to another, for the benefit of a third, the latter may maintain an action upon it, though the consideration did not move from him.[1] It seems, also, that the action may be maintained by either party.[2]

§ 110. Where there are *several plaintiffs*, it must be shown that the contract was made with them all; for if all the promissees do not join, it is a ground of nonsuit. So, if too many should join.[3] And where the plaintiff sues in a *particular capacity*, as assignee of a bankrupt,[4] or surviving partner,[5] he must, under the general issue, prove his title to sue in that capacity. But the plaintiff need not, under the general issue, be prepared to prove that the contract was made with all the defendants; as the nonjoinder of defend-

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[1] 1 Com. Dig. 205, Action upon the Case upon Assumpsit, E; 1 Vin. Abr. 333, pl. 5; Ibid. 334, 335, pl. 8; Dutton *v.* Poole, 1 Vent. 318, 332; 2 Lev. 210, S. C.; T. Raym. 302, S. C., cited and approved by Ld. Mansfield, Cowp. 443; 3 B. & P. 149, n. (a); Marchington *v.* Vernon, 1 B. & P. 101, n. (c); Rippon *v.* Norton, Yelv. 1; Whorewood *v.* Shaw, Yelv. 25, and note (1), by Metcalf; Carnegie *v.* Waugh, 2 D. & R. 277; Garrett *v.* Handley, 4 B. & C. 664; Hall *v.* Marston, 17 Mass. 575, 579; Ibid. 404, per Parker, C. J.; Cabot *v.* Haskins, 3 Pick. 83, 92. See also 8 Johns. 58; 13 Johns. 497; 22 Amer. Jurist, p. 16 – 19; 11 Mass. 152, n. (a), by Rand; Bull. N. P. 133; Chitty on Contr. p. 45 – 48.

[2] Bell *v.* Chaplain, Hardr. 321; 1 Chitty on Plead. p. 5; 22 Am. Jurist, p. 19; Hammond on Parties, p. 8, 9; Skinner *v.* Stocks, 4 B. & Ald. 437. See also Story on Agency, § 393, 394.

[3] 1 Chitty on Plead. 6 – 8, 15; Brand *v.* Boulcott, 3 B. & P. 235.

[4] 1 Saund. on Plead. & Evid. 250 – 289.

[5] Wilson *v.* Hodges, 2 East, 312.

ants can, ordinarily, be taken advantage of only by a plea in abatement.[1]

§ 111. It must also appear, on the part of the plaintiff, that the contract was not *unlawful.* For if it appears to have for its object any thing forbidden by the laws of God; or, contrary to good morals; or, if it appears to be a contract to do or omit, or to be in consideration of the doing or omission of any act, where such doing or omission is punishable by criminal process; or, if it appears to be contrary to sound public policy; or, if it appears to be in contravention of the provisions of any statute; in any of these cases, the plaintiff cannot recover, but, upon his own showing, may be nonsuited. For the law never lends its aid to carry such agreements into effect, but leaves the parties, as it finds them, *in pari delicto.*[2] But though the principal contract were illegal, yet if money has been advanced under it by one of the parties, and the contract still remains wholly *executory*, and not carried into effect, he may recover the money back upon the common money counts; for the policy of the law, in both cases, is to prevent the execution of illegal contracts; in the one case, by refusing to enforce them, and in the other, by encouraging the parties to repent and recede from the iniquitous enterprise.[3] And the same rule is applied to cases, where, though the contract is executed, the parties are not *in pari delicto;* the money having been obtained from the plaintiff by some undue advantage taken of him, or other wrong practised by the defendant.[4]

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[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 31 – 33, 52.

[2] See Chitty on Contracts, 513 – 561; 22 Amer. Jurist, 249 – 277; 23 Amer. Jurist, 1 – 23; Story on Contracts, ch. v. vi; Greenwood *v.* Curtis, 6 Mass. 381; Pearson *v.* Lord, Ib. 84; Worcester *v.* Eaton, 11 Mass. 368; Merwin *v.* Huntington, 2 Conn. 209; Babcock *v.* Thompson, 3 Pick. 446; Burt *v.* Place, 6 Cow. 431; Best *v.* Strong, 2 Wend. 319.

[3] Chitty on Contracts, p. 498, 499; Tappenden *v.* Randall, 2 B. & P. 467; Aubert *v.* Walsh, 3 Taunt. 277; Perkins *v.* Savage, 15 Wend. 412; White *v.* Franklin Bank, 22 Pick. 181, 189.

[4] Ibid.; Worcester *v.* Eaton, 11 Mass. 376; Walker *v.* Ham, 2 New

§ 112. In proof of the count for *money lent*, it is not sufficient merely to show that the plaintiff delivered money, or a bank check, to the defendant; for this, *primâ facie*, is only evidence of the payment by the plaintiff of his own debt, antecedently due to the defendant.[1] He must prove that the transaction was essentially a loan of money. If it was a loan of stock, this evidence, it seems, would not support the count.[2] A promissory note is sufficient evidence of a loan, between the original parties. Indeed a bill of exchange or promissory note, seems now to be considered as *primâ facie* proof of the money counts, in any action between the immediate parties, whether they were original parties, or subsequent, as indorsers.[3] So, if the plaintiff has become the assignee of a debt, with the assent of the debtor, this is equivalent to a loan of the money.[4] So, if A. owes a sum definite and certain to B., and B. owes the same amount to C., and the parties agree that A. shall be debtor to C. in B.'s stead, this is equivalent to a loan by C. to A.[5] This is an exception to the general rule of law, that a debt cannot be assigned; and

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Hamp. R. 241; Amesbury Man. Co. *v.* Amesbury, 17 Mass. 461; Preston *v.* Boston, 12 Pick. 7; Atwater *v.* Woodbridge, 6 Conn. 223; Chase *v.* Dwinel, 7 Greenl. 134; Richardson *v.* Duncan, 3 N. Hamp. R. 508; Clinton *v.* Strong, 9 Johns. 370; Mathers *v.* Pearson, 13 S. & R. 258.

[1] Welch *v.* Seaborn, 1 Stark. R. 474; Cary *v.* Gerrish, 4 Esp. 9; Cushing *v.* Gore, 15 Mass. 74. If the money was delivered by a parent to a child, it will be presumed an advancement, or gift. Per Bayley, J. in Hick *v.* Keats, 4 B. & C. 71.

[2] Nightingal *v.* Devisme, 5 Burr. 2589; Jones *v.* Brinley, 1 East, 1.

[3] Bayley on Bills, 390 – 393, and notes, by Phillips & Sewall; Young *v.* Adams, 6 Mass. 189; Denn *v.* Flack, 3 G. & J. 369; Wilde *v.* Fisher, 4 Pick. 421; Ramsdell *v.* Soule, 12 Pick. 126; Olcott *v.* Rathbone, 5 Wend. 490; Ellsworth *v.* Brewer, 11 Pick. 316. But not if the note is not negotiable, and expresses no value received. Saxton *v.* Johnson, 10 Johns. 418. The defendant may make any defence to the note, when offered under the money counts, which would be open to him under any other count. Austin *v.* Rodman, 1 Hawks, 195.

[4] 1 Steph. N. P. 316. See Mowry *v.* Todd, 12 Mass. 281.

[5] Wade *v.* Wilson, 1 East, 195; Wilson *v.* Coupland, 5 B. & Ald. 228.

is permitted only where the sum is ascertained and defined beyond dispute.[1]

§ 113. To sustain the count for *money paid*, the plaintiff must prove the actual payment, and the defendant's prior request so to do, or his subsequent assent and approval of the act, to be shown in the manner and by the methods already stated.[2] Whether the plaintiff can recover under this count, without proof of the actual payment of money, and by only showing that he had become liable, at all events, to pay money for the defendant, is a point upon which there has been some apparent conflict of decisions. It has been held in England, that, where the plaintiff had given his own negotiable promissory note, which the creditor accepted as a substitute for the debt due by the defendant, he was entitled to recover the amount under this count, though the note still remained unpaid.[3] And it has also been held, that, where he had become liable for the debt by giving his bond, though he thereby procured the defendant's discharge, he could not recover the amount from the defendant, until he had actually paid the money due by the bond.[4] The latter rule has been adopted and followed by the American Courts, on the ground, that the bond is not negotiable, nor treated as money, in the ordinary transactions of business;[5] but they also hold, that the giving of a bill of exchange or negotiable note, by the plaintiff, which has been accepted by the creditor in satisfaction of the defendant's debt, is sufficient to support the count

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[1] Fairlee *v.* Denton, 8 B. & C. 395.

[2] Ante, § 107, 108.

[3] Barclay *v.* Gouch, 2 Esp. 571.

[4] Taylor *v.* Higgins, 3 East, 169; Maxwell *v.* Jameson, 2 B. & Ald. 51; Power *v.* Butcher, 10 B. & C. 329, 346, per Parke, J.

[5] Cumming *v.* Hackley, 8 Johns. 202; 4 Pick. 447, per Wilde, J. And see Gardiner *v.* Cleaveland, 9 Pick. 334. The entry of judgment on the bond, and issuing of execution, does not vary the case. Morrison *v.* Berkey, 7 S. & R. 238. Whether being taken in execution would; *quære*, — and see Parker *v.* The United States, 1 Peters, C. C. R. 266.

for money paid.[1] If, however, the plaintiff has obtained a discharge of his own liability by the payment of less than the full amount, it has been held, that he can recover only the sum actually paid.[2] And in regard to the mode of payment, proof of any thing given and received as cash, whether it be land or personal chattels, is sufficient to support this count.[3] If incidental damages, such as costs, and the like, have been incurred by a surety, they can be proved only under a special count;[4] unless the suit was defended at the request of the principal debtor and for his sole benefit, the defendant being but a nominal party, such, for example, as an accommodation acceptor.[5]

§ 114. If the money has been paid to a third person, in compliance with a *written order* of the defendant in that person's favor, the possession of the order by the plaintiff will generally be *primâ facie* evidence, that he has paid the money.[6] Where *no express order* or request has been given, it will, ordinarily, be sufficient for the plaintiff to show, that he has paid money for the defendant for a *reasonable cause*, and *not officiously*.[7] Thus, this count has been sustained, for

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[1] Douglas *v.* Moody, 9 Mass. 553; Cornwall *v.* Gould, 4 Pick. 444; Pearson *v.* Parker, 3 N. Hamp. R. 366; 8 Johns. 206; Craig *v.* Craig, 5 Rawle, 91, 98, per Gibson, C. J.; Lapham *v.* Barnes, 2 Verm. 213; McLellan *v.* Crofton, 6 Greenl. 331–333. And see Dole *v.* Hayden, 1 Greenl. 152; Ingalls *v.* Dennett, 6 Greenl. 80; Clark *v.* Foxcroft, 7 Greenl. 355; Van Ostrand *v.* Reed, 1 Wend. 424; Morrison *v.* Berkey, 7 S. & R. 238, 246; Beardsley *v.* Root, 11 Johns. 464.

[2] Bonney *v.* Seely, 2 Wend. 481.

[3] Ainslee *v.* Wilson, 7 Cowen, 662, 669; Bonney *v.* Seely, 2 Wend. 481; Randall *v.* Rich, 11 Mass. 498, per Parker, C. J.

[4] Seaver *v.* Seaver, 6 C. & P. 673; Gillett *v.* Rippon, 1 M. & Malk. 406; Knight *v.* Hughes, Ib. 247; 3 C. & P. 467, S. C.; Smith *v.* Compton, 3 B. & Ad. 467.

[5] Howes *v.* Martin, 1 Esp. 162.

[6] Blunt *v.* Starkie, 1 Taylor, 110; 2 Hayw. 75, S. C. J.; Skillin *v.*

[7] Brown *v.* Hodgson, 4 Taunt. 190, per ...ation of a promise is *execu-*Merrill, 16 Mass. 40. "Whenever the ...been a request on the part of the *tory*, there must *ex necessitate rei* ...

money paid to relieve a neighbor's goods from legal distraint, in his absence;[1] to defray the expenses of his wife's funeral;[2]

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person promising. For if A. promise to remunerate B., in consideration that B. will perform something specified, that amounts to a request to B. to perform the act for which he is to be remunerated. See King *v.* Sears, 2 C. M. & R. 53. Where the consideration is *executed*, unless there have been an antecedent request, no action is maintainable upon the promise; for a request must be laid in the declaration and proved, if put in issue, at the trial. Child *v.* Morley, 8 T. R. 610; Stokes *v.* Lewis, 1 T. R. 20; Naish *v.* Tatlock, 2 H. Bl. 319; Hayes *v.* Warren, 2 Str. 933; Richardson *v.* Hall, 1 B. & B. 50; Durnford *v.* Messiter, 5 M. & S. 446. See Reg. Gen. Hil. 1832, pl. 8. For a mere voluntary courtesy is not sufficient to support a subsequent promise; but when there was previous request, the courtesy was not merely voluntary, nor is the promise *nudum pactum*, but couples itself with, and relates back to the previous request, and the merits of the party, which were procured by that request, and is therefore on a good consideration. Such a request may be either *express* or *implied*. If it have not been made in express terms, it will be implied under the following circumstances: — First, Where the consideration consists in the plaintiff's having been compelled to do that, to which the defendant was legally compellable. Jeffreys *v.* Gurr, 2 B. & Ad. 833; Pownall *v.* Ferrand, 6 B. & C. 439; Exall *v.* Partridge, 8 T. R. 308; Toussaint *v.* Martinnant, 2 T. R. 100. Secondly, Where the defendant has adopted and enjoyed the benefit of the consideration, for in that case the maxim applies *omnis ratihibitio retrotrahitur et mandato æquiparatur*. Thirdly, Where the plaintiff *voluntary* does that whereunto the defendant was legally compellable, and the defendant afterwards, in consideration thereof, *expressly* promises. Wennall *v.* Adney, 3 B. & P. 250, *in notis;* Wing *v.* Mill, 1 B. & A. 104; S. N. P. 8 ed. p. 57, n. 11; Paynter *v.* Williams, 1 C. & M. 818. But it must be observed, that there is this distinction between this and the two former cases, namely, that in each of the two former cases, the law will imply the *promise* as well as the *request*, whereas in this and the following case, the *promise* is not implied, and the *request* is only then implied when there has been an express promise. Atkins *v.* Banwell, 2 East, 505. Fourthly, In certain cases, where the plaintiff *voluntarily* does that, to which the defendant is *morally*, though not *legally*, compellable, and the defendant afterwards, in consideration thereof, *expressly* promises. See 281; Trueggeridge, 5 Taunt. 36; Watson *v.* Turner, B. N. P. 129, 147, But every *moral* Fenton, Cowp. 544; Atkins *v.* Banwell, 2 East, 505. per Lord Tenterden, C. tion is not perhaps sufficient for this purpose. See 1 Smith's Leading Cases, p. 76; Littlefield *v.* Shee, 2 B. & Adol. 811." See

[1] Per Ld. Loughborough, 1 H. Bl.

[2] Jenkins *v.* Tucker, 1 H. Bl. 90.

to apprehend the defendant, for whom the plaintiff had become bail, and bring him to Court, so that he might be surrendered;[1] to discharge a debt of the defendant, for which the plaintiff had become surety;[2] or, for which the plaintiff's goods, being on the premises of the defendant, had been justly distrained by the landlord;[3] or, for money paid to indemnify the owner for the loss of his goods, which the plaintiff, a carrier, had by mistake delivered to the defendant, who had consumed them for his own use.[4] So, where a debt has been paid by one of several debtors, or by one of several sureties, the payment is sufficient evidence in support of this count, against the others, for contribution.[5] So, among merchants, where one has accepted a protested bill for the honor of one of the parties, which he has afterwards paid.[6] And, in general, where the plaintiff shows that he, either by compulsion of law, or to relieve himself from liability, or to save himself from damage, has paid money which the defendant ought to have paid, this count will be supported.[7]

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[1] Fisher *v.* Fallows, 5 Esp. 171.

[2] Exall *v.* Partridge, 8 T. R. 310, per Ld. Kenyon; Kemp *v.* Finden, 8 Jur. 65.

[3] Exall *v.* Partridge, 8 T. R. 308.

[4] Brown *v.* Hodgson, 4 Taunt. 189, per Mansfield, C. J. and Heath, J. But in Sills *v.* Laing, 4 Campb. 81, Ld. Ellenborough ruled that, in such case, the plaintiff ought to declare specially.

[5] 1 Steph. N. P. 324–326.

[6] Smith *v.* Nissen, 1 T. R. 269; Vandewall *v.* Tyrrell, 1 Mood. & Malk. 87; Story on Bills of Exchange, § 255, 256.

[7] 1 Steph. N. P. 324, 326; Lubbock *v.* Tribe, 3 M. & W. 607; Cowell *v.* Edwards, 2 B. & P. 268; Alexander *v.* Vane, 1 M. & W. 511; Grissell *v.* Robinson, 3 Bing. N. C. 10. "One of the cases in which an *express request* is unnecessary, and in which a promise will be *implied*, is that in which the plaintiff has been compelled to do that, to which the defendant was *legally* compellable. On this principle depends the right of a surety who had been damnified to recover an indemnity from his principal, Toussaint *v.* Martinnant, 2 T. R. 100; Fisher *v.* Fellows, 5 Esp. 171. Thus the indorser of a bill who has been sued by the holder, and has paid part of the amount, being a surety for the acceptor, may recover it back as money paid

§ 115. If the money appears to have been paid in consequence of the plaintiff's own voluntary breach of legal duty, or, for a tort committed jointly with the defendant, it cannot be recovered.[1] The general *rule* is, that *wrong-doers* shall not have contribution one from another. The *exception* is, that a party may, with respect to innocent acts, give an indemnity to another, which shall be effectual; though the act, when it came to be questioned afterwards, would not be sustainable in a Court of law, against third persons who complained of it. If one person induce another to do an act which cannot be supported, but which he may do without any breach of good faith, or desire to break the law, an action on the indemnity, either express or implied, may be supported.[2] Thus, where the title to property is disputed, an agreement, by persons interested, to indemnify the sheriff for serving or neglecting to serve an execution upon the property, if made in good faith, and with intent to bring the title more conveniently to a legal decision, is clearly valid.[3] So, where a sheriff, having arrested the debtor on mesne process, discharged him on payment of the sum sworn to, but was afterwards obliged to pay the original plaintiff his

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to his use and at his request. Pownall *v.* Ferrand, 6 B. & C. 439. But then the surety must have been *compelled*, *i. e.* he must have been under a reasonable obligation and necessity, to pay what he seeks to recover from his principal; for if he *improperly* defend an action and incur costs, there will be no implied duty on the part of his principal to reimburse him those, unless the action was defended at the principal's request. Gillett *v.* Rippon, 1 M. & M. 406; Knight *v.* Hughes, 1 M. & M. 247; see Smith *v.* Compton, 3 B. & Ad. 407. But if he make a reasonable and prudent compromise, he will be justified in doing so." 1 Smith's Leading Cases, p. 70. If there were several principals, and one surety has paid the debt, each is severally liable for the whole sum. Duncan *v.* Keiffer, 3 Binn. 126. And where there are several sureties, if one, by paying the debt too soon, has deprived the other of an opportunity to relieve himself, he cannot have contribution. Skillin *v.* Merrill, 16 Mass. 40.

[1] Capp *v.* Topham, 6 East, 392; Burdon *v.* Webb, 2 Esp. 527.

[2] Betts *v.* Gibbins, 4 Nev. & M. 77, per Ld. Denman, C. J.; 2 Ad. & El. 57. S. C.; Merryweather *v.* Nixan, 8 T. R. 186.

[3] Wright *v.* Lord Verney, 3 Doug. 240; Watson on Sheriffs, p. 380.

interest, he was permitted to recover the latter sum from the debtor, under a count for money paid.[1] So, where the sheriff has been obliged to pay the debt, by reason of the negligent escape of the debtor, namely, an escape by the pure act of the prisoner, without the knowledge and against the consent of the officer, it seems he may recover the amount as money paid for the debtor.[2] But if the escape were voluntary on the part of the officer, the money paid could not be recovered of the debtor.[3]

§ 116. Where the money, which is sought to be recovered under the count for money paid, has been *paid under a judgment* against the plaintiff, the record of the judgment, as we have heretofore shown,[4] is always admissible to prove the fact of the judgment, and the amount so paid. But it is not admissible in proof of the facts on which the judgment was founded, unless the debtor, or person for whose default the action was brought, had due notice of its pendency, and might have defended it; in which case the record is conclusive against the delinquent party, as to all the material facts recited in it.[5]

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[1] Cordron *v.* Ld. Masserene, Peake's Cas. 143.

[2] Eyles *v.* Faikney, Peake's Cas. 143, n. (a), *Semble*. Better reported in 8 East, 172, n.; 4 Mass. 373, per Parsons, C. J.

[3] Pitcher *v.* Bailey, 8 East, 171; Eyles *v.* Faikney, Ibid. 172, n.; Peake's Cas. 143, n., S. C.; Martyn *v.* Blithman, Yelv. 197; Chitty on Contracts, p. 526, 527; Ayer *v.* Hutchins, 4 Mass. 370; Denny *v.* Lincoln, 5 Mass. 385; Churchill *v.* Perkins, Ib. 541; Hodsdon *v.* Wilkins, 7 Greenl. 113.

[4] Ante, Vol 1, § 527.

[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 527, 538, 539; Smith *v.* Compton, 3 B. & Ad. 407. "It is always advisable," observes Mr. Smith, "for the surety to let his principal know when he is threatened, and request directions from him; for the rule laid down by the King's Bench in Smith *v.* Compton is, that the effect of want of notice (to the principal), is to let in the party who is called upon for an indemnity, to show that the plaintiff has no claim in respect of the alleged loss, or not to the amount alleged; that he made an improvident bargain, and that the defendant might have obtained better terms, if an opportunity had been given him. . . . . The effect of notice to

§ 117. The count for *money had and received*, which in its spirit and objects has been likened to a bill in equity, may, in general, be proved by any legal evidence, showing that the defendant has received or obtained possession of the money of the plaintiff, which, in equity and good conscience, he ought to pay over to the plaintiff. The subject of the action must either originally have been money; or, that which the parties have agreed to treat as money; or, if originally goods, sufficient time must have elapsed, with the concurrence of circumstances, to justify the inference, that they have been converted into money. It is a liberal action, in which the plaintiff waives all tort, trespass, and damages, and claims only the money which the defendant has actually received.[1] But if the defendant has any legal or equitable lien on the money, or any right of cross action upon the same transaction, the plaintiff can recover only the balance, after satisfying such counter demand.[2]

§ 118. In regard to *things treated as money*, it has been held, that this count may be supported by evidence of the defendant's receipt of bank-notes;[3] or, promissory notes;[4] or,

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an indemnifying party is stated by Buller, J., in Duffield *v.* Scott, 3 T. R. 374. The purpose of giving notice is not in order to give a ground of action; but if a demand be made which the party indemnifying is bound to pay, and notice be given to him, and he refuse to defend the action, in consequence of which the person indemnified is obliged to pay the demand, that is equivalent to a judgment, and estops the other party from saying, that the defendant in the first action was not bound to pay the money." See 1 Smith's Leading Cases, 70, 71, note.

[1] Anon. Lofft, R. 320; Feltham *v.* Terry, cit. Cowp. 419; Moses *v.* Macferlan, 2 Burr. 1005; Eastwick *v.* Hugg, 1 Dall. 222; Lee *v.* Shore, 1 B. & C. 94; Cowp. 749, per Ld. Mansfield; 4 M. & S. 748, per Ld. Ellenborough.

[2] Simpson *v.* Swan, 3 Campb. 291; Eddy *v.* Smith, 13 Wend. 488; Clift *v.* Stockdon, 4 Litt. 217.

[3] Pickard *v.* Bankes, 13 East, 20; Lowndes *v.* Anderson, 13 East, 130; Mason *v.* Waite, 17 Mass 560; Ainslie *v.* Wilson, 7 Cow. 662.

[4] Floyd *v.* Day, 3 Mass. 405; Hinkley *v.* Fowle, 3 Shepl. 285; Tuttle *v.* Mayo, 7 Johns. 132; Fairbanks *v.* Blackington, 9 Pick. 93.

credit in account, in the books of a third person;[1] or, a mortgage, assigned to the defendant as collateral security, and afterwards foreclosed and bought in by him;[2] or, a note payable in specific articles;[3] or, any chattel.[4] But not where the thing received was stocks,[5] goods,[6] or any other article; unless, in the understanding of the parties, it was considered and to be treated as money; or, unless it was intended to be sold by the receiver, and sufficient time has elapsed for that purpose.[7] If the defendant was the agent of the plaintiff, and the evidence of his receipt of the money is in his own account, rendered to his principal, this will generally be conclusive against him, unless he can clearly show, that it was unintentionally erroneous.[8] And if the agent or consignee of property to be sold, refuses to render any account, it will, after a reasonable time, be presumed, if the

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[1] Andrew *v.* Robinson, 3 Camp. 199.

[2] Gilchrist *v.* Cunningham, 8 Wend. 641.

[3] Crandall *v.* Bradley, 7 Wend. 311.

[4] Arms *v.* Ashley, 4 Pick. 71; Mason *v.* Waite, 17 Mass. 560.

[5] Nightingal *v.* Devisme, 5 Burr. 2589; Jones *v.* Brinley, 1 East, 1; Morrison *v.* Berkey, 7 S. & R. 246.

[6] Leery *v.* Goodson, 8 T. R. 687; Whitwell *v.* Bennett, 3 B. & P. 559.

[7] McLachlan *v.* Evans, 1 Y. & Jer. 380; Longchamp *v.* Kenney, 1 Doug. 117.

[8] Shaw *v.* Picton, 4 B. & C. 715, 729; Shaw *v.* Dartnall, 6 B. & C. 56. Where a factor sold goods on credit, to a person notoriously insolvent, taking the note of the purchaser payable to himself, and passing the amount to his principal's credit in account, as money, which he afterwards paid over, it was held, that he was not entitled, upon the failure of the purchaser, to recover this money back from the principal. Simpson *v.* Swan, 3 Campb. 291. But where, after the goods were consigned, but before the sale, the principal drew bills on the factor for the value, which he accepted; after which he sold the goods to a person in good credit, taking notes payable to himself, and rendered to the principal an account of the sale as for cash, not naming the purchaser, and the latter afterwards, and before the maturity of the notes, became insolvent; the principal was held liable to refund the money to the factor, in this action. Greely *v.* Bartlett, 1 Greenl. 172.

contrary do not appear, that he has sold the goods, and holds the proceeds in his hands.[1]

§ 119. Where the money was *delivered* to the defendant *for a particular purpose*, to which he refused to apply it, he cannot apply it to any other, but it may be recovered back by the depositor, under the count for money had and received.[2] If it was placed in his hands to be paid over to a third person, which he agreed to do, such person, assenting thereto, may sue for it, as money had and received to his own use.[3] But if the defendant did not consent so to appropriate it, it is otherwise, there being no privity between them; and the action will lie only by him, who placed the money in his hands.[4] If the money was delivered with directions to appropriate it in a particular manner for the use of a third person, it has been held, that the party depositing the money might countermand the order, and recover it back in this action, at any time before the receiver had paid it over, or entered into any arrangement with the other party, by which he would be injured, if the original order was not carried into effect.[5] But if the money has been deposited in the hands of a trustee, for a specific purpose, such as for the conducting of a suit by him, as the party's attorney, or, by two litigating parties, in trust for the prevailing party, it cannot be recovered back in this action till the trust is satisfied.[6]

§ 120. The count for *money had and received* may also

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[1] 2 Stark. Ev. 63; Selden *v.* Beale, 3 Greenl. 178.

[2] De Bernales *v.* Fuller, 14 East, 590, n.

[3] 1 Com. Dig. 205, 206, Assumpsit, E.

[4] Williams *v.* Everett, 14 East, 582; Hall *v.* Marston, 17 Mass. 575, 579; Grant *v.* Austen, 3 Price, 58.

[5] Gibson *v.* Minet, Ry. & M. 68; 1 C. & P. 247, S. C.; 9 Moore, 31, S. C.; 2 Bing. 7, S. C.; Lyte *v.* Peny, Dy. 49, a; Taylor *v.* Lendey, 9 East, 49.

[6] Case *v.* Roberts, Holt's Cas. 500; Ker *v.* Osborne, 9 East, 378. See 2 Story on Eq. Jurisp. § 793, *a. b.*

be supported by evidence, that the defendant obtained the plaintiff's money *by fraud*, or false color or pretence.[1] Thus, where one, having a wife living, fraudulently married another, and received the rents of her estate, he was held liable to the latter, in this form of action.[2] And, where the defendant has tortiously taken the plaintiff's property, and sold it, or being lawfully possessed of it, has wrongfully sold it, the owner may, ordinarily, *waive the tort*, and recover the proceeds of the sale under this count.[3] So, if the money of the plaintiff has in any other manner come to the defendant's hands, for which he would be chargeable in tort, the plaintiff may waive the tort, and bring assumpsit upon the common counts. But this rule must be taken with this qualification; that the defendant is not thereby to be deprived of any benefit, which he could have derived under the appropriate form of action in tort.[4] Thus, this count cannot be supported, for money paid for the release of cattle distrained *damage feasant*, though the distress was wrongful, where the right of common is the subject of dispute;[5] nor for money received for rent, where the title to the premises is in question between the parties;[6] nor in any other case, where the title to real estate is the subject of controversy; that being a question, which, ordinarily, cannot be tried in this form of action.[7]

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[1] 1 Steph. N. P. 335; Bliss *v.* Thompson, 4 Mass. 488; Ante, § 108; Lyon *v.* Annable, 4 Conn. 350.

[2] Hasser *v.* Wallis, 1 Salk. 28.

[3] Ante, § 117. But the goods must have been sold, or this count cannot be maintained. Jones *v.* Hoar, 5 Pick. 285. And there must be a tort, to be waived, for which trespass or case would lie. Bigelow *v.* Jones, 10 Pick. 161.

[4] Lindon *v.* Hooper, Cowp. 414, 419; Anscomb *v.* Shore, 1 Campb. 285; Young *v.* Marshall, 8 Bing. 43.

[5] Lindon *v.* Hooper, Cowp. 414.

[6] Cunningham *v.* Lawrents, 1 Bac. Abr. 260, n.; Newsome *v.* Graham, 10 B. & C. 234.

[7] 1 Chitty on Pl. 95, 96, 121; Binney *v.* Chapman, 5 Pick. 130; Miller *v.* Miller, 7 Pick. 133; Codman *v.* Jenkins, 14 Mass. 96; Baker *v.*

§ 121. Under this count, the plaintiff may also recover back money proved to have been obtained from him by *duress*, *extortion*, *imposition*, or taking any *undue advantage* of his situation, or otherwise involuntarily and wrongfully paid; as, by demand of illegal fees,[1] tolls,[2] duties, taxes, usury, and the like, where goods or the person were detained until the money has been paid.[3] So, where goods were illegally detained as forfeited;[4] or, where money was unlawfully demanded and paid to a creditor, to induce him to sign a bankrupt's certificate;[5] or, where a pawnbroker refused to deliver up the pledge, until a greater sum than was due was paid to him.[6] So, if the money has been paid under an usurious, or other *illegal contract*, where the plaintiff is not *in pari delicto* with the defendant;[7] or, for a *consideration* which has *failed*;[8] or, where the goods of the plaintiff have been seized and sold by the defendant, under an execution to which he was a stranger;[9] or, under a *conviction*, which has

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Howell, 6 S. & R. 481. But the right to an office may be tried in this form of action, if the plaintiff has once been in possession. Allen *v.* McKeen, 1 Sumn. 317; Green *v.* Hewitt, Peake's Cas. 182; Rex *v.* Bp. of Chester, 1 T. R. 396, 403.

[1] Morgan *v.* Palmer, 2 B. & C. 729; Dew *v.* Parsons, 1 Chitty, R. 295; 2 B. & Ad. 562, S. C.; Walker *v.* Ham, 2 N. Hamp. R. 238; Clinton *v.* Strong, 9 Johns. 370.

[2] Fearnley *v.* Morley, 5 B. & C. 25; Chase *v.* Dwinel, 7 Greenl. 134.

[3] Shaw *v.* Woodcock, 9 D. & R. 889; 7 B. & C. 73, S. C.; Amesbury *v.* Amesbury, 17 Mass. 461; Perry *v.* Dover, 12 Pick. 206; Atwater *v.* Woodbridge, 6 Conn. 223; Elliott *v.* Swartwout, 10 Pet. 137.

[4] Irving *v.* Wilson, 4 T. R. 485.

[5] Smith *v.* Bromley, 2 Doug. 696, n.; Cockshott *v.* Bennett, 2 T. R. 763; Stock *v.* Mawson, 1 B. & P. 286. See Wilson *v.* Ray, 10 Ad. & El. 82.

[6] Astley *v.* Reynolds, 2 Str. 915; 1 Selw. N. P. 83, n.

[7] 1 Steph. N. P. 335–341; Ante, § 111; 1 Selw. N. P. 84–94; Worcester *v.* Eaton, 11 Mass. 376; Boardman *v.* Roe, 13 Mass. 105; Wheaton *v.* Hibbard, 20 Johns. 290; Merwin *v.* Huntington, 2 Conn. 209. And see Perkins *v.* Savage, 15 Wend. 412; White *v.* Franklin Bank, 22 Pick. 181, 186–189.

[8] 1 Steph. N. P. 330–333, 345.

[9] Oughton *v.* Seppings, 1 B. & Ad. 241.

since been *quashed*, or, a *judgment*, which has since been *reversed*, the defendant having received the money;[1] or, under *terror of legal process*, which, though regularly issued, did not authorize the collection of the sum demanded and paid.[2] So, where the *person is arrested* for improper purposes without just cause; or, for a just cause, but without lawful authority; or, for a just cause and by lawful authority, but for an improper purpose; and pays money to obtain his discharge, it may be recovered under this count.[3]

§ 122. This count, ordinarily, may also be proved by evidence, that the plaintiff paid the money to the defendant upon a security, afterwards discovered to be a *forgery;* provided the plaintiff was not bound to know the handwriting, or, the defendant did not receive the money in good faith. Thus, where the defendant, becoming possessed of a lost bill of exchange, forged the payee's indorsement, and thereupon obtained its acceptance and payment from the drawees, he was held liable to refund the money in this action, though the bill was drawn by a commercial house in one country, upon a branch of the same house in another.[4] An acceptor, however, is bound to know the handwriting of the drawer of the bill; and a banker is in like manner bound to know the handwriting of his own customers; so that, in general, where they pay money upon the forgery of such signatures, to an innocent holder of the paper, the loss is their own.[5] Yet, where a banker paid a bill to a remote indorsee, for the honor of his customer, who appeared as a prior indorser, but whose

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[1] Feltham *v.* Terry, cit. Cowp. 419; 1 T. R. 387; Bull. N. P. 131; 1 Steph. N. P. 357–359. See the cases cited in 1 Metcalf & Perkins's Digest, p. 293, 294.

[2] Snowdon *v.* Davis, 1 Taunt. 359. But see Marriott *v.* Hampton, 7 T. R. 269; 2 Esp. 546.

[3] Bull. N. P. 172, 173; 5 Com. Dig. Pleader, 2 W. 19; Richardson *v.* Duncan, 3 N. Hamp. R. 508; Watkins *v.* Baird, 6 Mass. 506.

[4] Cheap *v.* Harley, cit. 3 T. R. 127.

[5] Price *v.* Neale, 3 Burr. 1354; Smith *v.* Mercer, 6 Taunt. 76.

signature was forged, and, on discovery of the forgery, he gave notice thereof, and returned the bill to the holder, in season for him to obtain his remedy against the prior actual indorsers, it was held, that he might, for this reason, recover back the money of the holder.[1] But where one wrote his check so carelessly as to be easily altered to a larger sum, so that the banker, when he paid it, could not discover the alteration, it was held to be the loss of the drawer.[2] So, if lost or stolen money, or securities, have come to the defendant's hands, *malâ fide*, the owner may recover the value in this form of action.[3]

§ 123. In this manner, also, money is recovered back, which has been *paid under a mistake of facts*. But here, the plaintiff must show, that the mistake was not chargeable to himself alone ;[4] unless it was made through forgetfulness, in the hurry of business, in which case it may be recovered.[5] But if it was paid into Court, under a rule for that purpose, it is conclusive on the party paying, even though it should appear, that he paid it erroneously.[6] Nor can money paid under a mistake of facts be reclaimed, where the plaintiff has derived a substantial benefit from the payment ;[7] nor, where the defendant received it in good faith, in satisfaction of an equitable claim ;[8] nor, where it was due in honor and

[1] Wilkinson *v.* Johnson, 3 B. & C. 428.

[2] Young *v.* Grote, 4 Bing. 253.

[3] 1 Steph. N. P. 353 – 355. But a party receiving a stolen bank note *bonâ fide* and for value, may retain it against the former owner, from whom it has been stolen. Miller *v.* Race, 1 Burr. 452. So, in the case of any other negotiable instrument, actually negotiated. 1 Smith's Leading Cases, p. 258 - 263 (Am. ed.) ; 43 Law Lib. 362 – 368.

[4] Milnes *v.* Duncan, 6 B. & C. 671, per Bayley, J. ; Hamlet *v.* Richardson, 9 Bing. 647 ; Story on Contr. § 102 – 110. If one by mistake pay the debt of another, he may recover it back of him who received it, unless this person was injured by the mistake. Tybout *v.* Thompson, 2 Browne, 27.

[5] Lucas *v.* Worswick, 1 M. & Rob. 293.

[6] 2 T. R. 648, per Buller, J.

[7] Norton *v.* Marden, 3 Shepl. 45.

[8] Moore *v.* Eddowes, 2 Ad. & El. 133.

conscience.[1] The *laws of a foreign country* are regarded, in this connexion, as matters of fact; and therefore money paid under a mistake of the law of another State, may be recovered back. Juris ignorantia est, cum *jus nostrum* ignoramus.[2] But it is well settled that money, paid under a mistake or *ignorance of the law* of our own country, but with a knowledge of the facts, or the means of such knowledge, cannot be recovered back.[3]

§ 124. This count may also be supported by proof, that the defendant has received money of the plaintiff upon a *consideration which has failed*;[4] as, for goods sold to the plaintiff, but never delivered;[5] or, for an annuity granted, but afterwards set aside;[6] or, as a deposit on the purchase of an estate by the plaintiff, to which the defendant cannot make the title agreed for;[7] or, where payment has been innocently made in counterfeit bank notes, or coins, if the plaintiff has offered to return them, within a reasonable time.[8] So, where the money was paid upon an *agreement which has been rescinded*,[9] whether by mutual consent, or by reason of fault in the defendant; the plaintiff showing that the de-

[1] Farmer *v.* Arundel, 2 W. Bl. 824, per De Grey, C. J.

[2] Haven *v.* Foster, 9 Pick. 112, 118; Story on Contr. § 101.

[3] Chitty on Contr. 490, 491; Story on Contr. § 100; Elliott *v.* Swartwout, 10 Pet. 137.

[4] Chitty on Contr. 487–490; 1 Steph. N. P. 330–332; Spring *v.* Coffin, 10 Mass. 34. But in this form of action, no damages are recovered beyond the money actually paid, and the interest. Neel *v.* Deans, 1 Nott & M'C. 210.

[5] Anon. 1 Stra. 407.

[6] Shove *v.* Webb, 1 T. R. 732.

[7] Alpass *v.* Watkins, 8 T. R. 516; Elliot *v.* Edwards, 3 B. & P. 181; Eames *v.* Savage, 14 Mass. 425. The plaintiff in such case must show, that he has tendered the purchase-money and demanded a title. Hudson *v.* Swift, 20 Johns. 24. See also Gillett *v.* Maynard, 5 Johns. 85.

[8] Young *v.* Adams, 6 Mass. 182; Markle *v.* Hatfield, 2 Johns. 455; Keene *v.* Thompson, 4 Gill & Johns. 463; Salem Bank *v.* Gloucester Bank, 17 Mass. 1; Ibid. 33; Raymond *v.* Baar, 13 S. & R. 318.

[9] Gillett *v.* Maynard, 5 Johns. 85; Bradford *v.* Manly, 13 Mass. 139; Connor *v.* Henderson, 15 Mass. 319.

fendant has been restored to his former rights of property, without unreasonable delay.[1] If the agreement has been partially executed, and the parties cannot be reinstated *in statu quo*, the remedy is to be had only under a special count upon the contract.[2]

§ 125. In regard to *moneys received by an agent*, the general rule is, that the action to recall it must be brought against the principal only, since, in legal contemplation, the receipt was by the principal, with whom the agent was identified. But the count for money had and received, against the agent alone, may be supported by proof that the principal was a foreigner, resident abroad; or, that the agent acted in his own name, without disclosing his principal; or, that the money was obtained by the agent through his own bad faith, or wrong, whether alone, or jointly with the principal; or, that, at the time of paying the money into his hands, or, at all events, before he had paid it over, or had otherwise materially changed his situation or relations to the principal, in consequence of the receipt of the money, as, by giving a new credit to him, or the like, he had notice not to pay it over to the principal.[3] But though he has not paid over the money, yet if he is a mere collector or receiver, the right of the principal cannot be tried in this form of action.[4]

§ 126. In support of the count upon an *account stated*, the plaintiff must show that there was a demand on his side, which was acceded to by the defendant. There must be a

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[1] Percival *v.* Blake, 2 C. & P. 514; Cash *v.* Giles, 3 C. & P. 407; Reed *v.* McGrew, 5 Ham. Ohio, R. 386; Warner *v.* Wheeler, 1 Chipm. 159.

[2] Hunt *v.* Silk, 5 East, 449; Beed *v.* Blandford, 2 Y. & J. 278.

[3] Story on Agency, § 266, 267, 268, 300, 301; Paley on Agency, by Lloyd, p. 388–394; 3 Chitty on Comm. & Manuf. 213.

[4] Ibid.; Sadler *v.* Evans, 4 Burr. 1984; Allen *v.* McKeen, 1 Sumn. 277, 278, 317.

fixed and certain sum, admitted to be due ;[1] but the sum need not be precisely proved as laid in the declaration.[2] The admission must have reference to past transatctions, that is, to a subsisting debt, or, to a moral obligation, founded on an extinguished legal obligation, to pay a certain sum ;[3] but if the amount is not expressed, but only alluded to by the defendant, it may be shown, by other evidence, that the sum referred to was of a certain and agreed amount.[4] The admission may be shown to have been made to the plaintiff's wife,[5] or other agent ; but an admission in conversation with a third person, not the plaintiff's agent, is not sufficient.[6] The admission itself must be voluntary, and not made upon compulsion ;[7] and it must be absolute, and not qualified.[8] But it need not be express and in terms ; for if the account be sent to the debtor, in a letter, which is received but not replied to in a reasonable time, the acquiescence of the party is taken as an admission, that the account is truly stated.[9] So, if one item only is objected to, it is an admission of the rest.[10] So, if a third person is employed by both parties to examine the accounts in their presence, and he strikes a balance against one, which, though done without authority, is not objected to, it is sufficient proof of an account stated.[11] So, if accounts are submitted

[1] Porter *v.* Cooper, 4 Tyrwh. 456, 464, 465 ; 1 C. M. & R. 387, S. C. ; Knowles *v.* Michel, 13 East, 249.

[2] Bull. N. P. 129. Proof of one item only, will support the count. Highmore *v.* Primrose, 5 M. & S. 65, 67 ; Knowles *v.* Michel, 13 East, 249 ; Pinchon *v.* Chilcott, 3 C. & P. 236.

[3] Clarke *v.* Webb, 4 Tyrwh. 673 ; 1 C. M. & R. 29, S. C. ; Tucker *v.* Barrow, 7 B. & C. 623 ; 3 C. & P. 85, S. C. ; Whitehead *v.* Howard, 2 B. & B. 372 ; Seagoe *v.* Dean, 3 C. & P. 170. An I. O. U. is admissible. Payne *v.* Jenkins, 4 C. & P. 324.

[4] Dixon *v.* Deveridge, 2 C. & P. 109.

[5] Styart *v.* Rowland, 1 Show. 215 ; Bull. N. P. 129.

[6] Breckon *v.* Smith, 1 Ad. & El. 488.

[7] Tucker *v.* Barrow, 7 B. & C. 623 ; 3 C. & P. 85, S. C.

[8] Evans *v.* Verity, Ry. & M. 239.

[9] Ante, Vol. 1, § 197.

[10] Chisman *v.* Count, 2 M. & Gr. 307.

[11] 1 Steph. N. P. 361.

to arbitration, by parol, the award is sufficient proof of this count.[1]

§ 127. The *original form, or evidence of the debt*, is of no importance, under the count upon an *account stated;* for the stating of the account alters the nature of the debt, and is in the nature of a new promise or undertaking.[2] Therefore, if the original contract were void, by the Statute of Frauds, or the stamp act,[3] or, if the items of the account were rents, secured by specialty,[4] yet if, after the agreement is executed, there be an actual accounting and a promise express or implied to pay, it is sufficient. It is not necessary to prove the *items* of the account; for the action is founded, not upon these, but upon the defendant's consent to the balance ascertained.[5] And it is sufficient, if the account be stated of what is due to the *plaintiff alone*, without deduction for any counter claim of the defendant.[6] But a *banker's pass-book*, delivered to his customer, in which there are entries on one side only, is not evidence of an account stated between them, though the customer keeps the book in his custody, without making any objection to the entries contained in it.[7]

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[1] Keen *v.* Batshore, 1 Esp. 194.

[2] Anon. 1 Ventr. 268; Foster *v.* Allanson, 2 T. R. 479, 482, per Ashhurst, J.; Ibid. 483, per Buller, J.; Holmes *v.* D'Camp, 1 Johns. 36, per Spencer, J. Therefore, an account stated with a new firm, may sometimes include debts due to a former firm, or to one of the partners. David *v.* Ellice. 5 B. & C. 196. And see Gough *v.* Davies, 4 Price, 200; Moor *v.* Hill, Peake's Add. Cas. 10.

[3] Seagoe *v.* Dean, 3 C. & P. 170; 4 Bing. 459, S. C.; Pinchon *v.* Chilcott, 3 C. & P. 236; Teal *v.* Auty, 2 B. & B. 99; Knowles *v.* Michel, 13 East, 249.

[4] Davison *v.* Hanslop, T. Raym. 211; Moravia *v.* Levy, 2 T. R. 483, n.; Danforth *v.* Schoharie, 12 Johns. 227; Foster *v.* Allanson, 2 T. R. 479. But this doctrine was questioned in Gilson *v.* Stewart, 7 Watts, 100, and its application restricted to cases, where the account included other matters also, not arising by the specialty.

[5] Bartlett *v.* Emery, 1 T. R. 42, n.; Bull. N. P. 129.

[6] Styart *v.* Rowland, 1 Show. 215.

[7] Ex parte Randleson, 2 Deac. & Chitty, 534. And see Tarbuck *v.* Bipsham, 2 M. & W. 2.

§ 128. It is not material *when the admission was made*, whether before or after action brought, if it be proved, that a debt existed before suit, to which the conversation related.[1] But whensoever such admission was made, it is *not* now held to be *conclusive;* but any errors may be shown and corrected under the general issue.[2] If the defendants were formerly *partners*, and the admission was by one of them alone, in regard to things which were done before the dissolution of the firm, it seems to be considered sufficient.[3]

§ 129. If the plaintiff claims the money in a *particular character* or capacity, it will not be necessary for him to prove that character, under the count upon an account stated; for the defendant, by accounting with him in that character, without objection, has admitted it.[4]

§ 130. The *defendant's answer*, in an action of assumpsit, is either by a plea in *abatement*, or by the general issue, or by a special plea in bar. In abatement of the suit, the more usual pleas are those of misnomer,[5] coverture, and the omission to sue a joint contractor. Under the liberality with which amendments are permitted, the plea of *misnomer* is now rarely tried. The plea of *coverture* is sustained by evidence of general reputation and acknowledgment of the parties and reception of their friends, as man and wife, and of cohabitation as such.[6] If coverture of the plaintiff is pleaded, it seems that proof of a solemn and unqualified admission by her, that she was married, will be sufficient to support the

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[1] Allen *v.* Cook, 2 Dowl. P. C. 546.

[2] Thomas *v.* Hawkes, 8 Mees. & Welsb. 140; Perkins *v.* Hart, 11 Wheat. 237, 256; Holmes *v.* D'Camp, 1 Johns. 36. Formerly it was otherwise. Trueman *v.* Hurst, 1 T. R. 40. See further, Harden *v.* Gordon, 2 Mason, 541, 561.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 112, and note (5).

[4] Peacock *v.* Harris, 10 East, 104; Ante, Vol. 1, § 195.

[5] See Ante, tit. ABATEMENT, § 21.

[6] Leader *v.* Barry, 1 Esp. 153; Kay *v.* Duchesse de Pienne, 3 Campb. 123; Birt *v.* Barlow, 1 Doug. 171. See Post, tit. MARRIAGE.

plea; but that if the admission is coupled with the expression of doubts as to the validity of the marriage, it will not be sufficient.[1]

§ 131. If the defendant pleads in abatement, that he made the contract *jointly with other persons*, named in the plea, but *not joined in the suit*, the naming of these persons is taken as exclusive of any others; and therefore if it is shown, that there were more joint contractors, this will disprove the plea.[2] If to a declaration for work and labor, or upon several contracts, the defendant pleads in abatement the non-joinder of other contractors, it must be proved, that all the contracts were made by, or that all the work was done for, the persons named in the plea, and none others; for, if it should appear, that one contract was made by, or one portion of the work was done for, the defendant alone, the plaintiff will have judgment for the whole, though, as to the residue of the declaration, the plea is supported; for not being supported as to the whole declaration to which it is pleaded, it is no answer at all. Therefore, where, to a count for work done, the defendants pleaded that it was done for them and certain others, and the plaintiff proved, that it was done partly for them, and the residue for them and the others, he had judgment for the whole, the plea not being supported to the extent pleaded.[3] But where the suit was against A. B. and C. for work done for them, and the defendants pleaded the non-joinder of D., and it appeared that one portion of the work was done for A. alone, another portion for A. B. C. and D., a third portion for A. B. and D., and a fourth for A. and B., but none for A. B. and C. only; the plea was held sup-

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[1] Mace *v.* Cadell, Cowp. 233; Wilson *v.* Mitchell, 3 Campb. 393.

[2] Godson *v.* Good, 6 Taunt. 587; 2 Marsh. 299, S. C.; Ela *v.* Rand, 4 N. Hamp. 307.

[3] Hill *v.* White & Williams, 6 Bing. N. C. 26; 8 Scott, 249, S. C.; 8 Dowl. P. C. 13, S. C.; 3 Jur. 1078. In this case, the case of Colson *v.* Selby, 1 Esp. 452, was overruled.

ported, as an answer to the action, the plaintiff failing to prove any claim against the particular parties sued.[1] If the persons not joined are described in the plea as assignees of a bankrupt contractor, the assignment itself must be proved, unless the fact has been admitted by the other party; proof of their having acted as such not being deemed sufficient.[2] And in the trial of this issue of the want of proper parties defendant, the contracting party not sued, though ordinarily incompetent as a witness for the defendant, by reason of his interest, may be rendered competent by a release.[3]

§ 132. This plea, to a count for goods sold, may be supported by proof they were ordered by the defendant jointly with the other person named; or, that such had been the previous and usual course of dealing between the parties; or, that partial payments had been made on their joint account.

§ 133. If one of two joint contractors is *dead*, and the survivor is sued, as the sole and several contractor, it will not be sufficient for the plaintiff, in answer to a plea of non-joinder, to *reply* the fact of his death, for this would contradict his declaration upon a separate contract, by admitting a joint one.[4] In all actions upon contract, the defendant has a right to require that his co-debtor should be joined with him; and the plaintiff cannot so shape his case, as to strip him of that right, or of the benefit, whatever it may be, of having his discharge stated on the record. The plaintiff is not at liberty, in the first instance, to anticipate what may

[1] Hill *v.* White, Williams, & Boulter, 6 Bing. N. C. 23; 8 Scott, 245, S. C.; 8 Dowl. P. C. 63, S. C.; 3 Jur. 1077. If some confess the action by default, yet the plaintiff cannot have judgment unless he proves a contract by all. Robeson *v.* Ganderton, 9 C. & P. 476; Elliott *v.* Morgan, 7 C. & P. 334.

[2] Pasmore *v.* Bousfield, 1 Stark. R. 296. See further as to this plea, Ante, tit. ABATEMENT, § 24, 25.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 395, 426, 427.

[4] Bovill *v.* Wood, 2 M. & S. 25, per Le Blanc, J.

ultimately perhaps be a discharge. The practice has ever been to join all the contracting parties on the record; thus giving to the party, who is joined, notice at the time, and enabling him at any future time to plead the judgment recovered on the joint debt, without the help of averments; and likewise advancing him one step in the proof, necessary in an action for contribution. Such was the judgment of Ld. Ellenborough, in a case, in which it was held, that, though one of the joint contractors had become *bankrupt* and obtained his discharge, a replication of this fact was no answer to a plea of non-joinder in abatement; for though he was discharged by law, he was not bound to take the benefit of it.[1] If he pleads the discharge, the plaintiff may enter a *nolle prosequi* as to him, and proceed against the other.[2] It has been held in England, that this course was proper only in cases of bankruptcy; and that a replication of infancy or coverture of the person not sued, was a good answer to a plea of non-joinder; for that the plaintiff could not, in such case, enter a *nolle prosequi* as to one joint contractor, without discharging all, and therefore, that he had no remedy but in this mode.[3] But in the American Courts, the entry of a *nolle prosequi*, and its effect, have been regarded as matters of practice, resting in the discretion of the Court; and accordingly, wherever one defendant pleads a plea, which goes merely to his personal discharge, the contract, as to him, being only voidable, and not utterly void, the plaintiff has been permitted to enter a *nolle prosequi* as to him, and proceed against the others.[4] It would seem, therefore, that, in the American Courts, the replication of *infancy*, or other personal immunity of the party not joined,

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[1] Bovill *v.* Wood, 2 M. & S. 23; 2 Rose, 155; Hawkins *v.* Ramsbottom, 6 Taunt. 179.

[2] Noke *v.* Ingham, 1 Wils. 89.

[3] Chandler *v.* Parks, 3 Esp. 76; Jaffray *v.* Frebain, 5 Esp. 47. See also Burgess *v.* Merrill, 4 Taunt. 468; 1 Chitty on Plead. 49, 52.

[4] Woodward *v.* Newhall, 1 Pick. 500; Hartness *v.* Thompson, 5 Johns. 160; Minor *v.* Mechanics Bank, 1 Peters, R. 46; Salmon *v.* Smith, 1 Saund. 207, n. (2), by Williams.

would not be a good answer to a plea of non-joinder in abatement, unless such party had already made his election and avoided the contract.[1]

§ 134. Where the joint liability pleaded arises from *partnership* with the defendant, it must be proved to have openly existed, not only at the time of making the contract, but in the same business to which the contract related. The partnership may be proved by evidence of any of the outward acts and circumstances, which usually belong to that relation, brought home to the knowledge of the plaintiff. But if the partnership is dormant, and unknown to the plaintiff, or, if it is known, but the omitted party is a secret partner, this, as we have heretofore seen, is no objection to the suit.[2]

§ 135. Almost all the *defences to the action* of assumpsit, in the United States, and, until a late period, in England, have been made under the *general issue*. This plea, on strict principle, operates only as a denial in fact of the express contract or promise, where one is alleged, or, of the matters of fact, from which the contract or promise alleged may be implied by law. But by an early relaxation of the principle, the defendant, in actions on express contracts, was admitted, under the general issue, to the same latitude of defence, which was open to him in actions upon the common counts, and was permitted to adduce evidence, showing that, on any ground common to both kinds of assumpsit, he was under no legal liability to the plaintiff for that cause, at the time of pleading.[3] The practice in the English Courts, by the recent rules, has been brought back to its original strictness and consistency with principle. In the United States, it remains, for the most part, in its former relaxed state ; and

[1] Gibbs *v.* Merrill, 3 Taunt. 313, 314, per Mansfield, C. J.

[2] Ante, tit. ABATEMENT, § 25 ; Story on Partnership, § 241 ; Collyer on Partnership, p. 424, 425.

[3] Stephen on Pleading, p. 179 – 182.

accordingly, where it has not been otherwise regulated by statutes, the defendant, under this issue, may give in evidence any matters, showing that the plaintiff *never had* any cause of action; such as, the non-joinder of another promissee; the defendant's infancy; lunacy; drunkenness, or other mental incapacity; or coverture at the time of contracting; duress; want of consideration; illegality; release or parol discharge or payment before breach; material alteration of the written contract; that the plaintiff was an alien enemy at the time of contracting; or, that the contract was void by statute, or by the policy of the law; non-performance of condition precedent, by the plaintiff; or, that performance on his own part was prevented by the plaintiff, or by law, or, in certain cases, by the act of God; or any the like matters of defence.[1] He may also *give in evidence* many *matters in discharge* of his liability to the plaintiff, such as, bankruptcy of the plaintiff, where this would defeat the action; coverture of the plaintiff, where she sues alone, and has no interest in the contract; payment; accord and satisfaction; former recovery; higher security given; discharge by a new contract; release; and the like.[2] Yet there are *some matters in discharge*, which admit the debt, but go in denial of the remedy only, that *must be pleaded;* namely, bankruptcy or insolvency of the defendant; tender; set-off; and the statute of limitations.[3] It is only where the special plea amounts to the general issue, that is, where it alleges matter, which is in effect a denial of the truth of the declaration, that such plea is improper and inadmissible.[4]

[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 417 - 420; Gould on Plead. ch. 6, § 46 - 50; Young *v.* Black, 7 Cranch, 565; Craig *v.* Missouri, 4 Pet. 426; Wilt *v.* Ogden, 13 Johns. 56; Wailing *v.* Toll, 9 Johns. 141; Hilton *v.* Burley, 2 N. Hamp. 193; Sill *v.* Rood, 15 Johns. 230; Mitchell *v.* Kingman, 5 Pick. 431; Osgood *v.* Spencer, 2 H. & G. 133.

[2] Ibid; Edson *v.* Weston, 7 Cow. 278; Drake *v.* Drake, 11 Johns. 531; Dawson *v.* Tibbs, 4 Yeates, 349; Young *v.* Black, 7 Cranch, 565; Offut *v.* Offut, 2 H. & G. 178; Wright *v.* Butler, 6 Wend. 284.

[3] 1 Chitty on Plead. 420; Gould on Plead. ch. 6. § 51.

[4] Gould on Plead. ch. 6, § 78; Steph. on Plead. 412.

These defences, being for the most part applicable to other actions on contracts, will be treated under their appropriate titles.

§ 136. In regard to the admissibility of evidence of failure or *want of consideration*, as a defence to an action of assumpsit, there is an embarrassing conflict in the decisions. A distinction, however, has been taken between those cases, where the consideration was the conveyance of real property, and those, where it was wholly of a personal nature, such as goods or services; and also between a total and a partial failure of the consideration. Where the consideration is personal in its nature, and the *failure is total*, or, the defendant has derived *no benefit* at all from the services performed, or none beyond the amount of money which he has already advanced, it seems agreed, that this may be shown in bar of the action.[1] If, in a special contract for a stipulated price, the failure of a similar consideration is *partial only*, the defendant having derived some benefit from the consideration, whether goods or services, the English rule seems to be, not to admit it to be shown in bar *pro tanto*, but to leave the defendant to his remedy by action;[2] unless the quantum to be deducted is matter susceptible of definite computation.[3] But where the plaintiff proceeds upon general counts, the value of the goods or services may be appreciated by evidence

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[1] Jackson *v.* Warwick, 7 T. R. 121; Templer *v.* McLachlan, 2 New R. 136, 139; Farnsworth *v.* Garrard, 1 Campb. 38; Dax *v.* Ward, 1 Stark. R. 409; Morgan *v.* Richardson, 1 Campb. 40, n.; 9 Moore, 159; Tye *v.* Gwinne, 2 Campb. 346.

[2] Templer *v.* McLachlan, 2 New R. 136; Franklin *v.* Miller, 4 Ad. & El. 599; Grimaldi *v.* White, 4 Esp. 95; Denew *v.* Daverell, 3 Campb. 451; Basten *v.* Butter, 7 East, 483, per Ld. Ellenborough; Sheels *v.* Davies, 4 Campb. 119; Crowninshield *v.* Robinson, 1 Mason, 93, acc. But see *Contra*, Okell *v.* Smith, 1 Stark. R. 107; Chapel *v.* Hickes, 2 Cr. & M. 214; 4 Tyrwh. 43; Cutler *v.* Close, 5 C. & P. 337.

[3] Day *v.* Nix, 9 Moore, 159. See also Parish *v.* Stone, 14 Pick. 198, 210.

for the defendant.[1] The American Courts, to avoid circuity of action, have of late permitted a partial failure of consideration to be shown in defence *pro tanto*, in all suits on contracts respecting personal property or services;[2] only taking care, that the defence shall not take the plaintiff by surprise.[3] But where the consideration consists of real estate, conveyed by deed, with covenants of title, promissory notes being given for the purchase money, the better opinion seems to be, that, on Common Law principles, the covenants in the deed constitute a sufficient consideration for the notes, and that the failure of title constitutes no ground of defence to an action upon them.[4] In some of the United States, however, this defence has been allowed.[5]

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[1] Denew *v.* Daverell, 3 Campb. 451; Basten *v.* Butter, 7 East, 479; Farnsworth *v.* Garrard, 1 Campb. 38; Fisher *v.* Samuda, Ib. 190; Kist *v.* Atkinson, 2 Campb. 63; Bilbie *v.* Lumley, 2 East, 469; 1 Mason, 95, per Story, J. acc.; Miller *v.* Smith, Ib. 437.

[2] 22 Am. Jurist, 26; 2 Kent, Comm. 473, 474; Barker *v.* Prentiss, 6 Mass. 430; Parish *v.* Stone, 14 Pick. 198; Folsom *v.* Mussey, 8 Greenl. 400; Reed *v.* Prentiss, 1 N. Hamp. 174; Shepherd *v.* Temple, 3 N. Hamp. 455; Hills *v.* Banister, 8 Cowen, 31; McAlister *v.* Reab, 4 Wend. 483; Reab *v.* McAlister, 8 Wend. 109; Todd *v.* Gallagher, 16 S. & R. 261; Christy *v.* Reynolds, Ib. 258; Evans *v.* Gray, 12 Martin, R. 475, 647; Spalding *v.* Vandercook, 2 Wend. 431; Hayward *v.* Leonard, 7 Pick. 181; Cone *v.* Baldwin, 12 Pick. 545; Pegg *v.* Stead, 9 C. & P. 636.

[3] Runyan *v.* Nichols, 11 Johns. 547; The People *v.* Niagara C. P. 12 Wend. 246; Reed *v.* Prentiss, 1 N. Hamp. 174, 176.

[4] Lloyd *v.* Jewell, 1 Greenl. 132; Howard *v.* Witham, 2 Greenl. 390; Knapp *v.* Lee, 3 Pick. 452; Vibbard *v.* Johnson, 19 Johns. 77; Whitney *v.* Lewis, 21 Wend. 131, 134; Greenleaf *v.* Cook, 2 Wheat. 13; Fulton *v.* Griswold, 7 Martin, R. 223; 22 Am. Jur. 26; 2 Kent, Comm. 471–473.

[5] 2 Kent, Comm. 472, 473; 22 Am. Jur. 26.

ATTORNIES.

§ 137. Under this title, it is proposed to treat only of attornies at law, and of the remedies in general, and at Common Law, between them and their clients; the subject of attornies in fact having been already treated under the head of Agency. The peculiar remedies, given by statutes and rules of Court, in England, and in some few of the United States, being not common to all the American States, and applicable to but few, will not here be mentioned.

§ 138. Actions by attornies, as such, are, ordinarily, brought either to recover payment for *fees*, disbursements, and professional services, or to recover damages for *slander* of their professional character. In the latter case, it seems generally necessary for the plaintiff to prove, by the book of admissions, or by other equivalent record or documentary evidence, that he has been regularly admitted and sworn; with proof that he has practised in his profession.[1] But where the slanderous words contained a threat by the defendant, that he would move the Court to have the plaintiff struck off the roll of attornies, this was held an admission, that the plaintiff was an attorney, sufficient to dispense with further proof.[2]

§ 139. Where the suit is by an attorney, *for fees*, &c., he must prove his retainer, and the fees and services charged. The *retainer* may be proved by evidence, that the defendant attended upon the plaintiff, at his office, in regard to the busi-

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[1] Jones *v.* Stevens, 11 Price, 235. And see Green *v.* Jackson, Peake's Cas. 236.

[2] Berryman *v.* Wise, 4 T. R. 366; Ante, Vol. 1, § 195, n.

ness in question; or, that he personally left notices, or executed other directions of the plaintiff; or, that he was present and assisting at the trial, while the plaintiff was managing the cause in his behalf; or, that he has spoken of the plaintiff, or otherwise recognized him, as his attorney.[1] If the retainer was to commence a suit, which was afterwards abated by a plea of non-joinder, this is sufficient evidence of authority to commence another suit against the parties named in the plea.[2] So, after an award made against a party, a retainer to "do the needful," is an authority to do all that is necessary, on the part of the client, to carry the award into complete effect.[3] So, where money was placed in the attorney's hands to invest for his client, with discretionary power "to do for her as he thought best," and he lent the money on mortgage, but, discovering that the security was bad, sued out a bailable writ against the borrower, in his client's name, it was held a sufficient retainer for this purpose.[4] It has, however, been laid down as a general rule, that a special authority must be shown to institute a suit, though a general authority is sufficient, to defend one; and accordingly, where one, acting under a general retainer, as solicitor, undertook to defend a suit at law brought against his client, upon certain promissory notes, and filed a bill in Chancery to restrain proceedings in that suit, the bill was ordered to be dismissed, with costs, to be paid by the solicitor, as having been filed without authority.[5] If two attornies occupy the same office, one being ostensibly the principal, and the other his clerk,

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[1] Hotchkiss *v.* Le Roy, 9 Johns. 142. Sworn to an answer signed by the attorney. Harper *v.* Williamson, 1 McCord, 156. But where one attorney does business for another, it is presumed to be done on the credit of the attorney who employed him, and not of the client. Scrace *v.* Whittington, 2 B. & C. 11.

[2] Crook *v.* Wright, Ry. & M. 278.

[3] Dawson *v.* Lawley, 4 Esp. 65.

[4] Anderson *v.* Watson, 3 C. & P. 214. But see Tabram *v.* Horn, 1 M. & R. 228.

[5] Wright *v.* Castle, 3 Meriv. 12.

under an agreement, that the latter shall receive all the benefit of the Common Law business, those who employ the persons in the office, will be presumed to employ them upon the terms, on which business is there done ; and therefore, in a suit by the clerk for the fees of Common Law business, those terms are competent evidence of a retainer of him alone.[1] So, where two attornies dissolved an existing partnership between them, but a client, with means of knowledge of that fact, continued to instruct one of them in a matter originally undertaken by the firm, this was held sufficient evidence, that the joint retainer had ceased.[2]

§ 140. But where solicitors are in *partnership*, they cannot dissolve their partnership, as against the client, without his consent, so as to discharge the retiring partner from liability ; much less can the retiring partner, in such case, accept a retainer from the opposite party.[3]

§ 141. The *effect of a retainer* to prosecute or defend a suit, is to confer on the attorney all the powers exercised by the forms and usages of the Court, in which the suit is pending.[4] He may receive payment ; [5] may bring a second suit after being nonsuited in the first for want of formal proof ; [6] may sue a writ of error on the judgment ; [7] may dis-

[1] Pinley *v.* Bagnall, 3 Doug. 155. So, if both, being partners, were in fact employed, but one only was an attorney of the Court, and did the business there, yet both may jointly recover. Arden *v.* Tucker, 4 B. & Ad. 815 ; 5 C. & P. 248. Unless the other was but a nominal partner. Kell *v.* Nainby, 10 B. & C. 20. And see Ward *v.* Lee, 13 Wend. 41.

[2] Perrins *v.* Hill, 2 Jurist, 858.

[3] Cholmondeley (Earl of) *v.* Lord Clinton, Coop. Ch. Ca. 80 ; 19 Ves. 261, 273, S. C. ; Cooke *v.* Rhodes, 19 Ves. 273, n.

[4] Smith *v.* Bossard, 2 McCord, Ch. 409.

[5] Langdon *v.* Potter, 13 Mass. 320 ; Lewis *v.* Gamage, 1 Pick. 347 ; Brackett *v.* Norton, 4 Conn. 517 ; Gray *v.* Wass, 1 Greenl. 257 ; Erwin *v.* Blake, 8 Pet. 18 ; Com's *v.* Rose, 1 Desaus. 469 ; Hudson *v.* Johnson, 1 Wash. 10.

[6] Scott *v.* Elmendorf, 12 Johns. 315.

[7] Grosvenor *v.* Danforth, 16 Mass. 74.

continue the suit;[1] may restore an action after a *non pros.*;[2] may claim an appeal, and bind his client by a recognizance in his name for the prosecution of it;[3] may submit the suit to arbitration;[4] may sue out an alias execution;[5] may receive livery of seisin of land taken by extent;[6] may waive objections to evidence, and enter into stipulations for the admission of facts, or conduct of the trial;[7] and for release of bail;[8] may waive the right of appeal, review, notice, or the like, and confess judgment.[9] But he has no authority to execute any discharge of a debtor, but upon the actual payment of the full amount of the debt,[10] and that in money only;[11] nor to release sureties;[12] nor to enter a *retraxit*;[13] nor to act for the legal representatives of his deceased client;[14] nor to release a witness.[15]

§ 142. In regard to the *conduct of business* by the attorney for his client, he must show, that he has done all that he

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[1] Gaillard *v.* Smart, 6 Cow. 385.

[2] Reinhold *v.* Alberti, 1 Binn. 469.

[3] Adams *v.* Robinson, 1 Pick. 462.

[4] Somers *v.* Balabrega, 1 Dall. 164; Holker *v.* Parker, 7 Cranch, 436; Buckland *v.* Conway, 16 Mass. 396.

[5] Cheever *v.* Mirrick, 2 N. Hamp. 376.

[6] Pratt *v.* Putnam, 13 Mass. 363.

[7] Alton *v.* Gilmanton, 2 N. Hamp. 520.

[8] Hughes *v.* Hollingsworth, 1 Murph. 146.

[9] Pike *v.* Emerson, 5 N. Hamp. 393; Talbot *v.* McGee, 4 Monr. 377; Union Bank of Georgetown *v.* Geary, 5 Pet. 99.

[10] Savory *v* Chapman, 8 Dowl. 656; Jackson *v.* Bartlett, 8 Johns. 361; Kellogg *v.* Gilbert, 10 Johns. 220; 5 Pet. 113; Gullet *v.* Lewis, 3 Stew. 23; Carter *v.* Talcott, 10 Verm. 471; Kirk *v.* Glover, 5 Stew. & Port. 34; Tankersly *v.* Anderson, 4 Desaus. 45; Simonton *v.* Barrell, 21 Wend. 362.

[11] Com's *v.* Rose, 1 Desaus. 469; Treasurers *v.* McDowell, 1 Hill, S. Car. Rep. 184.

[12] Givens *v.* Briscoe, 3 J. J. Marsh. 532.

[13] Lambert *v.* Sandford, 3 Blackf. 137.

[14] Wood *v.* Hopkins, 2 Penningt. R. 689; Campbell *v.* Kincaid, 3 Monr. 566.

[15] Marshall *v.* Nagel, 1 Bailey, 308.

ought to have done.[1] Though he is generally bound to follow the instructions of his client, yet he is not bound to do what was intended merely for delay, or is otherwise in violation of his duty to the Court.[2] Generally speaking, the contract of an attorney or solicitor, retained to conduct or defend a suit, is an entire and continuing contract to carry it on until its termination; and if, without just cause, he quits his client before the termination of the suit, he can recover nothing for his bill.[3] But he may refuse to go on, without an advance of money, or without payment of his costs in arrear, upon giving reasonable notice to his client; or, for just cause, and upon reasonable notice, he may abandon the suit; and in either case he may recover his costs up to that time.[4] But he cannot insist upon the payment of moneys due on any other account.[5]

§ 143. In the *defence* of an action for professional fees and services, besides denying and disproving the retainer, the defendant may show, that the plaintiff has not exercised the reasonable diligence and skill, which he was bound to employ; and may depreciate the value of the services, upon a *quantum meruit*, by any competent evidence. Whether *negligence* can be set up as a defence to an action for an attorney's bill of fees, is a point which has been much ques-

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[1] Allison *v.* Rayner, 7 B. & C. 441; 1 M. & R. 241, S. C.; Gill *v.* Lougher, 1 Cr. & J. 170; 1 Tyrwh. 121, S. C.; Godefroy *v.* Jay, 7 Bing. 413.

[2] Johnson *v.* Alston, 1 Campb. 176; Pierce *v.* Blake, 2 Salk. 515; Vincent *v.* Groome, 1 Chitty, R. 182; Anon. 1 Wend. 108; Gilbert *v.* Williams, 8 Mass. 51.

[3] Harris *v.* Osbourn, 4 Tyrwh. 445; 2 Cr. & M. 629, S. C.; Creswell *v.* Byron, 14 Ves. 271, Anon. 1 Sid. 31, pl. 8; 1 Tidd's Pr. 86, 9th Ed.; Love *v.* Hall, 3 Yerg. 408.

[4] Lawrence *v.* Potts, 6 C. & P. 428; Wadsworth *v.* Marshall, 2 C. & J. 665; Vansandau *v.* Browne, 9 Bing. 402; Rowson *v.* Earle, Mood. & M. 538; Hoby *v.* Built, 3 B. & Ad. 350; Gleason *v.* Clark, 9 Cowen, 57; Castro *v.* Bennett, 2 Johns. 296.

[5] Heslop *v.* Metcalfe, 8 Sim. 622.

tioned. If the services have proved entirely useless, it has long been agreed, that this may be shown in bar of the whole action; and, after some conflict of opinions, the weight of authority seems in favor of admitting any competent evidence of negligence, ignorance, or want of skill, as a defence to an action for professional services, as well as for any other work and labor.[1]

§ 144. An attorney undertakes for the employment of a degree of skill, ordinarily adequate and proportionate to the business he assumes. *Spondet peritiam artis. Imperitia culpæ adnumeratur.*[2] *Reasonable skill* constitutes the measure of his engagement; and he is responsible for *ordinary neglect.*[3] "Attornies," said Lord Mansfield, "ought to be protected when they act to the best of their skill and knowledge; and I should be very sorry that it should be taken for granted, that an attorney is answerable for every error or mistake, and to be punished for it by being charged with the debt, which he was employed to recover for his client, from the person who stands indebted to him. A *counsel* may mistake, as well as an attorney. Yet no one will say that a counsel, who has been mistaken, shall be charged with the debt. The counsel, indeed, is honorary in his advice, and does *not demand* a fee;[4] the attorney *may demand* a com-

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[1] See Ante, ASSUMPSIT, § 136, and cases there cited; Kannen *v.* McMullen, Peake's Cas. 59; Chapel *v.* Hickes, 2 C. & M. 214; 4 Tyrwh. 43; Cutler *v.* Close, 5 C. & P. 337; Cousens *v.* Paddon, 5 Tyrwh. 535; Hill *v.* Featherstonhaugh, 7 Bing. 569; Montriou *v.* Jefferys, 2 C. & P. 113; Huntley *v.* Bulwer, 6 Bing. N. C. 111; Grant *v.* Button, 14 Johns. 377; Brackett *v.* Norton, 4 Conn. 517. But see Templer *v.* McLachlan, 2 New Rep. 136; Runyan *v.* Nichols, 11 Johns. 547.

[2] Story on Bailm. § 431.

[3] Story on Bailm. § 432, 433; Reece *v.* Righy, 4 B. & A. 202; Ireson *v.* Pearman, 3 B. & C. 799; Hart *v.* Frame, 3 Jur. 547; 6 Cl. & Fin. 193; Lanphier *v.* Phipos, 8 C. & P. 475.

[4] In the United States, the offices of attorney and counsellor are so frequently exercised by the same person, that they have become nearly blended into one; and actions for compensation for services performed in

pensation. But neither of them ought to be charged with the debt for a mistake." [1]

§ 145. More particularly, an attorney is held liable for the consequences of ignorance or non-observance of the rules of practice of the Court; for the want of proper care in the preparation of a cause for trial, or of attendance thereon, and the use of due means for procuring the attendance of the witnesses; and for the mismanagement of so much of the cause, as is usually and ordinarily allotted to his department of the profession. But he is not answerable for error in judgment upon points of new occurrence, or of nice and doubtful construction, or of a kind usually entrusted to men in another or higher branch in the profession.[2] If he undertakes the collection of a debt, he is bound to sue out all process necessary to that object. Thus, he is bound to sue out the proper process against bail; [3] and against the officer, for taking insufficient bail, or for not delivering over the bail bond; [4] and to deliver an execution to the officer, in proper season after judgment, to perfect and preserve the lien created by the attachment of property on mesne process; [5] but not to attend in person to the levy of the execution.[6] If he doubts the expediency of farther proceeding, he should give notice to his client, and request specific instructions; [7] without which, it seems, he

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either capacity are freely sustained in most if not all the States of the Union.

[1] Pitt *v.* Yalden, 4 Burr. 2061. And see Compton *v.* Chandless, cited 3 Campb. 19; Kemp *v.* Burt, 4 B. & Ad. 424; Shilcock *v.* Passman, 7 C. & P. 289.

[2] Godefroy *v.* Dalton, 6 Bing. 467, per Tindal, C. J. And see Lynch *v.* The Commonwealth, 16 S. & R. 368.

[3] Dearborn *v.* Dearborn, 15 Mass. 316; Crooker *v.* Hutchinson, 1 Verm. 73.

[4] Crooker *v.* Hutchinson, 1 Verm. 73; Simmons *v.* Bradford, 15 Mass. 82.

[5] Phillips *v.* Bridge, 11 Mass. 246. And see Pitt *v.* Yalden, 4 Burr. 2060; Russell *v.* Palmer, 2 Wils. 325.

[6] Williams *v.* Reed, 3 Mason, 405.

[7] Dearborn *v.* Dearborn, 15 Mass. 316.

would be justified in not prosecuting, in cases where he is influenced by a prudent regard to the interests of his client.[1]

§ 146. For every violation of his duty, an *action lies immediately* against the attorney, even though merely nominal damages are sustained at the time; for it is a breach of his contract; but actual *damages* may be recovered for the direct consequences of the injury, even up to the time of the verdict.[2] The damages do not necessarily extend to the nominal amount of the debt lost by the attorney's negligence, but only to the loss actually sustained.[3]

§ 147. An Attorney, being an officer of the Court in which he is admitted to practice, is held amenable to its *summary jurisdiction*, for every act of official misconduct.[4] The matter is shown to the Court by petition or motion, ordinarily supported by affidavit; and the order of the Court, after hearing, is enforced either by attachment, or by striking his name from the roll. If he neglects or refuses to perform any stipulation or agreement entered into by him with the counsel or attorney of the other party, respecting the management or final disposition of the cause, or touching the trial, or the proofs; or fails to pay or perform any thing,

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[1] Crooker *v.* Hutchinson, 2 Chipm. 117.

[2] Wilcox *v.* Plummer, 4 Peters, R. 172. And see Marzetti *v.* Williams, 1 B. & Ad. 415.

[3] Dearborn *v.* Dearborn, 15 Mass. 316; Crooker *v.* Hutchinson, 2 Chipm. 117; Huntington *v.* Rumnill, 3 Day, 390.

[4] In several of the American States, persons of full age, and qualified as the statutes of those States prescribe, are *entitled* to admission to practice as attornies in any of the Courts, and it is made the *duty* of the Judges to admit them accordingly. Whether persons of this class are amenable to the summary jurisdiction of the Courts, may be doubted. If they are not, this fact shows the great impolicy of popular interference with the forms of administering justice, since in this case the legislatures have unconsciously deprived the people of the benefit of one of the strongest securities for professional good conduct.

which he has personally undertaken that his client shall pay or perform; or improperly refuses to deliver up documents to his client, who entrusted them to him; or to pay over to his client any moneys, which he has collected for him; he is liable to this summary mode of proceeding, as well as to an action at law.[1] But for mere negligence in the conduct of his client's business, the Courts will not interfere in this manner, but will leave the party to his remedy by action.[2]

§ 148. Where the remedy against an attorney is pursued by *action at law*, and the misconduct has occasioned the loss of a debt, the existence of the debt is a material fact to be shown by the plaintiff. If it were a judgment, this is proved by a copy of the record, duly authenticated.[3] If not, and an arrest of the debtor upon mesne process is a material allegation, the writ must be proved by itself, or by secondary evidence, if lost; unless it has been returned; in which case the proof is by copy. If the injury to the plaintiff was occasioned by departure from the known and usual course of practice, this should be shown by the evidence of persons conversant with that course of practice.[4] The fact of indebtment to the plaintiff, by his debtor, must also be proved by other competent evidence, where it has not yet passed into judgment. In short, the plaintiff has to show, that he had a valid claim, which has been impaired or lost by the negligence or misconduct of the defendant.[5] And if the attorney, having received money for his client, mixes it with his own, in a general deposit with a banker in his own name, and the banker fails, the attorney is liable for the loss.

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[1] 1 Tidd's Practice, 85–90, (9th ed.); Sharp *v.* Hawker, 3 Bing. N. C. 66; De Woolfe *v.* ———, 2 Chitty, R. 68; In re Fenton, 3 Ad. & El. 401; In re Aitkin, 4 B. & A. 47.

[2] Brazier *v.* Bryant, 2 Dowl. P. C. 600; In re Jones, 1 Chitty, R. 651.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 501 to 514.

[4] Russell *v.* Palmer, 2 Wils. 325, 328.

[5] 1 Steph. N. P. 434.

He should have deposited it in his client's name, or otherwise designated it as money held by him in trust for his client, so ear-marked as to be capable of precise identification.[1]

§ 149. If the injury to the plaintiff resulted from the attorney's neglect in regard to a *conveyance of title*, or in the examination of evidences of title, it is, ordinarily, necessary to produce the deeds or documents in question; whether the neglect were in a case drawn up, for the opinion of counsel, in which certain deeds materially affecting the title were omitted;[2] or, in the insertion of unusual and injurious covenants of title in a lease, without informing him of the consequences;[3] or, in advising him, or acting for him, in the investment of money under a will, upon the perusal of only a partial extract from the will, and not of the entire will itself;[4] or, were any other misfeasance or neglect as a professional agent in the conveyance of title. And if the client has thereby been evicted from the land, he should prove the eviction by a copy of the judgment, and by the writ of possession duly executed;[5] or, if he has peaceably submitted to an entry and ouster without suit, he must show that it was in submission to an elder and better title.[6]

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[1] Robinson *v.* Ward, 2 C. & P. 59.

[2] Ireson *v.* Pearman, 3 B. & C. 799.

[3] Stannard *v.* Ullithorne, 10 Bing. 491.

[4] Wilson *v.* Tucker, 3 Stark. R. 154.

[5] 1 Steph. N. P. 434. And see Gore *v.* Brazier, 3 Mass. 543.

[6] Hamilton *v.* Cutts, 4 Mass. 349; Sprague *v.* Baker, 17 Mass. 586.

BASTARDY.

§ 150. By the Common Law, children born out of lawful wedlock are bastards. By the Roman Law, if the parents afterwards intermarried, this rendered the issue legitimate. The rule of the Common Law prevails in the United States, except where it has been altered by statutes; which, in several of the States have been enacted, introducing, under various modifications not necessary here to be mentioned, the rule of the Roman Law.[1] The modern doctrine of the Common Law on this subject is this; that where a child is born during lawful wedlock, the husband not being separated from the wife by a sentence of divorce *à mensâ et thoro*, it is presumed that they had sexual intercourse, and that the child is legitimate; but this presumption may be rebutted by any competent evidence, tending to satisfy a jury, that such intercourse did not take place at any time, when, by the laws of nature, the husband could have been the father of the child.[2] If the husband and wife have had opportunity for

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[1] In New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas, the rule of the Common Law is understood to prevail. A subsequent marriage of the parents renders their prior issue legitimate, in Kentucky, Alabama, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, and Missouri. Beside the marriage, a subsequent acknowledgment of the child by the father, is requisite, in Indiana, Ohio, Vermont, Virginia, Maine, and Massachusetts. In Maine, other issue must have been born, after the marriage. In Massachusetts, the child can inherit only from its parents. In North Carolina, a decree of legitimacy in favor of ante-nuptial issue is obtained from the Courts, on application of the father, after the marriage.

[2] See the opinions of the Judges in the Banbury Peerage case, in Nicholas on Adulterine Bastardy, p. 183, 184; and of Ld. Redesdale and Ld. Ellenborough, Ibid. p. 458, 488; Morris *v.* Davies, 3 C. & P. 427; 5 C. & Fin. 163; Rex *v.* Luffe, 8 East, 193; Goodright *v.* Saul, 4 T. R. 356; Pendrel

intercourse, this merely strengthens the presumption of legitimacy; but it may still be rebutted by opposing proof.[1] And if they have cohabited together, yet this does not exclude evidence, that the husband was physically incapable of being the father.[2] But if the child was begotten during a separation of the husband and wife *à mensâ et thoro* by a decree, it will be presumed illegitimate; it being presumed, till the contrary is shown, that the sentence of separation was obeyed. But no such presumption is made, upon a voluntary separation.[3]

§ 151. The *husband and wife* are alike *incompetent witnesses*, to prove the fact of non-access while they lived together. But they *are competent* to testify, in cases between third parties, as to the time of their own marriage, the time of the child's birth, the fact of access, and any other independent facts, affecting the question of legitimacy.[4] The husband's declarations, however, that the child is not his, are not sufficient to establish its illegitimacy, though it were born only three months after marriage, and thereupon he and his wife had separated, by mutual consent.[5]

§ 152. In regard to the *period of gestation*, no precise

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v. Pendrel, 2 Stra. 924; Stegall *v.* Stegall, 2 Brock. 256; Head *v.* Head, 1 Turn. & Rus. 138; 1 Sim. & Stu. 150; Cope *v.* Cope, 5 C. & P. 604; 1 M. & Rob. 269.

[1] Ibid. See also Commonwealth *v.* Stricker, 1 Browne, App. xlvii; 3 Hawks, 63; 1 Ashmead, 269.

[2] Per Ld. Ellenborough in Rex *v.* Luffe, 8 East, 205, 206; Foxcroft's case, Ib. 200, n. 205 This case, however, is more fully stated and explained in Nicholas on Adulterine Bastardy, p. 557 – 564. In case of access of the husband, nothing short of physical impotency on his part, will serve to convict a third person of the paternity of the offspring. Commonwealth *v.* Shepard, 6 Binn. 283.

[3] St. George's *v.* St. Margaret's Parish, 1 Salk. 123; Bull. N. P. 112.

[4] Ante, Vol. 1, § 28, 344; Standen *v.* Standen, Peake's Cas. 32; Rex *v.* Bramley, 6 T. R. 330; Goodright *v.* Moss, Cowp. 591.

[5] Bowles *v.* Bingham, 2 Munf. 442; 3 Munf. 599, S..C.

time is referred to, as a rule of law, though the term of two hundred and eighty days or forty weeks, being nine calendar months and one week, is recognized as the usual period. But the birth of the child being liable to be accelerated or delayed by circumstances, the question is purely a matter of fact, to be decided upon all the evidence, both physical and moral, in the particular case.[1]

§ 153. Bastardy may also be proved by showing, that the party was the issue of a *marriage absolutely void;* as, if the husband or wife were already married to another person, who was alive at the time of the second marriage. So, by showing that the child was begotten after a decree of divorce *à vinculo matrimonii.* But if the marriage were only voidable, and not *ipso facto* void, the issue are deemed legitimate, unless the marriage was avoided by the parties themselves, in the lifetime of both.[2] After the lapse of thirty years, and after the death of all the parties, legitimacy will be presumed on slight proof.[3]

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[1] See 1 Beck's Med. Jurisp. ch. 9; Hargrave & Butler's note (2), to Co. Lit. 123 b.; 4 Law Mag. 25 to 49; Nicholas on Adulterine Bastardy, p. 212, 213; The Banbury Peerage case, Ib. 291 to 554; The Gardner Peerage case, Ib. 209.

[2] Co. Litt. 33, a.; 1 Bl. Comm. 434.

[3] Johnson *v.* Johnson, 1 Desaus. 595.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE AND PROMISSORY NOTES.

§ 154. As the acceptor of a bill of exchange, and the maker of a promissory note, stand in the same relation to the holder, the note being of the nature of a bill drawn by a man on himself, and accepted at the time of drawing, the rules of evidence are, in both cases, the same. The liabilities of the parties to these instruments, are of three general classes; — (1.) Primary and absolute liability; such as that of the acceptor of a bill or maker of a note, to the payee, indorsee, and bearer; — (2.) Secondary and conditional liability; such as that of the drawer of a bill, to the payee or indorsee, and of the indorser to the indorsee; — (3.) Collateral and contingent liability; such as that of the acceptor to the drawer or indorser; and of the drawer to the acceptor. And accordingly the action upon a bill or note, will be brought, either, (1.) by the payee or bearer, against the acceptor or maker; or (2.) by the indorsee, against the acceptor or maker; or (3.) by the payee, against the drawer of a bill; or (4.) by the indorsee, against the drawer of a bill, or against the indorser of a bill or note; or (5.) by the drawer or indorser of a bill against the acceptor; or (6.) by the acceptor, against the drawer.

§ 155. In these forms of remedy, the material allegations on the part of the plaintiff involve four principal points, which, if not judicially admitted, he must prove; namely, *first*, the existence of the instrument, as described in the declaration; — *secondly*, how the defendant became party to it, and his subsequent contract; — *thirdly*, the mode by which the plaintiff derived his interest in and right of action upon the instrument; — and *fourthly*, the breach of the con-

tract by the defendant. The plaintiff will not be holden to prove a *consideration*, unless in special cases, where his own title to the bill is impeached, as will be shown hereafter. In treating this subject, therefore, it is proposed to consider these four principal points, in their order.[1]

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[1] In this order, that of Mr. Chitty has been followed; whose Treatise on Bills, chap. 5, (9th Ed.), and the Treatise of Mr. Justice Story on Bills, have been freely resorted to, throughout this Title.

The usual declarations on bills and notes are in the following forms, according to the present practice in England and in most of the United States, where the Common Law remedies are pursued.

(1.) *Payee* v. *Acceptor*, of a foreign bill. "For that one E. F. at ——— in the kingdom (or *State*) of ——— on ——— made his bill of exchange in writing directed to the said [*defendant*] at ———, and thereby required the said [*defendant*] in ——— days [or, *months*, &c.] after sight [or, *date*] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to the plaintiff ——— [*here insert the sum as expressed in the bill; and if the currency mentioned in the bill is one, which has not been recognized and its value established by statute, the value in the national currency should be averred,*] —— and the said [*defendant*,] on ——— accepted the said bill, and promised the plaintiff to pay the same, according to the tenor and effect thereof and of his said acceptance. Yet," &c.

In this case, the proposition of fact, to be maintained by the plaintiff, involves, first, the existence of such a bill as he describes, and secondly, that the defendant accepted it as alleged.

(2.) *Payee* v. *Maker*, of a negotiable promissory note. "For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— by his promissory note in writing, for value received, promised the plaintiff to pay him or his order ——— dollars ——— in ——— days [or, *months*, &c.] after the date thereof. Yet," &c.

Here, the plaintiff's case is made out by the production and proof of the note.

(3.) *Indorsee* v. *Acceptor*, of a foreign bill. "For that one E. F. at ——— in the kingdom, &c. on ——— made his bill of exchange in writing, and directed the same to the said (*defendant*) at ——— and thereby required the said defendant in ——— days [or, *months*, &c.] after sight [or, *date*] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to one G. H. or his order ——— [*as in No.* 1] and the said [*defendant*] then accepted the said bill; and the said G. H. then indorsed the same to the plaintiff; [*or*, indorsed the same to one J. K., and the said J. K. then indorsed the same to the plaintiff;] of all which the said (*defendant*) then had notice, and in consideration thereof then promised the plaintiff to pay him the amount of said bill, according to the tenor and effect thereof and of his said acceptance. Yet," &c.

§ 156. And FIRST, as to *the existence of the instrument, as described in the declaration.* Ordinarily, the bill must be pro-

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In this action, the plaintiff's case is made out by proof of the acceptance, and of the indorsements; the acceptance being an admission that the bill was duly drawn.

(4.) *Indorsee* v. *Maker*, of a promissory note. "For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— by his promissory note in writing, for value received, promised one E. F. to pay him or his order ——— in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] from said date; and the said E. F. then indorsed the said note to the plaintiff; of which the said [*defendant*] then had notice, and in consideration thereof then promised the plaintiff to pay him the amount of said note according to the tenor thereof. Yet," &c.

Here, the plaintiff's case is made out by proof of the maker's signature, and of the indorsement.

(5.) *Bearer* v. *Maker*, of a promissory note. "For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— by his promissory note in writing, for value received, promised one E. F. to pay him or the bearer of said note ——— in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] from said date; and the said E. F. then assigned and delivered the said note to the plaintiff, who then became and is the lawful owner and bearer thereof; of which the said (*defendant*) then had notice, and in consideration thereof then promised the plaintiff to pay him the amount of said note, according to the tenor thereof. Yet," &c.

This declaration is proved by production of the note, and proof of its execution by the defendant.

(6.) *Payee* v. *Drawer*, of a foreign bill, on non-acceptance. "For that the said [*defendant*] at ——— on ——— made his bill of exchange in writing, and directed the same to one E. F. at ——— in the kingdom of ——— and thereby required the said E. F. in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] after sight [*or*, date] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to the plaintiff ——— [*as in No.* 1]; and the said bill, on ——— at said ——— was presented to the said E. F. for acceptance, and he refused to accept the same; of all which the said [*defendant*] on ——— had due notice, and thereby became liable to pay to the plaintiff the amount of said bill on demand, and in consideration thereof promised the plaintiff to pay him the same accordingly. Yet," &c.

Here, the plaintiff must prove, if traversed, the drawing of the bill, its presentment to the drawee for acceptance, and his refusal to accept it, and notice thereof to the defendant; together with the protest, it being a foreign bill. See Salomons *v.* Stavely, 3 Doug. 298.

(7.) *Indorsee* v. *Drawer*, of a foreign bill, on non-acceptance. "For that the said (*defendant*) at ——— on ——— made his bill of exchange in writing, and directed the same to one E. F. at ——— in the kingdom of

duced at the trial, in all the parts or sets in which it was drawn.[1] If the bill, or other *negotiable security*, *be lost*,

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——— and thereby required the said E. F. in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] after sight [*or*, date] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to one G. H. or his order ——— [*as in No.* 1] and the said G. H. then indorsed the same to ———, [*as in No.* 3] and the said bill, on ——— at said ——— was presented to the said E. F. for acceptance, and he refused to accept the same; of all which the said [*defendant*] on ——— had due notice, and thereby became liable to pay to the plaintiff the amount of said bill on demand, and in consideration thereof promised the plaintiff to pay him the same accordingly. Yet," &c.

A traverse of this declaration puts the plaintiff to prove the drawing of the bill, — the payee's indorsement, and all the subsequent indorsements declared upon, — presentment to the drawee, — his default, — and notice to the defendant of the dishonor of the bill; together with the protest, as before.

(8.) *Indorsee* v. *Indorser*, being payee of a foreign bill, on non-acceptance. "For that one E. F. at ——— on ——— made his bill of exchange, and directed the same to one G. H. at ——— in the kingdom of ——— and thereby required the said G. H. in ——— days [*or*, months,] after sight [*or*, date] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to the said [*defendant*] or his order, ——— [*here describe the bill as in No.* 1] —— and the said [*defendant*] then indorsed the same [*as in No.* 3]; and the said bill on ——— at said ——— was presented to the said G. H. for acceptance, and he refused to accept the same; of all which the said [*defendant*] on ——— had due notice, and thereby became liable to pay to the plaintiff the amount of said bill on demand, and in consideration thereof promised the plaintiff to pay him the same accordingly. Yet," &c.

The proof of this declaration is the same as in the preceding case.

(9.) *Drawer* v. *Acceptor*. "For that the plaintiff on ——— made his bill of exchange in writing, and directed the same to said [*defendant*] and thereby required him, in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] after sight [*or*, date] of that his first of exchange, the second and third of the same tenor and date not paid, to pay to one E. F. or his order ——— [*as in No.* 1] and delivered the same to the said E. F. and the said [*defendant*] then accepted the same, and promised the plaintiff to pay the same, according to the tenor and effect thereof, and of his said acceptance; yet he did not pay the amount thereof, although the said bill was presented to him on the day when it became due, and thereupon the same was then and there returned to the plaintiff, of which the said [*defendant*] had notice."

[1] 2 Stark. Ev. 203; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, 616.

there can be no remedy upon it at law, unless it was in such a state, when lost, that no person but the plaintiff could have acquired a right to sue thereon. Otherwise, the defendant would be in danger of paying it twice, in case it has been negotiated. It is also his voucher, to which he is entitled,

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In this case, the plaintiff may be required to prove the acceptance of the bill by the defendant, — its presentment for payment, and his refusal, — payment of the bill by the plaintiff, — and, that the defendant had effects of the plaintiff in his hands; of which, however, the acceptance of the bill is *primâ facie* evidence. It is not necessary for the plaintiff to make out a title to the bill under the payee. Kingman *v.* Hotaling, 25 Wend. 423.

(10.) *Indorser* v. *Acceptor*. In this case, the plaintiff may declare specially, as in the preceding case, *mutatis mutandis;* but the more usual course is to declare upon his original relation of payee or indorsee, as in Nos. 1 and 3.

(11.) *Acceptor* v. *Drawer*, of an accommodation-bill. "For that the said [*defendant*] on ——— in consideration that the plaintiff, at the request of the said [*defendant*] and for his accommodation, had then accepted a certain bill of exchange of that date drawn by the said [*defendant*] upon the plaintiff for the sum of ——— payable to one E. F. or his order in ——— days [*or*, months, &c.] after sight [*or*, the date] of said bill, promised the plaintiff to furnish him with money to pay said bill at the time when the same should become payable. Yet the said [*defendant*] never did furnish the plaintiff with said money, by reason whereof the plaintiff has been compelled with his own money to pay the amount of said bill to the holder thereof, of which the said defendant had due notice."

In this case, the plaintiff must prove the drawing of the bill, and its acceptance; he must rebut the presumption that he had effects of the drawer in his hands, which results from his acceptance, by some evidence to the contrary; and he must prove that he has paid the bill. This last fact is not established by production of the bill, without proof that it has been put into circulation since the acceptance; nor will a receipt of payment on the back of the bill suffice, without showing that it was signed by some person entitled to demand payment. Pfiel *v.* Vanbatenburg, 2 Campb. 439.

It is to be observed, that where, by the course of practice, the precise time of filing the declaration does not judicially appear, it may be necessary, and is certainly expedient, to insert an averment that the time of payment of the bill or note is elapsed. But where the declaration is required to be inserted in the writ, or filed at the time of commencing the action, as is the case in several of the United States, this averment is unnecessary.

by the usage of merchants, which requires its actual presentation for payment, and its delivery up when paid.[1] Therefore, wherever the danger of a double liability exists, as, in the case of a bill or note, either actually negotiated in blank, or payable to bearer, and lost or stolen, the claim of the indorsee or former holder has been rejected.[2] And whether the loss was before or after the bill fell due, is immaterial.[3] On the other hand, if there is no danger that the defendant will ever again be liable on the bill or note, as, if it be proved to have been actually destroyed, while in the plaintiff's own hands,[4] or, if the indorsement were specially restricted to the plaintiff only,[5] or, if the instrument was not indorsed,[6] or, has been given up by mistake,[7] the plaintiff has been permitted to recover, upon the usual secondary evidence. So, if the bill was lost after it had been produced in Court and used as evidence in another action.[8] By cutting a bill, or a bank

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[1] Pierson *v.* Hutchinson, 2 Campb. 211; Hansard *v.* Robinson, 7 B. & C. 90; 9 D. & R. 860; Ry. & M. 404, n.; Poole *v.* Smith, Holt's Cas. 144; Rowley *v.* Ball, 3 Cowen, 303; Story on Bills, § 448, 449.

[2] Davis *v.* Dodd, 4 Taunt. 602; Poole *v.* Smith, Holt's Cas. 144; Rowley *v.* Ball, 3 Cowen, 303; Mayor *v.* Johnson, 3 Campb. 324; Bullet *v.* Bank of Pennsylvania, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 172; Champion *v.* Terry, 3 B. & B. 295.

[3] Ibid.; Kirby *v.* Sisson, 2 Wend. 550.

[4] Pierson *v.* Hutchinson, 2 Campb. 211; Swift *v.* Stevens, 8 Conn. 431; Anderson *v.* Robson, 2 Bay, R. 495; Rowley *v.* Ball, 3 Cowen, 303. The destruction of the bill may be inferred from circumstances. Pintard *v.* Tackington, 10 Johns. 104; Peabody *v.* Denton, 2 Gal. 351; Hinsdale *v.* Bank of Orange, 6 Wend. 378, 379.

[5] Long *v.* Baillie, 2 Campb. 214; Ex parte Greenway, 6 Ves. 812.

[6] Rolt *v.* Watson, 4 Bing. 273; 12 Moore, 510, S. C.

[7] Eagle Bank *v.* Smith, 5 Conn. 71.

[8] Renner *v.* Bank of Columbia, 9 Wheat. 396. This may have been decided upon the ground, that the loss was by the officers of the Court, while the document was in the custody of the law. The same rule has been applied, where the bill had been used before commissioners in bankruptcy. Pooley *v.* Millard, 1 C. & J. 411; 1 Tyrwh. 331, S. C. In the case of a lost bill, the general and appropriate remedy is in Equity, upon the offer of a bond of indemnity. 1 Story on Eq. § 81, 82; Ex parte Greenway, 6 Ves. 812; Pierson *v.* Hutchinson, 2 Campb. 211; Mossop *v.* Eadon, 16

note, into two parts, as is often done for safety of transmission by post, its negotiability, while the parts are separate, is destroyed; in which case, the holder of one of the parts, on proof of ownership of the whole, has been held entitled to recover.[1] If the loss of a promissory note is proved, the plaintiff, if he is the payee, may recover, unless it is affirmatively proved to have been negotiable; for, in the absence of such proof, the Court will not presume that it was negotiable.[2]

§ 157. This amount of proof is incumbent on the plaintiff, in order to recover his damages, whatever may be the point in issue. But where the *general issue* is pleaded, the plaintiff must also prove every other material averment in his declaration. If the issue is upon a point specially pleaded, all other averments are admitted, and the evidence is confined to that point alone.

Ves. 430; Cockell *v.* Bridgman, 4 Beav. 499. In England, however, by Stat. 9 & 10 W. 4, c. 17, § 3, if any inland bill be lost or miscarried within the time limited for payment, the drawee is bound to give another of the same tenor to the holder, who, if required, must give security to indemnify him in case the lost bill should be found. But in some cases, the Courts of Law have sustained an action by the payee, for the original consideration, where the note or bill was not received in extinguishment of the original contract; — Rolt *v.* Watson, 4 Bing. 273; — or, upon the ground that the defendant, being the drawer of the bill, had prevented the indorsee from obtaining the money of the drawee, by refusing to enable him so to do. Murray *v.* Carrett, 3 Call, R. 373. And in other cases, the owner of a bill, lost before its maturity, has been permitted to recover at law, on giving the defendant an indemnity; — Miller *v.* Webb, 8 Louis. R. 516; Lewis *v.* Peytarin, 4 Martin, 4, N. S.; — but if lost after it had become due, and had been protested, no indemnity was held requisite. Brent *v.* Erving, 3 Martin, 303, N. S.

[1] Hinsdale *v.* Bank of Orange, 6 Wend. 378; Bullet *v.* Bank of Pennsylvania, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 172; Patton *v.* State Bank, 2 N. & McC. 464; Bank of United States *v.* Sill, 5 Conn. 106; Farmer's Bank *v.* Reynolds, 4 Rand. 186.

[2] McNair *v.* Gilbert, 3 Wend. 344; Pintard *v.* Tackington, 10 Johns. 104, 105. See further, Bayley on Bills, 413 – 418.

158. After the note or bill is produced, the next step is to *prove the signature* of the defendant, where, by the nature of the action, or by the state of the pleadings, or the course of the Court, this proof may be required.[1] If the signature is not attested, the usual method of proof is by evidence of the person's handwriting, or, of his admission of the fact. If it is attested by a subscribing witness, that witness must be produced, if he is to be had, and is competent.[2] Some evidence has also been held requisite of the identity of the party with the person whose signature is thus proved; but slight evidence to this point will suffice.[3] If it is alleged in the declaration, that the bill was drawn, or accepted, or, that the note was made by the party, "his own proper hand being thereunto subscribed," it has been thought, that this unnecessary allegation bound the plaintiff to precise proof, and that if the signature appeared to have been made by another, by procuration, it was a fatal variance.[4] But the weight of later authority is otherwise; and accordingly it is now held, that those words may be rejected as surplusage.[5] If the

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[1] See Ante, § 16.

[2] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 569 to 574, where the proof of the execution of instruments is more fully treated.

[3] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 575; Nelson *v.* Whittall, 1 B. & Ald. 19; Page *v.* Mann, 1 M. & M. 79; Mead *v.* Young, 4 T. R. 28; Bulkeley *v.* Butler, 2 B. & C. 434; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, 641, 642, (9th ed.)

[4] 2 Stark. Ev. 203; 2 Phil. Ev. 4.

[5] This point was first raised before Ld. Ellenborough, in 1804, in Levy *v.* Wilson, 5 Esp. 180, when he held it matter of substance, and nonsuited the plaintiff for the variance. Afterwards, in 1809, in Jones *v.* Mars & al. 2 Campb. 305, which was against partners, as drawers of a bill, "their own *hands* being thereto subscribed," and the proof being, that the name of their firm of "Mars & Co." was subscribed by one of them only, the same learned Judge refused to nonsuit the plaintiff for that cause. In the following year, the original point being directly before him in Helmsley *v.* Loader, 2 Campb. 450, he said it would be too narrow a construction of the words "own hand," to require that the name should be written by the party himself. And of this opinion was Ld. Tenterden, who accordingly held the words mere surplusage, in Booth *v.* Grove, 1 M. & Malk. 182; 3 C. & P. 335, S. C. See also Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 570, 627, (9th ed.)

instrument was executed by an agent, his authority must be proved, together with his handwriting; and if he was authorized by deed, the deed must be produced, or its absence legally accounted for, and its existence and contents shown by secondary evidence.[1] If the instrument is in the hands of the adverse party, or his agent, notice must be given to the party to produce it.[2]

§ 159. If there are *several signatures*, they must all be proved; and an admission by one, will not, in general, bind the others.[3] But, where the acceptors are partners, it will suffice to prove the partnership, and the handwriting of the partner who wrote the signature.[4] If the signature is not attested by a subscribing witness, the *admission* of the party is sufficient proof of it; otherwise, the subscribing witness must be called;[5] but the admission of the party that the signature is his, if not solemnly made, does not estop him from disproving it.[6] Payment of money into Court, partial payments made out of Court, promises to pay, a request of forbearance, and for further time of payment, and a promise to give a new security, have severally been deemed sufficient to dispense with proof of the signature.[7] A promise by the maker to pay a note to an indorsee, made after it fell due, has been held an admission not only of his own signature,

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[1] Johnson *v.* Mason, 1 Esp. 89.

[2] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 560–563. Notice to the agent is unnecessary. Burton *v.* Payne, 2 C. & P. 520.

[3] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 174; Gray *v.* Palmer, 1 Esp. 135; Sheriff *v.* Wilkes, 1 East, 48; Carvick *v.* Vickery, 2 Doug. 653, note.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 177. As to admissions by partners, see Ante, Vol. 1, § 112, and note (5).

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 569–572.

[6] Hall *v.* Huse, 10 Mass 39; Salem Bank *v.* Gloucester Bank, 17 Mass. 1; Ante, Vol. 1, § 27, 186, 205, 572.

[7] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 205; Israel *v.* Benjamin, 3 Campb. 40; Bosanquet *v.* Anderson, 6 Esp. 43; Helmsley *v.* Loader, 2 Campb. 450; Jones *v.* Morgan, Ib. 474.

but of all the indorsements, superseding the necessity of further proof.[1]

§ 160. The bill or note produced, must conform in all respects to the instrument described in the declaration; for every part of a written contract is material to its identity, and a variance herein will be fatal.[2] If there be any alteration apparent on the instrument, tending to render it suspected, the plaintiff must be prepared with evidence to explain it.[3] And if the plaintiff sue as payee of a bill or note, which purports to be payable to a person of a different name, this also may be explained by evidence *aliundè*, if the record contains the proper averments.[4] So, if the drawer and drawee of a bill are of the same name, and the record does not assert that they are two persons, parol evidence is admissible, that they are one and the same person, and of course that the bill amounts, in effect, to a mere promissory note.[5] If the action is by the indorsee against the indorser of a bill, dishonored on presentment for payment, the allegation of its acceptance is not descriptive of the instrument, but is wholly immaterial, and therefore need not be proved.[6] And in an action against the acceptor, if his acceptance be unnecessarily stated to have been made to pay the bill at a particular place, and there is an averment of presentment there, this averment also, is immaterial, and need not be proved.[7] If the currency mentioned in the bill is foreign, and its equivalent value has not been established and declared by law, the value will of course be alleged in the declaration, and must be proved, including the rate of exchange when

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[1] Keplinger *v.* Griffith, 2 Gill & Johns. 296.

[2] See Vol. 1, § 56, 61, 63, 64, as to what constitutes a variance.

[3] See Vol. 1, § 564.

[4] Willis *v.* Barrett, 2 Stark. R. 29.

[5] Roach *v.* Ostler, 1 Man. & Ry. 120.

[6] Tanner *v.* Bean, 4 B. & C. 312, overruling Jones *v.* Morgan, 2 Campb. 474, as to this point.

[7] Freeman *v.* Kennell, Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 616.

the bill became due; together with the duration of the usances, if any are stated in the bill.

§ 161. SECONDLY, the plaintiff must show *how the defendant was a party to the bill or note*, and the *nature of his contract*. If the action is *against the acceptor*, the acceptance must be proved. And an acceptance, where it is not otherwise qualified or restrained by the local law, may be either verbal, or in writing; and may be either by express words, or by reasonable implication.[1] By the French Law, every acceptance must be in writing. By the English Law, the acceptance of a foreign bill may be verbal or in writing; but that of an inland bill must be only in writing, on the bill itself. In all other cases, an acceptance by letter or other writing, is good; though it is usually made on the bill.[2] If the acceptance is by an agent, his authority, as we have seen in other cases, must be shown.[3] Where the action is against some of several acceptors *or makers*, the others are competent witnesses for the plaintiff, to prove the handwriting of the defendants.[4] So, if the action is against *partners*, after proof of the partnership, the admissions of one of the firm are good, against all.[5] If the bill is drawn payable *after sight*, it is in general necessary to prove the precise time of acceptance; but if the acceptance is dated, this is sufficient evidence of the time; and though the date is in a hand different from that of the acceptor, it will be presumed to have been written

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[1] Story on Bills, § 242, 243.

[2] Story on Bills, § 242; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 314–333, (9th ed.) A promise to accept an existing bill, specifically described, is a good acceptance; but whether a promise to accept a non-existing bill, to be drawn at a future day, is a good acceptance, is a point not universally agreed. In the American Courts it is held good; in England it is not. Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 297, 284, 285, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 249; Bank of Ireland *v.* Archer, 11 M. & W. 383.

[3] Ante, § 59–68.

[4] York *v.* Blott, 5 M. & S. 71; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 627, (9th ed.) See Ante, Vol. 1, § 399; Poole *v.* Palmer, 9 M. & W. 71.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 172, 174, 177.

by his authority, by a clerk, according to the usual course of business.[1] If the acceptance was *by parol*, the person who heard it must be called; and if the answer relied on was given by a clerk, his authority to accept bills for his master must also be provod.[2]

§ 162. In an action *against the drawer, maker, or indorser* of a bill or note, the same proof of signature, and of agent's authority is requisite, as in the case of an acceptor.[3]

§ 163. In the THIRD PLACE, *the plaintiff must prove his interest in the bill or note*, or, *his title to sue thereon.* Where the action is between the immediate parties to the contract, as, payee and maker of a note, or payee and acceptor of a bill, the plaintiff, ordinarily, has only to produce the instrument and prove the signature.[4] But where the plaintiff was not an original party to the contract, but has derived his title by means of some intermediate transfer, the steps of this transfer become, to some extent, material to be proved. The extent to which the proof must be carried, will generally depend upon the extent of the allegations in the declaration. Thus, if a note, made payable to A. B. or bearer, is indorsed in blank by the payee, and the holder, in an action against the maker, declares upon the indorsement, he must prove it; although the allegation of the indorsement was unnecessary; for he might have sued as bearer only, in which case the indorsement need not be proved.[5] If the name of the payee

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[1] Glossop *v.* Jacob, 4 Campb. 227; 1 Stark R. 69. S. C.; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 292, (9th ed.)

[2] Sayer *v.* Kitchen, 1 Esp. R. 209. As to what conduct or words amount to a verbal acceptance, see Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 288, 289, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 243–247.

[3] As to the proof of handwriting, see Ante, Vol. 1, § 576–581. As to proof by the subscribing witness, see Ante, Vol. 1, § 569–575. And as to admissions by the party, or by one of several parties, see Ante, Vol. 1, § 27, 172–205.

[4] King *v.* Milsom, 2 Campb. 5. See also Peacock *v.* Rhodes, 2 Doug. 633.

[5] Waynam *v.* Bend, 1 Campb. 175. And see Ante, Vol. 1, § 60. If he

in the bill or note was left blank, and the plaintiff has filled it by inserting his own name, he must show either, that he was intended as the original payee, or, that the bill came regularly into his possession.[1] If there are several persons of the same name with the payee, the possession of the bill or note is *primâ facie* evidence, that the plaintiff was intended; but if there be two, father and son, in the absence of other proof, it will be presumed that the father was intended.[2] And, where the bill or note is made payable to a firm by the name of A. & *Co.*, the payees, in a suit in their own names, must prove that they were the persons who composed the firm.[3]

§ 164. But though the plaintiff must furnish the proof of his own title, yet this proof may consist of *admissions* by the defendant, apparent upon the bill or note. For every person, giving currency to commercial paper, is understood thereby to assert the genuineness of all such signatures, and the regularity of all such previous transactions as he was bound to know. Thus, the acceptor of a bill, after sight, by the act of *acceptance*, admits that the drawer's signature is genuine, that he had a right to draw, that he was of proper age, and otherwise qualified to contract, and that he bears the character, in which he assumes to draw, such as executor, partner, and the like.[4] So, also, the *indorsement* of a bill or

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sues as bearer only, the indorsement need not be proved. Wilbour *v.* Turner, 5 Pick. 526. See also Blakely *v.* Grant, 6 Mass. 386. Every indorsement of a promissory note will be presumed to have been made at the place of making the note, until the contrary appears. Duncan *v.* Sparrow, 3 Rob. Louis. R. 167.

[1] Crutchly *v.* Mann, 5 Taunt. 529; 1 Marsh. 29, S. C.

[2] Sweeting *v.* Fowler, 1 Stark. R. 106.

[3] Waters *v.* Paynter, Chitty & Hulme on Bills, 637, note (l), (9th ed.)

[4] Wilkinson *v.* Lutwidge, 1 Stra. 648; Smith *v.* Sear, Bull. N. P. 270; Porthouse *v.* Parker, 1 Campb. 82; Taylor *v.* Croker, 4 Esp. 187; Bass *v.* Clive, 4 M. & S. 13; Vere *v.* Lewis, 3 T. R. 182; Parminter *v.* Symonds, 2 Bro. P. C. 182; 1 Wils. 185; Aspinal *v.* Wake, 10 Bing. 51; Story on Bills, § 113, 262; Schultz *v.* Astley, 2 Bing. N. C. 544.

note, is an admission of the genuineness of the signature of the drawer, or maker.[1] And if the bill is drawn by *procuration*, the acceptance admits the procuration.[2]

§ 165. These *admissions*, however, by the act of acceptance or indorsement, are strictly *limited* to those things, which the party was bound to know. Therefore, though a bill is drawn payable to the drawer's own order, and is indorsed with the same name, whether by procuration or not, yet the acceptance is not in itself an admission of the indorsement, but only of the drawing;[3] though probably the Jury would be warranted in inferring the one, from the admitted genuineness of the other.[4] So, though the bill has been shown to the drawer, with the indorsement of the payee upon it, and his objection to paying it was merely because it was drawn without consideration, yet this will not dispense with proof of the indorsement.[5] But where there are successive indorsements, which are all laid in the declaration, and are therefore generally necessary to be proved,[6] yet, if the defendant apply to the holder for further time, and offer terms, this is an admission of the plaintiff's title, and a waiver of proof of all the indorsements except the first.[7] So, if the payee delivered it, with his name indorsed on it, to another, the proof of this fact will dispense with direct proof of the

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[1] Free *v.* Hawkins, Holt's Cas. 550.

[2] Robinson *v.* Yarrow, 7 Taunt. 455; Story on Bills, § 262, 263, 412, 451.

[3] Robinson *v.* Yarrow, 7 Taunt. 455; Story on Bills, § 262, 263, 412, 451; Smith *v.* Chester, 1 T. R. 654; Maeferson *v.* Thoytes, Peake's Cas. 20.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 578, 581; Allport *v.* Meek, 4 C. & P. 267. In this case, as it appeared, by the plaintiff's own showing, that neither of the signatures was in the handwriting of the nominal drawer, for the want of further explanatory evidence, he was nonsuited. See also Jones *v.* Turnour, 4 C. & P. 204.

[5] Duncan *v.* Scott, 1 Campb. 101.

[6] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, 642, (9th ed.); Ante, Vol. 1, § 60.

[7] Bosanquet *v.* Anderson, 6 Esp. 43.

indorsement.[1] So, if the drawee, at the time of acceptance of an indorsed bill, expressly promises to pay it, this has been held an admission of the indorsements.[2]

§ 166. The plaintiff is *not bound* to allege, nor, of course, *to prove any indorsements but such as are necessary to convey title* to himself. All others, therefore, may be stricken out; even after the bill has been read in evidence, and after an objection has been taken on account of variance.[3] And in an action against a subsequent indorser, it is not necessary to prove any indorsement prior to his own, even though alleged.[4] If the action is against the drawer or acceptor, and the first indorsement was in blank, it will be unnecessary to prove any of the subsequent indorsements, though they were in full; they may therefore be stricken out at the time of trial, unless set out in the declaration; which, however, may in that case be amended.[5] If the bill or note was made payable to the order of a *fictitious person*, and the party sued knew that fact when he became party to the bill or note, or before he transferred it, this will dispense with proof of the handwriting of the fictitious indorser.[6] It may here be

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[1] Glover *v.* Thompson, Ry. & M. 403. But where the acceptor negotiated the bill with the drawer's name indorsed, he was not allowed, as against the indorsee, to *plead* that it was not indorsed by the drawer to the plaintiff, in addition to a plea denying the acceptance. Gilmore *v.* Hague, 4 Dowl. P. C. 303.

[2] Hankey *v.* Wilson, Sayer, R. 223. And see Sidford *v.* Chambers, 1 Stark. R. 326.

[3] Mayer *v.* Jadis, 1 M. & Rob. 247.

[4] Critchlow *v.* Parry, 2 Campb. 182; Lambert *v.* Pack, 1 Salk. 127; Chaters *v.* Bell, 4 Esp. 210.

[5] Walwyn *v.* St. Quintin, 1 B. & P. 658; 2 Esp. 515, S. C.; Chaters *v.* Bell, 4 Esp. 210; Smith *v.* Chester, 1 T. R. 654. If the note or bill, though indorsed and transferred, gets back again into the hands of the payee, he is *primâ facie* the legal owner. Dugan & al. *v.* The United States, 3 Wheat. 172. The holder may derive title to himself from any preceding indorser, striking out the intermediate indorsements. Emerson *v.* Cutts, 12 Mass. 78; Tyler *v.* Binney, 7 Mass. 479.

[6] Minet *v.* Gibson, 3 T. R. 481; Bennett *v.* Farnell, 1 Campb. 180 *c.*;

added, that where the indorser of a bill or note is not a party to the suit, he is generally a competent witness to prove his own indorsement ;[1] and, that the indorsement of an infant ;[2] or, of a feme covert,[3] she being the agent of her husband ; or, of a trader, after an act of bankruptcy,[4] if he received the value, are alike sufficient to convey title to the indorsee.

§ 167. In an action against the drawer or acceptor of a bill payable to the order of several *partners*, it is in general necessary to prove the partnership and the handwriting of the partner or agent of the firm by whom it was indorsed.[5] But if the partnership has been dissolved, it is not necessary, in an action upon a bill, drawn and indorsed by one partner in the name of the firm, to prove, that the bill was drawn and indorsed before the dissolution ; for the bill will be presumed to have been drawn on the day of its date, and the Jury will be at liberty to infer, that the indorsement, if without date, was made at the same time.[6] If the plaintiffs sue as indorsees of a bill indorsed in blank, they need not prove their partnership, nor that the bill was indorsed or delivered to them jointly ; for the indorsement in blank conveys a joint right of action to as many as agree in suing on the bill.[7] But if a bill or note is payable or indorsed specially to a firm, by their partnership name, and they sue thereon, strict proof

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Chitty & Hulme on Bills, 157, 158, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 200 ; Cooper *v.* Meyer, 10 B. & C. 468.

[1] Richardson *v.* Allan, 2 Stark. R. 334 ; Ante, Vol. 1, § 190, 383, 385.

[2] Taylor *v.* Croker, 4 Esp. 187 ; Nightingale *v.* Withington, 15 Mass. 273 ; Jones *v.* Darch, 4 Price, 300.

[3] Cotes *v.* Davis, 1 Campb. 485 ; Barlow *v.* Bishop, 1 East, 434 ; Miller *v.* Delamater, 12 Wend. 433.

[4] Smith *v.* Pickering, Peake's Cas. 50.

[5] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 37 – 61, 643, (9th ed.)

[6] Anderson *v.* Weston, 5 Bing. N. C. 296.

[7] Ord *v.* Portal, 3 Campb. 239, per Ld. Ellenborough ; Attwood *v.* Rattenbury, 6 Moore, 579, per Park, J. ; Rordasnz *v.* Leach, 1 Stark. R. 446.

must be made, that the firm consists of the persons who sue.[1]

§ 168. The like effect is given to a *blank indorsement* in other cases; for in pleading, it is sufficient, *primâ facie*, to convey a title to the actual holder, and of course nothing more need be proved. Thus, where a promissory note, indorsed in blank, was delivered to one to get it discounted, and he shortly afterwards returned with the money, which he paid over, this was held sufficient to entitle him as executor to recover judgment upon the note as indorsed to his testator.[2] But in an action by the executor of the payee, against the acceptor, it is necessary to allege and prove, that the acceptance was in the testator's lifetime.[3] If the note, after being indorsed in blank, is delivered in pledge by the payee, as collateral security for a debt, this will not prevent the payee from suing upon it in his own name, or again transferring it; subject only to be defeated by the claim of the pledgee.[4]

§ 169. If the action is by the *drawer against the acceptor* of a bill which, having been dishonored, he has been obliged to pay to the holder, and these facts are alleged in the declaration, the plaintiff must prove the return of the bill, and the payment by him; but it is not necessary to prove, that the acceptor held funds of the drawer, this being admitted by the acceptance.[5] And if a prior indorser, who has been obliged to pay a subsequent indorsee, sues the acceptor, it has been held, that he must prove such payment.[6] But in all these

[1] 3 Campb. 240, note; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 644, (9th ed.) In such case, the names of the partners may be suggested to the witness by whom the partnership is proved. Ante, Vol. 1, § 435.

[2] Godson *v.* Richards, 6 C. & P. 188.

[3] Anon. 12 Mod. 447, per Holt, C. J. And see Sarell *v.* Wine, 3 East, 409.

[4] Fisher *v.* Bradford, 7 Greenl. 28; Bowman *v.* Wood, 15 Mass. 534.

[5] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 537, 647, (9th ed.); Vere *v.* Lewis, 3 T. R. 182.

[6] Mendez *v.* Carreroon, 1 Ld. Raym. 742.

actions, founded on the return of a bill, if it is shown that the instrument was once in circulation, it will be presumed that it came back into the plaintiff's hands by payment, in the regular course, by which dishonored paper goes back to the original parties.[1]

§ 170. Where the action is by an *accommodation acceptor*, against the drawer, either for money paid, or specially for not indemnifying the plaintiff, in addition to proof of the drawing of the bill, and of the absence of consideration, the plaintiff should prove payment of the bill by himself, or some special damage, or liability to costs, by reason of his acceptance.[2] But here, also, the mere production of the bill by the plaintiff is not sufficient proof that he has paid it, unless he shows, that it was once in circulation after it was accepted; nor will payment be presumed, from a receipt indorsed on the bill, unless it is shown to be in the handwriting of one entitled to demand payment.[3]

§ 171. In regard to *the consideration*, two things are to be noted; *first*, as to *the parties* between whom it may be impeached; and *secondly*, as to the *burden of proof*. And here it is *first* to be observed, that the consideration of a bill or note, as well as of any other unsealed instrument of contract, is impeachable by the immediate or original parties; between whom, the general rule is, that the want of it may always be set up by the defendant, in bar of the action. Thus, it may be insisted on by the drawer against the payee; by the payee against his indorsee; and by the acceptor against the drawer. The same rule is applied to all persons standing precisely in the situation of the original parties, and

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[1] Pfiel *v.* Vanbatenberg, 2 Campb. 439; Dugan *v.* The United States, 3 Wheat. 172; Baring *v.* Clark, 19 Pick. 220.

[2] Chilton *v.* Whiffin & al. 3 Wils 13; Bullock *v.* Lloyd, 2 C. & P. 119; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 647, (9th ed.)

[3] Pfiel *v.* Vanbatenberg, 2 Campb. 439; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, ub. supra. And see Scholey *v.* Walsby, Peake's Cas. 25.

identified with them, in equity; such as, their agents; purchasers of paper dishonored by being over-due; persons who have given no value for the bill; purchasers with notice that the instrument is void in the hands of the assignor,[1] whether from fraud, or from want, failure, or illegality of consideration. These parties are regarded as taking the bill or note, subject to all the equities attaching to the particular bill in the hands of the holder; but not to the equities, which may exist between the parties, arising from other transactions.[2] But, on the other hand, no defect or infirmity of consideration, either in the creation or in the transfer of a negotiable security, can be set up against a mere stranger to the transaction, such as a *bonâ fide* holder of the bill or note, who received it for a valuable consideration, at or before it became due, and without notice of any infirmity therein. The same rule will apply, though the present holder has such notice, if he derives his title to the bill from a prior *bonâ fide* holder for value. Every such holder of a negotiable instrument is entitled to recover upon it, notwithstanding any defect of title in the person from whom he derived it; and even though he derived it from one who acquired it by fraud, or theft, or robbery.[3]

§ 172. *Secondly*, as to the *burden of proof*, it is to be observed, that bills of exchange enjoy the privilege, conceded to no unsealed instruments not negotiable, of being *presumed* to be founded upon a valid and valuable consideration. Hence, between the original parties, and, *à fortiori*, between

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[1] But if a promissory note or bill is available to the holder, and he transfers it to another, the want of consideration cannot be set up against the latter, though he had notice that it was given without consideration, before it came to his hands. Dudley *v.* Littlefield, 8 Shepl. 418.

[2] Story on Bills, § 187; Burrough *v.* Moss, 10 B. & C. 558. In the United States, the defendant has in many instances been allowed to claim a set-off in such cases, founded on other transactions. See Bayley on Bills, p. 544 to 548, the cases in Phillips & Sewall's notes. See post, § 199.

[3] Story on Bills § 187 – 194; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 68 – 81, (9th ed.)

others who become *bonâ fide* holders, it is wholly unnecessary to establish, that the bill was given for such consideration; the burden of proof resting upon the other party to establish the contrary, and rebut the presumption of value, which the law raises for the protection of all negotiable paper.[1] The same principle applies to the consideration paid by each successive holder of the bill. But, even in an action by the indorsee against an original party to a bill, if it is shown, on the part of the defendant, that the bill was made under *duress*, or, that he was *defrauded* of it, or, if a strong *suspicion of fraud* is raised, the plaintiff will then be required to show under what circumstances and for what value he became the holder.[2] It is, however, only in *such* cases, that this proof will be demanded of the holder; it will not be required, where the defendant shows nothing more than a mere absence or want of consideration on his part.[3] Nor will it suffice for the acceptor to show, that the drawer procured all the indorsements to be made, without consideration, in order that the action might be brought by any indorsee, under an agreement between the plaintiff and the drawer, to share the money when recovered;[4] nor, that the bill was accepted in order to raise money for his own use, of which the payee had subsequently defrauded him.[5]

§ 173. The burden of proof is somewhat affected by the *form of the issue.* Thus, in an action by the drawer against

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[1] Story on Bills, § 178.

[2] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 648, 649, (9th ed.); Duncan *v.* Scott, 1 Campb. 100; Rees *v.* Marq. of Headfort, 2 Campb. 574; Heydon *v.* Thompson, 1 Ad. & El. 210; Whitaker *v.* Edmunds, 1 M. & Rob. 366, per Patteson, J.; 1 Ad. & El. 638, S. C.; Heath *v.* Sansom, 2 B. & Ad. 291, as limited and explained by Patteson, J. in 1 M. & Rob. 367, and by Tindal, C. J. in 1 Bing. N. C. 267; Munroe *v.* Cooper, 5 Pick. 412.

[3] Ibid.; Lowe *v.* Chifney, 1 Bing. N. C. 267; 1 Scott, 95, S. C.

[4] Whitaker *v.* Edmunds, 1 M. & Rob. 367.

[5] Jacob *v.* Hungate, 1 M. & Rob. 445. See further, Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 649–651, (9th ed.)

the acceptor of a bill, if the consideration of the acceptance is impeached under the general issue, as is ordinarily the course in the American Courts, the burden of proof is on the acceptor. And so it is, where the plaintiff, in his replication, merely alleges that there was a valid consideration for the acceptance, without specifying what it was; or, where he states the kind of consideration under a *videlicet*, so as not to confine himself to precise proof of the allegation. But, where he chooses specially to allege the sort of consideration on which he relies, concluding with a verification, so that the defendant has an opportunity to traverse it, and does so, the burden of proof is on the plaintiff, precisely to maintain his replication.[1]

§ 174. In the FOURTH PLACE, *the plaintiff must show a breach of the contract, by the defendant.* And here it is to be observed, that the engagement of the defendant is either direct and absolute, or conditional. In the former case, as, in an action against the maker of a promissory note, or, against the acceptor of a bill, upon a general acceptance to pay the bill according to its tenor, it is not necessary for the plaintiff to prove a *presentment for payment*, it being not essential to his right to recover. Where the bill is drawn generally, but the *acceptance* is made *payable at a particular place*, it has been much questioned, whether it was necessary for the holder to prove a presentment for payment at the place named in the acceptance, in order to show the acceptor's default. In England it was formerly held, that, in such case, a presentment at the place must be shown;[2] but subsequently, by statute,[3] such acceptance has been declared to be a general acceptance, unless restrictive words are added, making

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[1] Batley *v.* Catterall, 1 M. & Rob. 379, and note (a.) See also Lacey *v.* Forrester, 2 C. M. & R. 59; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 648, 649, (9th ed.); Ante, Vol. 1, § 58, 59, 60.

[2] Rowe *v.* Young, 3 B. & B. 165. And see Picquet *v.* Curtis, 1 Sumn. 478.

[3] 1 & 2 Geo. 4, cap. 78.

the bill payable at that place alone. But in the Supreme Court of the United States, it is held, that, as between the holder and the acceptor, no demand at the place named in the acceptance is necessary, to entitle the plaintiff to recover; though the want of such demand may affect the amount of damages and interest; but that to charge the drawer or indorsers of the bill, a demand at the place, at the maturity of the bill, is indispensable.[1]

§ 175. But in the latter case, as, in actions against the drawer or indorser of a bill, or the indorser of a note, the *undertaking* of the defendant being *conditional*, namely, to pay in case the party primarily liable does not, the default of such party must be proved, or the proof be dispensed with by the introduction of other evidence. The receiver of a bill or note is understood thereby to contract with every other party, who would be entitled to bring an action on paying it, that he will present it in proper time to the drawee for acceptance, when acceptance is necessary, and to the acceptor for payment, when the bill has arrived at its maturity and is payable; to allow no extra time for payment, to the acceptor; and to give notice in a reasonable time, and without delay, to every such person, of a failure in the attempt to procure a proper acceptance or payment. Any default or neglect in any of these respects will discharge every such person from responsibility on account of a non-acceptance or non-payment; and will make it operate, generally, as a satisfaction of any debt, demand or value, for which it was given.[2]

§ 176. Thus, in an action by the *payee* of a bill, or the *indorsee* of a bill or note, *against the drawer* or *indorser*, it is necessary to prove a *presentment* to the drawee for payment. If the bill is payable at sight, or in so many days

[1] Wallace *v.* McConnell, 13 Peters, R. 136; Story on Bills, § 239; 3 Kent, Comm. 99, note, (5th ed.)

[2] Story on Bills, § 112, 227; Bayley on Bills, p. 217, 286, (5th ed.)

after sight, or after demand, or upon any other contingency, a presentment, in order to fix the period of payment, must be made, and of course be proved. But if the bill is payable on demand, or in so many days after date, or the like, it need not be presented merely for acceptance; but if it is so presented, and is not accepted, the holder must give notice of the dishonor in the same manner as if the bill were payable at sight.[1] The presentment for acceptance must be shown to have been made by the holder or his agent, if acceptance was refused; but if the bill was accepted on presentment by a stranger, it is available to the holder. If it is drawn on partners, a presentment to one of them is sufficient; but if drawn on several persons not partners, it has been said, that it should be presented to each; but the better opinion seems otherwise, for if one of the drawers should refuse to accept, the holder would not be bound to take the acceptance of the others alone.[2] It is not necessary to prove, that the presentment was made *by the person named* in the declaration, the material fact being the presentment alone, by some proper person.[3] Nor is it necessary for the plaintiff, in an action against the indorser, for non-payment of an accepted bill, to show any demand of or inquiry after the drawer.[4]

§ 177. Presentment of the bill for acceptance is *not excused* by the drawee's death, bankruptcy, insolvency, or absconding. If he is dead, it should be presented to his personal representatives, if any, or at his last domicil; and if he has absconded, it should be presented at his last domicil or place of business.[5]

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[1] Story on Bills, § 112, 227, 228; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 653, 654, (9th ed.)

[2] Story on Bills, § 229; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 272 – 274, (9th ed.)

[3] Boehm *v.* Campbell, 1 Gow, R. 55; 3 Moore, 15, S. C.

[4] Heylin *v.* Adamson, 2 Burr. 669; Bromley *v.* Frazier, 1 Stra. 441; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 653, (9th ed.)

[5] Story on Bills, § 260; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 279, 280, (9th ed.); Groton *v.* Dalheim, 6 Greenl. 476; Greely *v.* Hunt, 8 Shepl. 455.

§ 178. Whenever it is essential to prove a *presentment* for acceptance or a demand of payment, it must appear to have been made at the *proper time.* No drawee can be required to accept a bill on any day which is set apart by the laws or observances or usages of the country or place, for religious or other purposes, and is not deemed a day for the transaction of secular business; such as, a *Sunday*, *Christmas day*, or a day appointed by public authority for a solemn *fast* or *thanksgiving*, or any other general *holyday;* or a *Saturday*, where the drawee is a Jew.[1] And in all cases, the presentment must have been made at a *reasonable hour* of the day. If made at the place of business, it must be made within the usual hours of business, or, at farthest, while some person is there, who has authority to receive and answer the presentment. If made at the dwelling-house of the drawee, it may be at any seasonable hour, while the family are up.[2]

§ 179. The presentment of a *promissory note* for payment should be made at its maturity, and not before, nor generally after.[3] But where the maker lived two hundred miles from the holder, a demand made six days afterwards has been held sufficient.[4] If it is payable *on demand*, or is indorsed after it is over-due, payment should be demanded within a reasonable time, in order to charge the indorser.[5] A *banker's*

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[1] Story on Bills, § 233, 340.

[2] Story on Bills, § 236; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 454, 455, 654, (9th ed.); Parker *v.* Gordon, 7 East, 385; Wilkins *v.* Jadis, 2 B. & Ad. 155; Garnett *v.* Woodcock, 6 M. & S. 44.

[3] Henry *v.* Jones, 8 Mass. 453; Farnum *v.* Fowle, 12 Mass. 88; Woodbridge *v.* Brigham, Ib. 403; Barker *v.* Parker, 6 Pick. 80, 81.

[4] Freeman *v.* Boynton, 7 Mass. 483.

[5] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 379 to 386, (9th ed.); Colt *v.* Barnard, 18 Pick. 260. Seven days after the date, has been held sufficient; Seaver *v.* Lincoln, 21 Pick. 267; and eight months an unreasonable delay. Field *v.* Nickerson, 13 Mass. 131; Thayer *v.* Brackett, 12 Mass. 450. See also Sylvester *v.* Crapo, 15 Pick. 92; Thompson *v.* Hale, 6 Pick 259; Martin *v.* Winslow, 2 Mason, 241. See *post*, § 199, note, as to the time when a note payable on demand is to be considered as dishonored.

check may be presented on the next day after the date, this being considered a reasonable time.[1]

§ 180. It must also appear, that the *presentment* was made at the *proper place;* and this, in general, is the town or municipality of the domicil of the drawee. If he dwells in one place, and has his place of business in another, whether it be in the same town, or in another town, the bill may be presented for acceptance at either place, at the option of the holder; and this, even though a particular place be designated as the place of payment.[2] If the bill is addressed to the drawee at a place where he never lived, or if he has removed to another place, the presentment should be at the place of his actual domicil, if, by diligent inquiries, it can be ascertained; and if it cannot be ascertained, or if the drawee has absconded, the bill may be treated as dishonored.[3]

§ 181. Where the bill is *not* made payable in so many days *after sight*, it is sufficient to prove a *presentment for payment at the maturity* of the bill, and a refusal of payment. And it suffices to show a presentment for acceptance, and a *refusal* to accept at any time previous to the maturity of the bill; for upon its dishonor, the drawer becomes liable immediately.[4] It also suffices to show, that the drawee refused to accept according to the tenor of the bill, notwithstanding the defendant should offer to prove, that the drawee offered a different acceptance, equally beneficial to the holder.[5] But the plaintiff must show that the refusal, in all cases, proceeded

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[1] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 385, (9th ed.)

[2] Story on Bills, § 236; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 365, 366, (9th ed.); Ante, § 173.

[3] Story on Bills, § 235.

[4] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 654, (9th ed.); Ballingalls *v.* Gloster, 3 East, 481.

[5] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 654, 655, (9th ed.); Boehm *v.* Garcias, 1 Campb. 425, note.

from the drawee; a declaration by some unauthorized person that the bill would not be accepted is not sufficient.[1]

§ 182. Presentment for payment, as well as notice of dishonor, may be proved by entries in the books of a deceased notary, clerk, messenger of a bank, or other person, whose duty or ordinary course of business it was to make such entries.[2]

§ 183. In an action *against the drawer or indorser* of a *foreign bill*, (and even of an inland bill, if a protest is alleged,) the plaintiff must prove, beside the presentment and notice of dishonor, a *protest* for non-acceptance, or non-payment.[3] The proper evidence of the protest is the production of the notarial act itself;[4] and if this was made abroad, the seal is a sufficient authentication of the act, without farther proof;[5] but it is said, that, if the protest was made within the jurisdiction, it must be proved by the notary who made it, and by the attesting witness, if any.[6]

§ 184. But the *want of protest is excused* by proof, that the defendant requested that, in case of the dishonor of the bill, no protest should be made; or, that the defendant, being

[1] Cheek *v.* Roper, 5 Esp. 175.

[2] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 116.

[3] Story on Bills, § 273, 281; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 455, 655, (9th ed.) Protest of an inland bill is not necessary. Ibid.; Young *v.* Bryan, 6 Wheat. 146.

[4] Lenox *v.* Leverett, 10 Mass. 1; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 445, 655, (9th ed.)

[5] Townsley *v.* Sumrall, 2 Peters, R. 170; Halliday *v.* McDougall, 20 Wend. 85.

[6] Chesmer *v.* Noyes, 4 Campb. 129; Marin *v.* Palmer, 6 C. & P. 466. In some of the United States, the *certificate* of the notary, under his hand and official seal, is by statute made competent evidence, *primâ facie*, of the matters by him transacted, in relation to the presentment and dishonor of the bill, and of notice thereof to the parties liable. LL. New York, 1833, ch. 271, § 8; Smith *v.* McManus, 7 Yerg. 477; LL. Mississippi, 1833, ch. 70; 3 Kent, Comm. 93, note.

the drawer, had no funds in the drawee's hands, or had no right to draw the bill; or, that the protest was prevented by inevitable casualty, or by superior force.[1] So, if the defendant has admitted his liability, by a partial payment, or a promise to pay, a protest need not be proved.[2]

§ 185. In regard to *inland bills*, a protest is not in general necessary to be proved, unless it is made so by the local municipal law.[3]

§ 186. In an action against the drawer of a bill, or the indorser of a bill or note, it is also necessary for the plaintiff to prove, that the defendant had *due notice of the dishonor* of the bill or note. But where a person, not party to a bill or note, guaranties the payment by the acceptor, he is not entitled to require proof of presentment of the bill or note, or notice of its dishonor;[4] unless he would otherwise lose his remedy over against the parties to the bill by seasonable demand and notice, or suffer other actual loss and prejudice.[5] It must appear, that the notice was given within a reasonable time after the dishonor, and protest, if there be one, and that due diligence was exercised for this purpose. Where this reasonable time is positively fixed by the law of the particular country, it must be strictly followed. Thus, though the protest must be made according to the law of the place of acceptance, yet notice to the

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[1] Story on Bills, § 275, 280; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 452.

[2] Gibbon *v.* Coggon, 1 Campb. 188; Taylor *v.* Jones, Ib. 105; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 456, 655, (9th ed.)

[3] Story on Bills, § 281.

[4] Hitchcock *v.* Humfrey, 5 M. & G. 559.

[5] Oxford Bank *v.* Haynes, 8 Pick. 423; Talbot *v.* Gay, 18 Pick. 534; Gibbs *v.* Cannon, 9 S. & R. 202; Philips *v.* Astling, 2 Taunt. 206. Where notice to a guarantor is requisite, it will be seasonable if given at any time before action brought, if he has not been prejudiced by the want of earlier notice. Ibid.; Babcock *v.* Bryant, 12 Pick. 133; Salisbury *v.* Hale, Ibid. 416.

drawer must be given according to the law of the place where the bill was drawn, and to the indorsers, according to the law of the place where the indorsements were respectively made.[1] In other cases, the reasonableness of the time of notice depends on the particular circumstances of each case; but in general it may be remarked, that, where there is a regular intercourse carried on between the two places, whether by post, or by packet ships, sailing at stated times the notice should be sent by the next post or ship, after the dishonor and protest, if a reasonable time remains for writing and forwarding the notice; and where there are none but irregular communications, that which is most probably and reasonably certain and expeditious should be resorted to.[2] If the usual mercantile intercourse is by post or mail, that mode alone should be adopted, though others may concurrently exist.[3] But whatever be the mode of notice, the *time* of its transmission should be proved with sufficient precision; for, where a witness testified that he gave notice in two *or* three days after the dishonor, notice in two days being in time, but notice on the third day being too late, it was held not sufficient evidence to go to the Jury, and the plaintiff was nonsuited; for the burden of proof of seasonable notice is on him.[4]

§ 187. Where the notice is sent by post, it need not be sent on the day of the dishonor, but it should go by the *next practicable post after that day*, having due reference to all the circumstances of the case. The same rule applies to

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[1] Story on Bills, § 284, 285, 382 to 385; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 167 – 171, (9th ed.) A promissory note, payable by instalments, is negotiable; and the indorser is entitled to a presentment upon the last day of grace after each day of payment, and to notice, if each particular instalment is not paid when due. Oridge *v.* Sherborne, 11 M. & W. 374.

[2] Story on Bills, § 286, 382, 383. Notice sent by the post, will be considered as notice from the time at which, by the regular course of the post, it ought to be received. Smith *v.* Bank of Washington, 5 S. & R. 385.

[3] Ibid. § 287, 382, 383.

[4] Lawson *v.* Sherwood, 1 Stark. R. 314.

successive indorsers; each one being generally entitled to at least one full day after he has received the notice, before he is required to give notice to any antecedent indorser, who may be liable to him for payment of the bill or note.[1] Sunday, not being a business day, is not taken into the account, and notice on Monday, of a dishonor on Saturday, is sufficient.[2]

§ 188. If the parties *reside in* or near the *same town* or place where the dishonor occurs, the notice, whether given verbally, or by a special messenger, or by the local or penny post, should be given on the day of the dishonor, or, at farthest, upon the following day, early enough for it to be actually received on that day.[3]

§ 189. It will be sufficient if the note or bill described in the notice, *substantially* corresponds with that described on the record. A *variance* in the notice, to be fatal, must be such as conveys to the party no sufficient knowledge of the particular note or bill, which has been dishonored. If it does not mislead him, but conveys to him the real fact without any doubt, the variance cannot be material, either to guard his rights, or to avoid his responsibility.[4] Thus, where the written notice, given on the 22d of September, described the

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[1] Story on Bills, § 288, 291, 297, 298, 384, 385; Bayley on Bills, 268, 270, (5th ed.); Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 337, 482, (9th ed.) If there are two mails on the same day, notice by the latest of them is sufficient. Whitwell *v.* Johnson, 17 Mass. 449, 454. And if there are two post-offices in the same town, notice sent to either is, *primâ facie*, sufficient. Story on Bills, § 297; Yeatman *v.* Erwin, 3 Miller's Louis. R. 264. So is notice sent to any post-office, to which the party usually resorts for letters. Bank of Geneva *v.* Howlett, 3 Wend. 328; Reid *v.* Payne, 16 Johns. 218; Cuyler *v.* Nellis, 4 Wend. 398.

[2] Eagle Bank *v.* Chapin, 3 Pick. 180; Story on Bills, § 288, 293, 308, 309.

[3] Story & Hulme on Bills, § 289; Chitty on Bills, p. 337, 472, 473, (9th ed.); Grand Bank *v.* Blanchard, 23 Pick. 305; Seaver *v.* Lincoln, 21 Pick. 267.

[4] Mills *v.* Bank of the United States, 11 Wheat. 431, 435.

note as dated on the 20th of the same month, payable in sixty days, whereas in fact it bore date on the 20th of July, but it appeared, that there was no other note between the parties, this was held sufficient, the note being otherwise correctly described.[1] So, where there was but one note between the parties, but the sum was erroneously stated in the notice, it was held sufficient.[2] And in such cases, the question is for the Jury to determine, whether the defendant must or may not have known to what note the notice referred.[3]

§ 190. The plaintiff, however, need not prove notice of the dishonor of a bill or note, if the defendant has *waived* his right to such notice. This may be shown, not only by an express waiver, but, as against the drawer, it may be inferred from circumstances amounting to it, such as an express promise to pay the amount of the bill or note, or, a partial payment. But the promise or partial payment, to have this effect, must be made with a full knowledge of all the facts, and must be unequivocal, and amount to an admission of the right of the holder.[4] So, the acceptance, by the indorser, of adequate *collateral security* from the maker, or accepting an assignment of all the maker's property, for this purpose, though it be inadequate, has been held a waiver of

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[1] Mills *v.* Bank of the United States, 11 Wheat. 431, 435.

[2] Bank of Alexandria *v.* Swann, 9 Pet. 33, 46, 47.

[3] Smith *v.* Whiting, 12 Mass. 6; Bank of Rochester *v.* Gould, 9 Wend. 279; Reedy *v.* Seixas, 2 Johns. Cas. 337.

[4] Story on Bills, § 320; Hopkins *v.* Liswell, 12 Mass. 52; Thornton *v.* Wynn, 12 Wheat. 183; Martin *v* Ingersoll, 8 Pick. 1; Creamer *v.* Perry, 17 Pick. 332; Central Bank *v.* Davis, 19 Pick. 373; Warden *v.* Tucker, 7 Mass. 449; Boyd *v.* Cleaveland, 4 Pick. 525; Farmer *v.* Rand, 2 Shepl. 225; Ticonic Bank *v.* Johnson, 8 Shepl. 426; Levy *v.* Peters, 9 S. & R. 125; Fuller *v.* McDonald, 8 Greenl. 213; Chitty on & Hulme Bills, 660, (9th ed.) A promise to pay has been deemed *primâ facie* evidence, that the party has received due notice. Lawrence *v.* Ralston, 3 Bibb, 102; Richter *v.* Selin, 8 S. & R. 438; Pierson *v.* Hooker, 3 Johns. 71; Martin *v.* Ingersoll, 8 Pick. 1. Whether the evidence establishes the fact of a waiver, is a question for the Jury. Union Bank of Georgetown *v.* Magruder, 7 Pet. 287.

notice, if taken before the maturity of the note ;[1] but not if taken afterwards.[2] Nor is an *assignment* of property to *trustees*, for the security, among others, of an indorser, sufficient to dispense with proof of a regular demand and notice.[3] And even an express waiver of notice, will not amount to a waiver of a demand on the maker of the note.[4] A known *usage* may also affect the general law on this subject. Thus, if a note is made payable at a particular bank, the usage of that bank, as to the mode and time of demand and notice, will bind the parties, whether they had knowledge of it or not ; and if the note is discounted at a bank, its usages, known to the parties, are equally binding [5]

§ 191. If the *notice* has been given *by letter* or other *writing*, it is now held, that secondary evidence of the contents of the letter or writing is admissible, without any previous notice to the defendant to produce the original ; for the rule, which requires proof of notice to produce a paper, in order to let in secondary evidence of its contents, is not capable of application to that, which is itself a notice, without opening an interminable inquiry.[6] But, where the secondary evidence is uncertain or doubtful, or without sufficient precision as to dates, or the like, it is always expedient to give due notice to the defendant to produce the paper. And whenever notice to produce a paper is given, it should particularly specify the writing called for.[7]

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[1] Bond *v.* Farnham, 5 Mass. 70 ; Andrews *v.* Boyd, 3 Metc. 434 ; Mead *v.* Small, 2 Greenl. 207.

[2] Tower *v.* Durell, 9 Mass. 332.

[3] Creamer *v.* Perry, 17 Pick. 332.

[4] Berkshire Bank *v.* Jones, 6 Mass. 524 ; Backus *v.* Shipherd, 11 Wend. 629.

[5] Lincoln & Kennebec Bank *v.* Page, 9 Mass. 155 ; Blanchard *v.* Hilliard, 11 Mass. 85 ; Smith *v.* Whiting, 12 Mass. 6 ; City Bank *v.* Cutter, 3 Pick. 414.

[6] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 561 ; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 656, 657, (9th ed.) ; Ackland *v.* Pierce, 2 Campb. 601 ; Roberts *v.* Bradshaw, 1 Stark. R. 28 ; Eagle Bank *v.* Chapin, 3 Pick. 180 ; Lindenberger *v.* Beall, 6 Wheat. 104.

[7] France *v.* Lucy, Ry. & M. 341 ; Jones *v.* Edwards, 1 M'Cl. & Y.

§ 192. But the rule of not requiring notice to produce a written notice of the dishonor of a bill or note, is *restricted* to the bill or note, on which the *action is brought;* for if the question is upon notice of the dishonor of *other bills or notes*, notice to produce the letters giving such notice must be given and proved, as in ordinary cases.[1] And if notice to produce has been given, the attorney of the adverse party may be called, to testify whether he has in his possession the paper sought for; in order to let in secondary evidence of its contents.[2]

§ 193. When notice of the dishonor of a bill or note has been *given by letter*, it will in general suffice to show that a letter, containing information of the fact, and properly directed, was in due time put into the proper post-office, or left at the defendant's house.[3] In civil cases,[4] but not in criminal,[5] the *post-mark* on the letter will be sufficient *primâ facie* evidence of the time and place of putting it into the post-office. And if there is any doubt of the genuineness of the post-mark, it may be established by the evidence of any person in the habit of receiving letters with that mark, as well as by a clerk in the post-office.[6] The fact of sending the letter to

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139; Morris *v.* Hauser, 2 M. & Rob. 392; Ante, Vol. 1, § 560 – 563; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 657, 658.

[1] Lanauze *v.* Palmer, 1 M. & Malk. 31; Aflalo *v.* Fourdrinier, Ibid. 335, n.

[2] Bevan *v.* Waters, 1 M. & Malk. 235; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 658, (9th ed.)

[3] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 658, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 297, 298, 300; Shed *v.* Brett, 1 Pick. 401; Hartford Bank *v.* Hart, 3 Day, 491. Delivery to the bell-man is sufficient. Pack *v.* Alexander, 3 M. & Scott, 789. And any delay in the post-office will not prejudice the holder who has sent the notice. Dobree *v.* Eastwood, 3 C. & P. 250. It is not necessary that the notice should reach the party before the action is brought; it is sufficient that it is seasonably sent. New England Bank *v.* Lewis, 2 Pick. 128.

[4] Arcangelo *v.* Thompson, 2 Campb. 623; New Haven County Bank *v.* Mitchell, 15 Conn. R. 206.

[5] Rex *v.* Watson, 1 Campb. 215.

[6] Abbey *v.* Lill, 5 Bing. 299.

the post-office, after evidence has been given that it was written, may be shown by proof of the general and invariable course of the plaintiff's business or office, in regard to the transmission of his letters to the post-office, with the testimony of all the persons, if living, whose duty it was to hand over the letters, or to carry them thither, that they invariably handed over, or carried all that were delivered to them, or were left in a certain place for that purpose; and if books and entries were kept, of such letters sent, they should be produced, with proof of the handwriting of deceased clerks, who may have made the entries. The mere proof of the course of the office or business, without calling the persons actually employed, if living, will not ordinarily suffice.[1]

§ 194. As to the *place* to which *notice* may be sent, this may be either at the party's counting-room, or other place of business, or at his dwelling-house; or, at any other place agreed on by the parties. And if a verbal notice is sent to the place of business during the usual business hours, and no person is there to receive it, nothing more is required of the holder.[2]

§ 195. If no notice of dishonor has been given, or no presentment or protest has been made, the plaintiff may *excuse his neglect* by proof of facts, showing that presentment or notice was not requisite. Thus, where the defendant was drawer of the bill, the want of presentment is excused by proving, that he had *no effects* in the hands of the drawee, and no reasonable grounds to expect that the bill would be honored, from the time it was drawn until it became due.[3]

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[1] Sturge *v.* Buchanan, 2 M. & Rob. 90; 10 Ad. & El. 598. S. C.; 2 Per. & Dav. 573, S. C.; Hetherington *v.* Kemp, 4 Campb. 193; Toosey *v.* Williams, 1 M. & Malk. 129; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 659, (9th ed.); Hawkes *v.* Salter, 4 Bing. 715; 1 M. & P. 750.

[2] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 454, (9th ed.); Crosse *v.* Smith, 1 M. & S. 545; Whitwell *v.* Johnson, 17 Mass. 449; The State Bank *v.* Hurd, 12 Mass. 172.

[3] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 436, 437, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 329,

So, the want of notice of dishonor is excused, in an action against the drawer, by proof that the bill was accepted merely for the *accommodation* of the drawer, who was therefore bound at all events to pay it; and this fact may well be inferred by the Jury, if the bill is made payable at the drawer's own house.[1] And the want of effects in the drawee's hands, he being the drawer's banker, may be shown by the banker's books; the production and verification of which by one of his clerks is sufficient, though the entries are in the handwriting of several.[2] So, if the holder was *ignorant of the drawer's residence*, this excuses the want of notice to him, if he has made diligent inquiry for the place of his residence; of which fact the Jury will judge.[3] So, if the notice was *sent to the wrong person*, the mistake having arisen from indistinctness in the drawer's writing on the bill;[4] or, if the drawer verbally *waives* the notice, promising himself to call and see if the bill is paid;[5] or, if the indorser himself informs the holder that the maker has absconded, and negotiates for further time of payment;[6] the want of notice is excused. So, if the presentment in season was impossible, by reason

367–369; Rucker *v.* Hiller, 16 East, 43; Legge *v.* Thorpe, 12 East, 171; Bickerdike *v.* Bollman, 1 T. R. 405; Hammond *v.* Dufrene, 3 Campb. 145. So, as to the indorser of a note. Corney *v.* Da Costa, 1 Esp. 302. See also Campbell *v.* Pettengill, 7 Greenl. 126; French *v.* Bank of Columbia, 4 Cranch, 141; Austin *v.* Rodman, 1 Hawks, 194; Robinson *v.* Ames, 20 Johns. 146.

[1] Sharp *v.* Bailey, 9 B. & C. 44; 4 M. & Ry. 4; Callot *v.* Haigh, 3 Campb. 281. If the transaction between the drawer and drawee is illegal, the payee, being the indorser, and conusant of the illegality, is liable without notice. Copp *v.* McDougall, 9 Mass. 1.

[2] Furness *v.* Cope, 5 Bing. 114.

[3] Browning *v.* Kinnear, Gow, R. 81; Bateman *v.* Joseph, 12 East, 433; Harrison *v.* Fitzhenry, 3 Esp. 240; Siggers *v.* Brown, 1 M. & Rob. 520; Hopley *v.* Dufresne, 15 East, 275; Holford *v.* Wilson, 1 Taunt. 15; Whittier *v.* Graffham, 3 Greenl. 82.

[4] Hewitt *v.* Thompson, 1 M. & Rob. 541.

[5] Phipson *v.* Kneller, 4 Campb. 285; 1 Stark. R. 116. Or if, before maturity of the note or bill, the indorser promises to pay, upon the agreement of the holder to enlarge the time. Norton *v.* Lewis, 2 Conn. 478.

[6] Leffingwell *v.* White, 1 Johns. Cas. 99.

of unavoidable accident, a subsequent presentment, when it becomes possible, will excuse the delay.[1] But the actual insolvency of the maker of a note at the time when it fell due, does not excuse the want of notice to the indorser;[2] even though the fact was known to the indorser, who indorsed it to give it currency.[3] Nor does the insolvency of the acceptor excuse the want of notice to the drawer.[4]

§ 196. So, as we have already seen, if the drawer of a bill, after full notice of the laches of the holder, *pays part* of the bill, *or promises* to pay it, this excuses the want of evidence of due presentment, protest and notice.[5] The *like evidence suffices* in an action against the *indorser* of a bill or note.[6] But it has been considered, that, though the waiver, by the *drawer*, of his right to presentment and notice, may be inferred from circumstances and by implication, yet that an *indorser* is not chargeable, after laches by the holder, unless upon his *express promise* to pay.[7]

§ 197. It may be proper here to add, that, where *matter in excuse* of the want of demand and notice is relied upon, it is *usual to declare* as if there had been due presentment and notice, some latitude in the mode of proof being allowed,

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[1] Scholfield *v.* Bayard, 3 Wend. 488; Patience *v.* Townley, 2 Smith, R. 223.

[2] Groton *v.* Dalheim, 6 Greenl. 476; Jackson *v.* Richards, 2 Caines, 343; Crossen *v.* Hutchins, 9 Mass. 205; Sandford *v.* Dillaway, 10 Mass. 52.

[3] Nicholson *v.* Gouthit, 2 H. Bl. 609; Buck *v.* Cotton, 2 Conn. R. 126.

[4] Whitfield *v.* Savage, 2 B. & P. 277; May *v.* Coffin, 4 Mass. 341.

[5] Ante, § 189; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 660, (9th ed.); Duryee *v.* Dennison, 5 Johns. 248; Miller *v.* Hackley, Ibid. 375; Crain *v.* Colwell, 8 Johns. 384.

[6] Ibid.; Taylor *v.* Jones, 2 Campb. 105. See also Trimble *v.* Thorn, 16 Johns. 152; Jones *v.* Savage, 6 Wend. 658; Leonard *v.* Gary, 10 Wend. 504.

[7] Borradaile *v.* Lowe, 4 Taunt. 93. And see Wilkinson *v.* Jadis, 1 M. & Rob. 41; 2 B. & Ad. 188; Lord *v.* Chadbourne, 8 Greenl. 198; Fuller *v.* McDonald, Ibid. 213.

and the evidence being regarded not strictly as matter in excuse, but as proof of a qualified presentment and demand, or of acts which, in their legal effect, and by the custom of merchants, are equivalent thereto. Moreover, in all cases, where a note is given in evidence upon the money counts, any proof which establishes the plaintiff's right to recover upon the note, supports the count.[1]

§ 198. The DEFENCE to an action on a bill of exchange or a promissory note, most frequently is founded on some defect of proof on the part of the plaintiff, in making out his own title to recover; which has already been considered. Several other issues, such as *Infancy*, *Tender*, the *Statute of Limitations*, &c., which are common to all actions of Assumpsit, will be treated under those particular titles. It will therefore remain to consider some defences, which are peculiar to actions on bills and notes.

§ 199. In regard to the *consideration*, it is well settled in the law merchant, that, in negotiable securities, in the hands of innocent third persons, a valid and sufficient consideration for the drawing or acceptance is conclusively presumed. But, as between the original parties, and those identified in equity with them, this presumption is not conclusive but disputable, and the consideration is open to inquiry. Wherever, therefore, the plaintiff, being an indorsee, is shown to stand in the place of the original promissee or party, as, by receiving the security after it was dishonored, or the like, the defendant, as we have already seen,[2] may set up the defence

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[1] North Bank *v.* Abbot, 13 Pick. 465, 469, 470; Hill *v.* Heap, 1 D. & R. 57.—And see Cory *v.* Scott, 3 B. & Ald. 619, 625, per Holroyd, J. acc. But Bayley, J. was inclined to think, that the excuse for want of notice should be specially alleged. Id. p. 624. See also, in accordance with the text, Norton *v.* Lewis, 2 Conn. R. 478; Williams *v.* Matthews, 3 Cowen, 252.

[2] Ante, § 170. At what time a note, payable on demand, is to be considered by the purchaser as a dishonored security, merely from its age, is

of illegality or insufficiency in the consideration; in which case he must be prepared with evidence to prove the circumstances under which the bill or note was drawn, and that it was transferred after its dishonor.[1] Thus, in an action against the acceptor of a bill, given for the price of a horse, warranted sound, it appearing that the holder of the bill and the original payee were identical in interest, the breach of the warranty, with an offer to return the horse, were held to constitute a good defence.[2] If the consideration has only *partially* failed, and the deficiency is susceptible of definite computation, this may be shown in defence *pro tanto.* But if the precise amount to be deducted is *unliquidated*, this cannot be shown in reduction of damages, but the defendant must resort to his cross action.[3] Mere *inadequacy* of consideration cannot be shown simply to reduce the damages, though it may be proved as evidence of fraud, in order to defeat the entire action.[4]

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not perfectly clear, and perhaps the case does not admit of determination by any fixed period, but must be left to be determined upon its own circumstances. In Barough *v.* White, 4 B. & C. 325, the time of the transfer of the note does not appear; but it was payable *with interest*, which Bayley, J. mentioned as indicating the understanding of the parties, that it would remain for some time unpaid. See also Sanford *v.* Mickles, 4 Johns. 224; Losee *v.* Dunkin, 7 Johns. 70; Thurston *v.* McKown, 6 Mass. 76. In the last case, the note had been running seven days from the date, and was held not dishonored. But the lapse of eight months, and upwards, has been held sufficient evidence of dishonor. Ayer *v.* Hutchins, 4 Mass. 370. See also Freeman *v.* Haskins, 2 Caines, 368; Sylvester *v.* Crapo, 15 Pick. 92; Sice *v.* Cunningham, 1 Cowen, 397, 408–410. In this case the lapse of five months was held to discharge the indorser. See 3 Kent's Comm. p. 91, 92. By a statute of Massachusetts, respecting notes payable on demand, a demand made at the end of sixty days from the date, without grace, or at any earlier period, is to be deemed made in reasonable time; but after sixty days it is deemed over-due. Stat. 1839, ch. 121.

[1] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 648, 662, (9th ed.); Webster *v.* Lee, 5 Mass. 334; Ranger *v.* Cary, 1 Metc. 369; Wilbour *v.* Turner, 5 Pick. 526.

[2] Lewis *v.* Cosgrave, 2 Taunt. 2.

[3] See Ante, tit. ASSUMPSIT; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 76 to 79, 662, (9th ed.)

[4] Solomon *v.* Turner, 1 Stark. R. 51.

§ 200. How far *other equities* between the original parties may be set up in defence, against an indorsee affected with actual or constructive notice, is a question on which the decisions are not perfectly uniform. It has already been intimated,[1] that in the law merchant, the equities thus permitted to be set up, are those only which attach to the particular bill, and not those arising from other transactions. But in the Courts of several of the United States, the defendant has been permitted, in many cases, to claim any set-off, which he might have claimed against the original party, though founded on other transactions.[2] In all cases, where the plaintiff is identified with the original contracting party, the declarations of the latter, made while the interest was in him, are admissible in evidence for the defendant.[3] But, where the plaintiff does not stand on the title of the prior party, but on that acquired by the *bonâ fide* taking of the bill, it is otherwise.[4]

§ 201. The acceptor of a bill may also show as a defence, that his *acceptance* has been *discharged* by the holder; as, if the holder informs him that he has settled the bill with the drawer, and that he need give himself no further trouble; or,

[1] Ante, § 170; Burrough *v.* Moss, 10 B. & C. 558; Story on Bills, § 187, and note (3). Though the note is made payable to the maker's own order, he will be entitled to the same defence against an indorsee who received it when over-due, as if it were made payable to and indorsed by a third person. Potter *v.* Tyler, 2 Metc. 58.

[2] Sargent *v.* Southgate, 5 Pick. 312; Ayer *v.* Hutchins, 4 Mass. 370; Holland *v.* Makepeace, 8 Mass. 418; Shirley *v.* Todd, 9 Greenl. 83. See also the cases cited in Bayley on Bills, p. 544 to 548, Phillips & Sewall's notes, 2d Am. Ed.; Tucker *v.* Smith, 4 Greenl. 415; Sylvester *v.* Crapo, 15 Pick. 92. By a statute of Massachusetts, the maker of a note payable on demand, is admitted to any defence against the indorsee, which would be open to him in a suit brought by the payee. Stat. 1839, ch. 121.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 190; Beauchamp *v.* Parry, 1 B. & Ad. 89; Welstead *v.* Levy, 1 M. & Rob. 138; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 664, 665, (9th ed.); Shirley *v.* Todd, 9 Greenl. 83; Hatch *v.* Dennis, 1 Fairf. 244; Pocock *v.* Billings, 2 Bing. 269; Hackett *v.* Martin, 8 Greenl. 77.

[4] Smith *v.* De Wruitz, Ry. & M. 212; Shaw *v.* Broom, 4 Dowl. & Ry. 730.

where the holder, knowing him to be an accommodation-acceptor, and having goods of the drawer, from the proceeds of which he expects payment, informs him, that he shall look to the drawer alone, and shall not come upon the acceptor; or, if he should falsely state to the acceptor, that the bill was paid, or otherwise discharged, whereby the acceptor should be induced to give up any collateral security; or, if he should expressly agree to consider the acceptance at an end, and make no demand on the acceptor for several years.[1] And whatever discharges the acceptor, will discharge the indorser; as, indeed, whatever act of the holder discharges the principal debtor, will also discharge all others contingently liable, upon his default;[2] and, more generally speaking, the release of any party, whether drawer or indorser, will discharge from payment of the bill every other party to whom the party released would have been liable, if such party released should have paid the bill.[3]

§ 202. If the defendant is not the principal and absolute debtor, but is a party collaterally and *contingently liable*, upon the principal debtor's default, as is the drawer or indorser, he may set up in defence any valid *agreement* between the holder of the security and the principal debtor, founded upon an adequate consideration, and made without his own concurrence, whereby a *new and further time of payment* is given to the principal debtor; and this, though the liability of the drawer or indorser had previously become fixed and absolute, by due presentment, protest and notice.[4] But mere neglect to sue the principal debtor, or a receipt of part payment from him, will not have this effect.[5] This defence, however, may

[1] Story on Bills, § 252, 265 to 268, 430 to 433.

[2] Story on Bills, § 437, 269, 270.

[3] Story on Bills, § 270; Sargent *v.* Appleton, 6 Mass. 85.

[4] Story on Bills, § 425, 426, 427; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 408 - 415, (9th ed.); Philpot *v.* Bryant, 4 Bing. 717, 721; Bank of United States *v.* Hatch, 6 Peters, R. 250.

[5] Ibid.; Kennedy *v.* Motte, 3 McCord, 13; Walwyn *v.* St. Quintin, 1 B. & P. 652.

be rebutted on the part of the plaintiff, by proof that the agreement was made with the assent of the defendant; or, that after full notice of it, he promised to pay;[1] or, that the agreement was without consideration, and therefore not binding.[2]

§ 203. The *competency* of the *parties* to a bill or note, as *witnesses*, in an action upon it between other parties, has been briefly considered in the preceding volume;[3] where it has been shown, that they are generally held admissible or not, like any other witnesses, according as they are or are not interested in the event of the suit. Thus, in an action against the acceptor of a bill, *the drawer* is a competent witness for either party; for if the plaintiff recovers, he pays the bill by the hands of the acceptor, and if not, then he is liable himself for the amount.[4] So, if a bill has been drawn by one *partner*, in the name of the firm, to pay his own private debt, another member of the firm is a competent witness for the acceptor, to prove that the bill was drawn without authority.[5] But if the acceptance was given for the accommodation of the drawer, he is not a competent witness for the acceptor, to prove usury in the discounting of the bill, without a release.[6] Nor is he competent, where the amount of his liability over, in either event of the suit, is not equal.[7]

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[1] Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 415, 416, (9th ed.); Story on Bills, § 426.

[2] McLemore *v.* Powell, 12 Wheat. 554.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 399. Whether a party to a negotiable instrument, which he has put into circulation, is a competent witness to prove it void in its creation, *quære*, and see Ante, Vol. 1, § 383, 384, 385.

[4] Dickinson *v.* Prentice, 4 Esp. 32; Rich *v.* Topping, Peake's Cas. 224; Lowber *v.* Shaw, 5 Mason, 241; Humphrey *v.* Moxon, Peake's Cas. 72; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 673, (9th ed.); Storer *v.* Logan, 9 Mass. 55.

[5] Ridley *v.* Taylor, 13 East, 176.

[6] Hardwick *v.* Blanchard, Gow, R. 113; Burgess *v.* Cuthill, 6 C. & P. 282.

[7] Scott *v.* McLellan, 2 Greenl. 199; Jones *v.* Brooke, 4 Taunt. 463; Ante, Vol. 1, § 401; Faith *v.* McIntyre, 7 C. & P. 44.

§ 204. So also, in an action against one of several *makers of a note*, another *maker* of the same note is a competent witness for the plaintiff, as he stands indifferent;[1] but not for the defendant, to prove illegality of consideration.[2] The maker is also a competent witness for the plaintiff, in an action by the indorsee against the indorser.[3] But it seems, that he is not competent for the defendant in such action, if the note was made and indorsed for his own accommodation; for a verdict for the plaintiff, in such case, would be evidence against him.[4]

§ 205. The *acceptor*, or *drawee* of a bill is also a competent witness, in an action between the holder and the drawer, to prove that he had no funds of the drawer in his hands; for this evidence does not affect his liability to the drawer.[5] And even the declaration of the drawee to the same effect, if made at the time of presentment and refusal to accept the bill, is admissible as *primâ facie* evidence of that fact, against the drawer.[6] But it has been held, that a joint acceptor is not competent to prove a set-off, in an action by the holder against the drawer, because he is answerable to the latter for the amount which the plaintiff may recover.[7] Nor is he a competent witness for the drawer, to prove that he received

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[1] York *v.* Blott, 5 M. & S. 71.

[2] Slegg *v.* Phillips, 4 Ad. & El. 852.

[3] Venning *v.* Shuttleworth, Bayley on Bills, 422, [536,] [593]; Fox *v.* Whitney, 16 Mass. 118; Baker *v.* Briggs, 8 Pick. 122; Levi *v.* Essex, 2 Esp. Dig. 708; Ante, Vol. 1, § 399, 400; Skelding *v.* Warren, 15 Johns. 270.

[4] Pierce *v.* Butler, 14 Mass. 303; Van Schaack *v.* Stafford, 12 Pick. 565; Hubbly *v.* Brown, 16 Johns. 70.

[5] Staples *v.* Okines, 1 Esp. 332; Legge *v.* Thorpe, 2 Campb. 310.

[6] Prideaux *v.* Collier, 2 Stark. R. 57; Ante, Vol. 1, § 108, 109, 111, 113.

[7] Mainwaring *v.* Mytton, 1 Stark. R. 83; Ante, Vol. 1, § 401. *Sed quære;* for it seems, that the acceptor would be liable to the drawer for the whole amount of the bill which he had not paid to the holder. Reid *v.* Furnival, 5 C. & P. 499; 1 C. & M. 538, S. C.; Johnson *v.* Kennison, 2 Wils. 262.

it from the drawer to get it discounted, and delivered it to the plaintiff for that purpose, but, that the plaintiff had not furnished the money; for being absolutely bound, by his acceptance, to pay the bill, he is bound to indemnify the drawer against the costs of the suit.[1]

§ 206. In an action by the indorsee against the drawer of a bill, the *payee* is a competent witness to prove the consideration for the indorsement.[2] The payee of a note, who has indorsed it without recourse, is also a competent witness to prove its execution by the maker.[3] But, where the note was payable to the payee *or bearer*, the payee has been held inadmissible to prove the signature of the maker, on the ground, that he was responsible upon an implied guaranty, that the signature was not forged.[4]

§ 207. In an action by the indorsee against the drawer or acceptor, an *indorser* is in general a competent witness for either party, as he stands indifferent between them.[5] But an intermediate indorser of a bill, is not a competent witness, in a suit on the bill by a subsequent indorsee against a prior indorser, to prove notice of its non-acceptance.[6] Thus, under the general rule that the indorser, standing indifferent, is a competent witness, he has been admitted to prove pay-

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[1] Edmonds *v.* Lowe, 8 B. & C. 407; 2 M. & R. 427, S. C.

[2] Shuttleworth *v.* Stephens, 1 Campb. 407, 408.

[3] Rice *v* Stearns, 3 Mass. 225. Or, that the note had been fraudulently altered; Parker *v.* Hanson, 7 Mass. 470; or, fraudulently circulated. Woodhull *v.* Holmes, 10 Johns. 231.

[4] Herrick *v.* Whitney, 15 Johns. 240; Shaver *v.* Ehle, 16 Johns. 201.

[5] Richardson *v.* Allan, 2 Stark. R. 334; Stevens *v.* Lynch, 2 Campb. 332; 12 East, 38, S. C.; Birt *v.* Kershaw, 2 East, 458; Charrington *v.* Milner, Peake's Cas. 6; Reay *v.* Packwood, 7 Ad. & El. 917; Chitty & Hulme on Bills, [p. 674, (9th ed.) But see Barkins *v.* Wilson, 6 Cowen, 471. See further, Ante, Vol. 1, § 385, n. (1), and § 399, 400, 401.

[6] Talbot *v.* Clark, 8 Pick. 51; Cropper *v.* Nelson, 3 Wash. 125. But a prior indorser has been held a competent witness for the defendant, in an action against a subsequent indorser. Hall *v.* Hale, 8 Conn. 336.

ment;[1] time of negotiation by indorsement;[2] alteration of date by fraud;[3] want of interest in the indorsee;[4] usury; and the fact of his own indorsement.[6] So, to prove that the claim, which the defendant insisted on by way of set-off, was acquired by him after he had notice of the transfer of the note to the plaintiff.[7] And, generally, the payee, after having indorsed the note, is competent to prove any matters arising after the making of the note, which may affect the right of the holder to recover against the maker.[8]

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[1] Warren *v.* Merry, 3 Mass. 27; White *v.* Kibling, 11 Johns. 128; Bryant *v.* Ritterbush, 2 N. H. 212. So, in Louisiana, if the indorser has not been charged with notice. Bourg *v.* Bringier, 20 Martin, R. 507.

[2] Baker *v.* Arnold, 1 Caines, 258; Baird *v.* Cochran, 4 S. & R. 397; Smith *v.* Lovett, 11 Pick. 417.

[3] Parker *v.* Hanson, 7 Mass. 470; Shamburg *v.* Commagere, 10 Martin, R. 18.

[4] Barker *v.* Prentiss, 6 Mass. 430.

[5] Tuthill *v.* Davis, 20 Johns. 287.

[6] Richardson *v.* Allan, 2 Stark. R. 334.

[7] Zeigler *v.* Gray, 12 S. & R. 42.

[8] See the cases already cited in this section. Also, Powell *v.* Waters, 17 Johns. 176; McFadden *v.* Maxwell, Ib. 188.

CARRIERS.

§ 208. There is no distinction, in regard to their duties and liabilities, between carriers of goods by water and carriers by land, nor between carriers by ships, steamboats, and barges, and by railroad cars, and wagons. The action against a carrier in any of these modes, is usually in *assumpsit* upon the contract; and this is generally preferable, as the remedy in this form survives against his executor or adminsitrator. The declaration involves three points of fact, which the plaintiff must establish, upon the general issue; namely, the contract; the delivery of the goods, or, in the case of a passenger, his being in the carriage; and the defendant's breach of promise or duty. Carriers are also liable in trover, for the goods, and in case, sounding in tort, for malfeasance or misfeasance; but though the remedy in tort is on some accounts preferable to *assumpsit*,[1] the form of action, does not very materially affect the evidence necessary to maintain it.

§ 209. In any form of action, the *contract* must be proved as laid in the declaration.[2] If the contract is stated as absolute, proof of a contract in the alternative will not support the allegation, even though the option has been determined;[3] neither will it be supported by proof of a contract containing an exception from certain classes of liability; as, for example, that the carrier will not be responsible for losses by fire, perils of the seas, or the like.[4] But if the exception does not

[1] See 1 Chitty on Plead. 161, 162, (7th ed.), [125, 126]; Govett v. Radnidge, 3 East, 70.

[2] Ireland *v.* Johnson, 1 Bing. N. C. 162; Bretherton *v.* Wood, 3 B. & B. 54; Max *v.* Roberts, 12 East, 89.

[3] Penny *v.* Porter, 2 East, 2; Yate *v.* Willan, Ib. 128; Ante, Vol. 1, § 58, 66; Hilt *v.* Campbell, 6 Greenl. 109.

[4] Latham *v.* Rutley, 2 B. & C. 20. And see Smith *v.* Moore, 6 Greenl. 274; Ferguson *v.* Cappeau, 6 H. & J. 394.

extend to the obligation of the contract itself, but only affects the damages to be recovered, the declaration may be general, without any mention of the exception, the proof of which at the trial will be no *variance*. Thus, where the action was in the common form of *assumpsit*, and the evidence was, that the carrier had given notice, that he would not be accountable for a greater sum than £5 for goods, unless they were entered as such and paid for accordingly, the variance was held immaterial.[1] And if, in a like form of action by the consignor of goods, the allegation is, that the consideration or hire, was to be paid by the plaintiff, and the evidence is, that it was to be paid by the consignee, it is no variance ; the consignor being still in law liable.[2] A variance between the allegation and proof of the *termini*, will be fatal.[3] But here, the place, mentioned as the *terminus*, is to be taken in its popular extent, and not strictly according to its corporate and legal limits ; and therefore an averment of a contract to carry from from London to Bath, is supported by evidence of a contract to carry from Westminster to Bath.[4] But in an action on the case for non-delivery of goods, the *terminus a quo* is not material.[5]

§ 210. If the defendant is alleged and proved to be a *common carrier*, the law itself supplies the proof of the contract, so far as regards the extent or degree of his liability. But if he is not a common carrier, the terms of his undertak-

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[1] Clark *v.* Gray, 6 East, 564.

[2] Moore *v.* Wilson, 1 T. R. 659 ; Turney *v.* Wilson, 7 Yerg. 340 ; Moore *v.* Sheridine, 2 H. & McH. 453. If the declaration is on a loss by negligent carrying, it will not be supported by proof of a loss in the defendant's warehouse, before the goods were taken to the coach to be carried. Roskell *v.* Waterhouse, 2 Stark. R. 461 ; In re Webb, 8 Taunt. 443 ; 2 Moore, 500, S. C.

[3] Tucker *v.* Cracklin, 2 Stark. R. 385.

[4] Beckford *v.* Crutwell, 1 M. & Rob. 187 ; 5 C. & P. 242, S. C. ; Ditcham *v.* Chivis, 4 Bing. 706 ; 1 M. & Payne, 735, S. C. See also Burbige *v.* Jakes, 1 B. & P. 225.

[5] Woodward *v.* Booth, 7 B. & C. 301.

ing must be proved by the plaintiff. And in either case, where there is an express contract, that alone must be relied on, and no other can be implied.[1] If it appear that the goods were delivered by the owner to one common carrier, and that he, without the owner's knowledge or authority, delivered them over to another, to be carried, this evidence will support an action brought directly against the latter, with whom the contract will be deemed to have been made through the agency of the former, ratified by bringing the action.[2]

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[1] Robinson *v.* Dunmore, 2 B. & P. 416 ; 2 Steph. N. P. 994, 995.

[2] Sanderson *v.* Lamberton, 6 Binn. 129. The declaration against a common carrier is as follows: — "For that whereas the said (*defendant*) on ——— was a common carrier of goods and chattels for hire, from ——— to ——— ; and being such carrier, the plaintiff then, at the request of the said (*defendant*) caused to be delivered to him certain goods of the plaintiff, to wit, [*here describe them*] of the value of ——— to be taken care of and safely and securely conveyed by the said (*defendant*) as such carrier, from said ——— to said ———, there to be safely and securely delivered by said (*defendant*) to the plaintiff, (*or*, to ———, *if the case is so*,) for a certain reward to be paid to the said (*defendant*) ; in consideration whereof the said (*defendant*) as such carrier then received said goods accordingly, and became bound by law and undertook and promised the plaintiff to take care of said goods, and safely and securely to carry and convey the same from said ——— to said ———, and there to deliver the same safely and securely, to the plaintiff (*or*, to ———,) as aforesaid. Yet the said (*defendant*) did not take care of said goods, nor safely and securely carry and convey and deliver the same as aforesaid ; but on the contrary the said (*defendant*) so negligently conducted and so misbehaved in regard to said goods in his said calling of common carrier, that by reason thereof the said goods became and were wholly lost to the plaintiff."

Against a private carrier, charged with the loss of goods by negligence, the declaration in *assumpsit* is as follows : —

— "For that on ——— in consideration that the plaintiff, at the request of the said (*defendant*) had delivered to him certain goods and chattels, to wit, [*here describe them*], of the value of ———, to be safely conveyed by him from ——— to ———, for a certain reward to be paid to the said (*defendant*), he the said (*defendant*) promised the plaintiff to take due care of said goods, while he had charge of the same, and with due care to convey the same from ——— to ——— aforesaid, and there safely to deliver the same to the plaintiff, (*or*, to ———, *as the case may be.*) Yet the said (*defendant*)

§ 211. The defendant is *proved* to be a *common carrier*, by evidence that he undertakes to carry for persons generally, exercising it as a public employment, and holding himself out as ready to engage in the transportation of money or goods for hire, as a business, and not as a casual occupation.[1] This description includes both carriers by land and by water; namely, proprietors of stage wagons, coaches, and rail road cars, truckmen, wagoners, teamsters, cartmen, and porters; as well as owners and masters of ships and steamboats, carrying on general freight, and lightermen, hoymen, barge-owners, ferrymen, canal-boatmen, and others, employed in like manner.[2] But hackney coachmen, and others, whose employment is solely to carry passengers, are not regarded as common carriers in respect of the persons of the passengers, but only as to their baggage, and the parcels which they are in the practice of conveying.[3] Nor is evidence that the defendant kept a booking-office for a considerable number of coaches and wagons, sufficient of itself to prove him a common carrier.[4]

§ 212. The *contract* must also appear to have been made *with the plaintiff*, and *by the defendant*. If, therefore, the goods were sent by the vendor to vendee, at the risk of the latter, the contract of the carrier is with the vendee, whose agent he becomes by receiving the goods, and who alone is entitled to sue; unless the vendor expressly contracted with the carrier, in his own behalf, for the payment of the freight; or the property was not to pass to the vendee

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did not take due care of said goods while he had charge of the same as aforesaid, nor did he with due care convey and deliver the same as aforesaid; but on the contrary so carelessly and improperly conducted in regard to said goods, that by reason thereof they became and were wholly lost to the plaintiff."

[1] Story on Bailm. § 495.

[2] Story on Bailm. § 496, 497.

[3] Story on Bailm. § 498, 499, 500, 590 to 604.

[4] Upston *v.* Slark, 2 C. & P. 598.

until the goods reached his hands; in which case the vendor is the proper plaintiff.[1] So, where the goods were obtained of the vendor by a pretended purchase, by a swindler, who got possession of them by the negligence of the carrier; as no property had legally passed to the consignee, the carrier's implied contract was held to be with the vendor alone.[2] If the transaction was had with the mere servant of the carrier, such as a driver, or porter, the contract is legally made with the master; unless the servant expressly undertook to carry the parcel on his own account, in which case he is liable.[3]

§ 213. If a *receipt* was given for the goods, it should be produced; and notice should be given to the defendant to produce his book of entries, and way-bill, if any, in order to show a delivery of the goods to him. The plaintiff should also prove what orders were given at the time of delivery, as to the carriage of the goods, and the direction written upon the package.[4] If the *loss or non-delivery* of the goods is alleged, the plaintiff must give some evidence in support of the allegation, notwithstanding its negative character.[5] And in proof of the loss, the declaration of the defendant's coachman or driver, in answer to an inquiry made of him for the goods, is competent evidence for the plaintiff.[6] In proof of the *contents* of a lost trunk or box, the plaintiff's own affidavit is admissible, where the case, from its nature, furnishes no better evidence.[7]

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[1] Dawes *v.* Peck, 8 T. R. 330, 332; Hart *v.* Sattley, 3 Campb. 528; Moore *v.* Wilson, 1 T. R. 659; Davis *v.* James, 5 Burr. 2680; Sargent *v.* Morris, 3 B. & Ald. 277.

[2] Duff *v.* Budd, 3 B. & B. 177; Stephenson *v.* Hart, 4 Bing. 476.

[3] Williams *v.* Cranston, 2 Stark. R. 82.

[4] 2 Stark. Ev. 200.

[5] Tucker *v.* Cracklin, 2 Stark. R. 385.

[6] Mayhew *v.* Nelson, 6 C. & P. 58. But proof of a loss will not alone support a count in trover. Ross *v.* Johnson, 5 Burr. 2825.

[7] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 348; David *v.* Moore, 2 Watts & Serg. 230. And see Butler *v.* Basing, 2 C. & P. 613.

§ 214. If several are *jointly interested* in the profits of a coach or wagon, whether it be owned by one or all, they are jointly liable, though, by agreement among themselves, one finds the horses and driver for one part of the road only, and another for another.[1] If the declaration is in *assumpsit*, a joint contract by all the defendants must be proved, by evidence of their joint ownership, or otherwise. And if the action is in *tort*, setting forth the contract, the contract itself must be proved as laid; though, where the action is founded on a breach of Common Law duty, which is a misfeasance, and is several in its nature, as in an action against common carrier, upon the custom, judgment may be rendered against some only and not all of the defendants.[2]

§ 215. It is now well settled, that a common carrier may *qualify his liability*, by a *general notice* to all who may employ him, of any reasonable requisition to be observed on their part, in regard to the manner of delivery and entry of parcels, and the information to be given to him of their contents, the rates of freight, and the like; as, for example, that he will not be responsible for goods above the value of a certain sum, unless they are entered as such, and paid for accordingly. But the right of a common carrier, by a general notice, to *limit*, *restrict*, or *avoid the liability*, devolved on him by the Common Law on the most salutary grounds of public policy, has been denied in American Courts, after the most elaborate consideration; and therefore a public notice by stage coach proprietors, that "all baggage" was "at the risk of the owners," though the notice was brought home to the plaintiff, has been held not to release them from their liability as common carriers.[3] Nor does such a notice

[1] Waland *v.* Elkins, 1 Stark. R. 272; Fromont *v.* Coupland, 2 Bing. 170. And see Barton *v.* Hanson, 2 Taunt. 49; Helsby *v.* Mears, 5 B. & C. 504.

[2] Bretherton *v.* Wood, 3 B. & B. 54; Bank of Orange *v.* Brown, 3 Wend. 158. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 64.

[3] Hollister *v.* Newlen, 19 Wend. 234: Cole *v.* Goodwin, Ib. 251; Story

apply at all to goods not belonging to any passenger in the coach.[1]

§ 216. But in every case of public notice, the *burden of proof* is on the *carrier*, to show that the person with whom he deals, is fully informed of its tenor and extent.[2] And therefore, if any advertisement is posted up, emblazoning in large letters the advantages of the conveyance, but stating the limit of his liability in small characters, at the bottom, it is not sufficient.[3] It must be in such characters and situation, that a person delivering goods at the place could not fail to read it, without gross negligence; and even then, it affects only those whose goods are received at that place; for if received at a distance from the carrier's office, though at an intermediate point between the *termini* of his route, he must prove notice to the owner through some other medium.[4] And in an action against a carrier, the defendant must satisfy the Jury, that the notice was actually communicated to the plaintiff. If it was posted up, or advertised in a newspaper, it must appear that he read it. In the latter case, the advertisement affords no ground for an inference of notice, unless it be proved, that the plaintiff was in the habit of taking or

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on Bailm. § 554, (2d ed.) note. The right of a common carrier in England to limit or affect his liability at Common Law, is now restricted, by Stat. 11 Geo. 4, & 1 W. 4, ch. 68, to certain enumerated articles, exceeding £10 in value, the nature and value of which must be declared at the time of delivery, and an increased charge paid or engaged; the notice to that effect to be conspicuously posted up in the receiving house, which shall conclusively bind the parties sending, without further proof of its having come to their knowledge. But this statute, it seems, does not protect the carrier from the consequences of his own gross negligence. Owen *v.* Burnett, 2 C. & M. 353.

[1] Dwight *v.* Brewster, 1 Pick. 50. And see Camden & Amboy Railroad Co. *v.* Burke, 13 Wend. 611.

[2] Butler *v.* Heane, 2 Campb. 415, per Ld. Ellenborough; Kerr *v.* Willan, 2 Stark. R. 53; Macklin *v.* Waterhouse, 5 Bing. 212.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Clayton *v.* Hunt, 3 Campb. 27; Gouger *v.* Jolly, Holt's Cas. 317.

reading the newspaper, in which it was inserted; and even then, the Jury are not bound to find the fact.[1] In the case of notice posted up in the carrier's office, proof that the plaintiff's servant, who brought the goods, looked at the board on which the notice was painted, is not sufficient, if the servant himself testifies that he did not read it.[2]

§ 217. Where there are *several notices*, the carrier must take care that they are all of the same tenor; for if they differ from each other, he will be bound by that which is least favorable to himself.[3]

§ 218. If such *notice* is proved by the carrier, and brought home to the knowledge of the plaintiff, its effect may be *avoided* by evidence on the part of the plaintiff, that the loss was occasioned by the *malfeasance*, *misfeasance*, or *negligence* of the carrier or his servants; for the terms are uniformly construed not to exempt him from such losses.[4] Thus, if he converts the goods to a wrong use, or delivers them to the wrong person, he is liable, notwithstanding such notice.[5] So, though there be notice by a passenger-carrier, that "all baggage is at the risk of the owner," he will still be liable for any loss occasioned to the baggage by a culpable defect in the vehicle.[6] The effect of the notice may also be avoided by proof of a *waiver* of it, on the part of the carrier; as, if he is informed of the value of the parcel, and is desired to charge what he pleases, which shall be paid if the parcel is

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[1] Rowley *v.* Horne, 3 Bing. 2; 10 Moore, 247; Leeson *v.* Holt, 1 Stark. R. 186.

[2] Kerr *v.* Willan, 2 Stark. R. 53; 6 M. & S. 150; Davis *v.* Willan, 2 Stark. R. 279.

[3] Munn *v.* Baker, 2 Stark. R. 255; Cobden *v.* Bolton, 2 Campb. 108; Gouger *v.* Jolly, Holt's Cas. 317; Story on Bailm. § 558.

[4] Story on Bailm. § 570, 545 *b*; Newborn *v.* Just, 2 C. & P. 76.

[5] Ibid.; Wild *v.* Pickford, 8 M. & W. 443.

[6] Camden & Amboy Railroad Co. *v.* Burke, 13 Wend. 611, 627, 628; Story on Bailm. § 571 *a*.

taken care of; and he charges only the ordinary freight;[1] or, if he expressly undertakes to carry a parcel of more than the limited value, for a specified compensation.[2] But in all such cases of notice, the *burden of proof* of the negligence, malfeasance or misfeasance, or of the waiver, is on the party who sent the goods.[3]

§ 219. It is ordinarily a good *defence* for a *private* carrier that the loss or injury to the goods was occasioned by inevitable accident; but a *common* carrier is responsible for all losses and damages, except those caused by the act of God or by public enemies. By the *act of God*, is meant a natural necessity, which could not have been occasioned by the intervention of man, but proceeds from physical causes alone; such as, the violence of the winds or seas, lightning, or other natural accident.[4] Therefore, if the loss happened by the wrongful act of a third person;[5] or, by an accidental fire, not caused by lightning;[6] or, by the agency of the propelling power in a steam-ship;[7] or, by striking against the mast of a a sunken vessel, carelessly left floating;[8] or, by mistaking a light;[9] the carrier is liable. And if divers causes concur in the

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[1] Story on Bailm. § 572; Wilson *v.* Freeman, 3 Campb. 527. In this case, however, the carrier declared his intention to charge at a higher rate than for ordinary goods.

[2] Helsby *v.* Mears, 5 B. & C. 504. Mere notice of the value of the parcel, is not of itself sufficient to do away the effect of the general notice. Levi *v.* Waterhouse, 1 Price, 280.

[3] Harris *v.* Packwood, 3 Taunt. 264; Marsh *v.* Horne, 5 B. & C. 322.

[4] Per Ld. Mansfield, in Forward *v.* Pittard, 1 T. R. 27; Story on Bailm. § 25, 511; Propr's Trent Nav. *v.* Wood, 3 Esp. 127, 131; Gordon *v.* Little, 8 S. & R. 553, 557; Colt *v.* McMechen, 6 Johns. 160; Hodgdon *v.* Dexter, 1 Cranch, 360; Abbott on Shipping, p. 250; 1 Bell, Comm. 489.

[5] 3 Esp. 131, per Ashhurst, J.

[6] Hyde *v.* Trent & Mersey Nav. Co. 5 T. R. 387; Forward *v.* Pittard, 1 T. R. 27.

[7] Hale *v.* The New Jersey Steam Nav. Co. 15 Conn. R. 539.

[8] Smith *v.* Shepherd, Abbott on Shipping, p. 252, 253.

[9] McArthur *v.* Sears, 21 Wend. 190.

loss, the act of God being one, but not the proximate cause, it does not discharge the carrier.[1] But where the loss was occasioned by the vessel being driven against a bridge, by a sudden gust of wind;[2] or, by a collision at sea, without fault;[3] or, by being upset in a sudden squall;[4] or, by the vessel getting aground by a sudden failure of wind while tacking;[5] or, by striking against a sunken rock, or snag, unknown to pilots;[6] in these and the like cases, the carrier, if he is not in fault,[7] has been held not liable. In regard to losses occasioned by force, it must have been the act of *public enemies;* for if the goods were taken by robbers, or destroyed by a mob, though by force which he could not resist, a common carrier is held responsible for the loss.[8] And in all cases of loss by a common carrier, the burden of proof is on him, to show that the loss was occasioned by the act of God, or by public enemies.[9]

§ 220. A carrier may repel the charge of the plaintiff, by evidence of *fraud in the plaintiff* himself, in regard to the goods; or, by proof that the loss resulted from the negligence of the plaintiff in regard to their packing or delivery; or from

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[1] Ewart *v.* Street, 2 Bailey, R. 157; Richards *v.* Gilbert, 5 Day, R. 415; Campbell *v.* Morse, 1 Harper's Law R. 468; Hahn *v.* Corbett, 2 Bing. 205. And see Gordon *v.* Little, 8 S. & R. 533; Hart *v.* Allen, 2 Watts, 114; Jones *v.* Pitcher, 3 Stew. & Port. 135; Sprowl *v.* Kellar, 4 Stew. & Port. 382.

[2] Amies *v.* Stevens, 1 Stra. 128.

[3] Buller *v.* Fisher, Peake, Add. Cas. 183.

[4] Spencer *v.* Daggett, 2 Vermont, R. 92. So, if thrown over in a storm, for preservation of the ship and passengers. Smith *v.* Wright, 1 Caines, R. 43.

[5] Colt *v.* McMechen, 6 Johns. 160.

[6] Williams *v.* Grant, 1 Conn. R. 487; Smyrl *v.* Niolon, 2 Bailey, R. 421; Turner *v.* Wilson, 7 Yerger, R. 340.

[7] Williams *v.* Branson, 1 Murph. 417; Spencer *v.* Daggett, 2 Verm. 92; Marsh *v.* Blythe, 1 McCord, 360.

[8] 3 Esp. 131, 132, per Ld. Mansfield, & Buller, J.

[9] Murphy *v.* Staton, 3 Munf. 239; Bell *v.* Reed, 4 Binn. 127; Ewart *v.* Street, 2 Bailey, 157.

internal defect without his fault.[1] Thus, where the plaintiff had just grounds to apprehend the seizure of his goods by rioters, which he concealed from the carrier when the goods were received by him for transportation, and they were seized and lost, it was held that the plaintiff was not entitled to recover.[2] So, where a parcel, containing two hundred sovereigns, was inclosed in a package of tea, and paid for as of ordinary value, and it was stolen; it was held that the carrier was not liable.[3] And where the plaintiff, being a bailee of goods to be booked and conveyed by the coach in which he was a passenger, placed them in his own bag, which was lost, it was held that the loss was not chargeable to the carrier, but was imputable to the plaintiff's own misfeasance.[4] And if the injury is caused partly by the negligence of the plaintiff, and partly by that of the defendant, or of some other person, it seems that the plaintiff cannot maintain the action.[5] The question of unfair or improper conduct in the plaintiff, in these cases, is left to the determination of the Jury.[6]

§ 221. *Carriers of passengers* are not held responsible to the same extent with common carriers, except in regard to the baggage.[7] But they are bound to the utmost care and

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[1] Story on Bailm. § 563, 565, 566, 576; Leech *v.* Baldwin, 5 Watts, 446.

[2] Edwards *v.* Sharratt, 1 East, 604.

[3] Bradley *v.* Waterhouse, 1 M. & Malk. 154; 3 C. & P. 318, S. C. See also Bull. N. P. 71. The owner, ordinarily, is not obliged to state the value of a package, unless inquiry is made by the carrier; but if, being asked, he deceives the carrier, the latter, though a common carrier, is not liable without his own default. Phillips *v.* Earle, 8 Pick. 182.

[4] Miles *v.* Cattle, 6 Bing. 743.

[5] Williams *v.* Holland, 6 C. & P. 23; Pluckwell *v.* Wilson, 5 C. & P. 375.

[6] Batson *v.* Donovan, 4 B. & Ald. 21. And see Mayhew *v.* Eames, 3 B. & C. 601; 1 C. & P. 550, S. C.; Clay *v.* Willan, 1 H. Bl. 298; Izett *v.* Mountain, 4 East, 370.

[7] Whether a large sum of money, in an ordinary travelling trunk, will be

diligence of very cautious persons; and of course they are responsible for any, even the slightest neglect.[1] Their contract to carry safely means, not that they will ensure the limbs of the passengers, but that they will take due care, as far as competent skill and human foresight will go, in the performance of that duty.[2] This extreme care is to be used in regard to the original construction of the coach or vehicle, frequent examinations to see that it is safe, the employment of good and steady horses and careful drivers, and the use of all the ordinary precautions for the safety of passengers on the road.[3] The carrier is also bound to give them notice of danger, if any part of the way is unsafe.[4] Accordingly, where the injury resulted from negligent driving,[5] insufficiency of the vehicle,[6] overloading the coach,[7] improper stowage of the luggage,[8] drunkenness of the driver,[9] want of due inspection of the coach previous to the journey, or upon the road,[10] or the like, the proprietor has been held liable. He is also liable for an injury occasioned by leaping from the coach,

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considered as baggage, beyond an ordinary amount of travelling expenses, *quære;* and see Orange Co. Bank *v.* Brown, 9 Wend. 85.

[1] Story on Bailm. § 601, 602; 2 Kent, Comm. 600.

[2] Harris *v.* Costar, 1 C. & P. 636; Stokes *v.* Saltonstall, 13 Peters, 181; Story on Bailm. § 601, 602.

[3] Story on Bailm. § 592, 593, 594, 598, 599, 601, 602, (3d ed.)

[4] Dudley *v.* Smith, 1 Campb. 167; Christie *v.* Griggs, 2 Campb. 79.

[5] Aston *v.* Heaven, 2 Esp. 533; Crofts *v.* Waterhouse, 3 Bing. 319. If the driver, having a choice of two ways, elects the most hazardous, the owner is responsible at all events for any damage that ensues. Mayhew *v.* Boyce, 1 Stark. R. 423.

[6] Christie *v.* Griggs, 2 Campb. 79; Bremner *v.* Williams, 1 C. & P. 414; Sharp *v.* Grey, 9 Bing. 457; Ware *v.* Gay, 11 Pick. 106; Camden & Amboy Railroad Co. *v.* Burke, 13 Wend. 611; Curtis *v.* Drinkwater, 2 B. & Ad. 169.

[7] Israel *v.* Clark, 4 Esp. 259.

[8] Curtis *v.* Drinkwater, 2 B. & Ad. 169.

[9] Stokes *v.* Saltonstall, 13 Peters, 181.

[10] Sharp *v.* Grey, 9 Bing. 457; Bremner *v.* Williams, 1 C. & P. 414; Ware *v.* Gay, 11 Pick. 106.

where the passenger was justly alarmed for his safety, by reason of something imputable to the proprietor.[1]

§ 222. It is only on the ground of *negligence*, that the carrier of passengers is held liable. This is therefore a material point for the plaintiff to make out in evidence, and without which he cannot recover. He must also prove the defendant's engagement to carry him, and that he accordingly took his place in the coach. But where the injury resulted from the breaking of the coach or harness, or the overturning of the coach, or any other accident, occurring on the road, this is itself presumptive evidence of negligence, and the *onus probandi* is on the proprietor of the coach, to establish that there has been no negligence whatever, and that the damage has resulted from a cause which human care and

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[1] Jones *v.* Boyce, 1 Stark. R. 493; Stokes *v.* Saltonstall, 13 Peters, 181. The following count in *assumpsit* against a passenger-carrier, for bad management of a sufficient coach, it is conceived would be good.

"For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— was the proprietor of a coach for the carriage of passengers with their luggage between ——— and ——— for hire and reward; and thereupon, on the same day, in consideration that the plaintiff, at the request of the said (*defendant*), would engage and take a seat and place in said coach, to be conveyed therein from said ——— to ——— for a reasonable hire and reward to be paid to him by the plaintiff, the said (*defendant*) undertook and promised the plaintiff to carry and convey him in said coach, from ——— to ———, with all due care, diligence, and skill.(*) And the plaintiff avers that, confiding in the said undertaking, he thereupon engaged and took a seat in said coach and became a passenger therein, to be conveyed as aforesaid, for such hire and reward to be paid by him to the said (*defendant*). But the said (*defendant*) did not use due care, diligence, and skill, in carrying and conveying the plaintiff as aforesaid; but on the contrary so overloaded, and so negligently and unskilfully conducted, drove and managed said coach, that it was overturned; by means whereof the plaintiff was grievously bruised and hurt, [*here state any other special injuries*] and was sick and disabled for a long time, and was put to great expense for nursing, medicines, and medical aid."

If the injury arose from insufficiency in the coach, or horses, insert at (*) as follows: — "and that the said coach was sufficiently stanch and strong, and that the horses drawing the same were and should be well broken, and manageable, and of competent strength;" — and assign the breach accordingly.

foresight could not prevent.[1] Where the breaking down of the carriage was occasioned by an original defect in the iron axle, which, though concealed by the wooden part of the axle, might have been discovered by unscrewing and separating them, the proprietor has been held chargeable with negligence, in not causing such examination to be made, previously to any use of the vehicle.[2] But that he is liable for such an accident, where the fracture was caused by an original internal defect in the forging of the bar, undiscoverable by the closest inspection, and unavoidable by human care, skill, and foresight, is a point which no decision has yet sustained.

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[1] Story on Bailm. § 601 *a*, 602; McKinney *v.* Neil, 1 McLean, R. 540; Christie *v.* Griggs, 2 Campb. 79; Ware *v.* Gay, 11 Pick. 106.

[2] Sharp *v.* Grey, 9 Bing. 457.

CASE.

§ 223. Under this head it is proposed only to mention some general principles of evidence, applicable to the action of Trespass on the Case, in any of its forms; referring to the appropriate titles of Adultery, Carriers, Libel, Malicious Prosecution, Nuisance, Trover, &c. for the particular rules relating to each of these heads.

§ 224. The distinction between the actions of Trespass *vi et armis*, and Trespass on the Case, is clear, though somewhat refined and subtle. By the former, redress is sought for an injury accompanied with actual force; by the latter, it is sought for a wrong without force. The criterion of Trespass *vi et armis*, is force, directly applied, or, *vis proxima*. If the proximate cause of the injury is but a continuation of the original force, or, *vis impressa*, the effect is immediate, and the appropriate remedy is Trespass *vi et armis*. But if the original force, or *vis impressa*, had ceased to act, before the injury commenced, the effect is mediate, and the appropriate remedy is Trespass on the Case. Thus, if a log, thrown over a fence, were to fall on a person in the street, he might sue in Trespass; but if, after it had fallen to the ground, it caused him to stumble and fall, the remedy could be only by Trespass on the Case.[1] The intent of the wrong-doer is not material to the form of the action; neither is it generally important, whether the original act was or was not legal. Thus, though the act of sending up a balloon was legal, yet Trespass *vi et armis* was held maintainable, for damage done by the accidental alighting of the balloon in the plaintiff's garden.[2]

[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 115 – 120; Smith *v.* Rutherford, 2 S. & R. 358.
[2] Guille *v.* Swan, 19 Johns. 381.

§ 225. For injuries to *relative rights*, the Action on the Case is the appropriate remedy. If the injury was without force, as, for example, enticing away a servant, Case is the only proper remedy; but if it be done with force, such as the battery of one's servant, or the like, the action may be in Case, or in Trespass *vi et armis*, at the plaintiff's election; and in the latter form, he may join a count for a battery of himself.[1]

§ 226. Where the injury is not to relative, but to *absolute rights*, the question, whether the party may waive the force, and sue in Trespass on the Case, for the mere consequential damages, has been much discussed, with no little conflict of opinion. Where the tortious act was done to the property of the plaintiff, and the defendant has derived a direct pecuniary benefit therefrom, as, if he seized the plaintiff's goods and sold them as his own, it is clear that the plaintiff may waive the tort entirely, and sue in *assumpsit* for the price of the goods. So, though the property was forcibly taken, the force may be waived, and *trover*, which is an action on the case, may be sustained, for the value of the goods. It is also agreed, that, where an injury was caused by the negligence of the defendant, but not wilfully, as, by driving his cart against the plaintiff's carriage, Trespass on the Case may be maintained, notwithstanding the injury was occasioned by force, directly applied.[2] And it has also been laid down, upon consideration, as a general principle, that where an injury has been done, partly by an act of trespass, and partly by that which is not an act of trespass, but the proper subject of an action on the Case, both acts being done at the same time,

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[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 128, [153], 181, [229]; Ditcham *v.* Bond, 2 M. & S. 436; Woodward *v.* Walton, 2 New Rep. 476.

[2] Williams *v.* Holland, 10 Bing. 112; Rogers *v.* Imbleton, 2 New R. 117; Moreton *v.* Hardern, 4 B. & C. 223; Blinn *v.* Campbell, 14 Johns. 432; McAllister *v.* Hammond, 6 Cow. 342; Dalton *v.* Favour, 3 N. Hamp. 465.

and causing a common injury, the party may sue in either form of action, at his election. This rule has been illustrated by the case of a weir, or a dam, erected partly on the plaintiff's ground, and partly on that of another riparian proprietor.[1] It has also been held, that Case would lie for a distress, illegally made, after tender of the rent due;[2] and for a tortious taking, under pretence of a distress for rent, where there was no right to distrain.[3] In this last case, Lord Denman, C. J. proceeded upon the general ground, that, though the taking of the goods was a trespass, the owner was at liberty to waive it, and bring Case for the consequential injury arising from the unlawful detention. Indeed, it is difficult to discern any reason why the party may not, in all cases, waive his claim to vindictive damages, and proceed in Case, for only those actually sustained; or why he may not as well waive his claim for a part of the injury, and go for the residue, as to forgive the whole.[4] There are, however, several decisions, both English and American, to the effect that, where the injury is caused by force, directly applied, the remedy can be pursued only in Trespass.[5]

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[1] Wells *v.* Ody, 1 M. & W. 459, per Ld. Abinger; Ib. 462, per Parke, B.; Moore *v.* Robinson, 2 B. & Ad. 817; Knott *v.* Digges, 6 H. & J. 230.

[2] Branscom *v.* Bridges, 1 B. & C. 145; 3 Stark. R. 171; Holland *v.* Bird, 10 Bing. 15.

[3] Smith *v.* Goodwin, 4 B. & Ad. 413.

[4] See Scott *v.* Shepherd, 2 W. Bl. 897; Pitts *v.* Gaince, 1 Salk. 10; Chamberlain *v.* Hazlewood, 5 M. & W. 515; 3 Jur. 1079; Muskett *v.* Hill, 5 Bing. N. C. 694; Parker *v.* Elliott, 6 Munf. 587; Van Horn *v.* Freeman, 1 Halst. 322; Haney *v.* Townsend, 1 McCord, 207; Ream *v.* Rank, 3 S. & R. 215.

[5] These decisions are referred to in 1 Met. & Perk. Dig. p. 69, 70; 1 Harrison's Dig. 42–47. But in some of the United States, the distinction between the two forms of action has been abolished by statute. Thus, in Maine, it is enacted that "the declaration shall be equally good and valid, to all intents and purposes, whether the same shall be in form a declaration in trespass, or trespass on the case." Revised Statutes, ch. 115, § 13.

§ 227. In this action, as in others, if there are *several plaintiffs*, they must prove a joint cause of action, such as damage to their joint property, slander of both, in their joint trade or employment, and the like, or they will be nonsuited.[1] If their interests are several, but the damage is joint, it has been held sufficient.[2]

§ 228. If the action is founded *in tort*, it is not necessary to prove all the defendants guilty; for as torts are several in their nature, judgment may well be rendered against one alone, and the others acquitted. But if the action is founded on a breach of an express contract, it seems that the plaintiff must prove the contract against all the defendants.[3]

§ 229. The *particular day* on which the injury is alleged to have been committed, is not material to be proved. Originally, every declaration in trespass seems to have been confined to a single act of trespass; and if it was continuous in its nature, it might be so laid; in which case it was considered as one act of trespass. Subsequently, to save the inconvenience of distinct counts for each tortious act, the plaintiff was permitted to consolidate into one count, the charge of trespasses done on divers days between two days specifically mentioned; in which case it is considered as if it were a distinct count for every different trespass. In the proof of such a declaration, the plaintiff may give evidence of any number of trespasses within the time specified. But he is not obliged to avail himself of this privilege; for he may still consider his declaration as containing only one count, and for a single trespass. When it is considered in this light, the time is immaterial; and he may prove a trespass done at

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[1] Cook *v.* Batchellor, 2 B. & P. 150; 2 Saund. 116 a, note (2); Solomons *v.* Medex, 1 Stark. R. 191.

[2] Coryton *v.* Lithebye, 2 Saund. 115; Weller *v.* Baker, 2 Wils. 414.

[3] Ireland *v.* Johnson, 1 Bing. N. C. 162; Bretherton *v.* Wood, 3 B. & B. 54; Max *v.* Roberts, 12 East, 89; Ante, § 214.

any time before the commencement of the action, and within the time prescribed by the statute of limitations. But the plaintiff is not permitted to avail himself of the declaration in both these forms at the same time. He is therefore bound to make his election, before he begins to introduce his evidence; and will not be permitted to give evidence of one or more trespasses within the time alleged, and of another at another time.[1]

§ 230. If the plaintiff charges both *malice and negligence* upon the defendant, in doing the act complained of, the count will be supported by evidence of the negligence only.[2]

§ 231. Under the *general issue*, the defendant is ordinarily permitted to give evidence of any matters *ex post facto*, which show that the cause of action has been discharged, or that in equity and conscience the plaintiff ought not to recover.[3] Thus, a *release*, a *former recovery*, or a *satisfaction*, may be given in evidence.[4] So also in an action for enticing away a servant, the defendant may, under this issue, give evidence that the plaintiff has already recovered judgment for damages against the servant, for departing from his service, and that, since the commencement of the present action, this judgment had been satisfied.[5] So, in an action on the Case for beating the plaintiff's horse, the defendant may show that it was done to drive the horse from his own door, which he obstructed.[6] And in an action for obstructing

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[1] Pierce *v.* Pickens, 16 Mass. 472, per Jackson, J.; Brook *v.* Bishop, 2 Ld. Raym. 823; 7 Mod. 152; 2 Salk. 639; Monckton *v.* Pashley, 2 Ld. Raym. 974, 976; Hume *v.* Oldacre, 1 Stark. R. 351; 1 Saund. 24, note (1), by Williams.

[2] Panton *v.* Holland, 17 Johns. 92.

[3] Bird *v.* Randall, 3 Burr. 1353, per Ld. Mansfield.

[4] Ibid. Yelv. 174 *a*, note (1), by Metcalf; Stephen on Plead. 182, 183, (Am. Ed. 1824); Stafford *v.* Clark, 2 Bing. 377; Anon. 1 Com. R. 273.

[5] Bird *v.* Randall, 3 Burr. 1345.

[6] Slater *v.* Swann, 2 Stra. 872.

ancient lights, by the erection of a house, a customary right so to do, may be given in evidence.[1] So, in an action for hindering the plaintiff in the exercise of his trade, it may be shown, under this issue, that the trade was unlawful;[2] and in an action for destroying a rookery, it may be shown that it was a nuisance.[3] And in general, wherever an act is charged in this form of action to have been fraudulently done, the plea of not guilty puts in issue both the doing of the act, and the motive with which it was done.[4]

§ 232. But to this rule there are some *exceptions;* such as the *statute of limitations;* justification, in slander, by alleging the *truth* of the words; *re-taking*, on fresh pursuit of a prisoner escaped; which cannot be given in evidence, unless specially pleaded.[5]

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[1] Anon. 1 Com. R. 273.

[2] Tarleton *v.* McGawley, Peake's Cas. 207, per Ld. Kenyon.

[3] Hannam *v.* Mockett, 2 B. & C. 924.

[4] Mummery *v.* Paul, 8 Jur. 986.

[5] 1 Chitty on Pl. 433, 434.

COVENANT.

§ 233. In this action, by the Common Law, there is *no general issue* or plea, which amounts to a general traverse of the whole declaration, and of course obliges the plaintiff to prove the whole ;[1] but the evidence is strictly confined to the particular issue raised by a special plea, such as, *non est factum*, which will be treated under the head of Deed, and Duress, Infancy, Release, &c. which will be considered under those titles. The liability of an heir, on the covenant of his ancestor, will be treated under the head of Heir.

§ 234. If the deed is not put in issue by the plea of *non est factum*, the defendant, by the rules of the Common Law, is understood to *admit so much of the deed* as is spread upon the record. If the plaintiff would avail himself of any other part of the deed, he must prove the instrument, by the attesting witnesses, or by secondary evidence, in the usual way.[2]

§ 235. If the plaintiff's right of action depends on the performance of a *condition precedent*, which is put in issue, he must prove a performance according to the terms of the covenant. It will not suffice, in an action on a specialty, to show that other terms have been substituted by parol, although the substituted agreement has been fully performed.[3]

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[1] 1 Chitty on Pl. 428. In some of the United States, under statutes for the abolishment of special pleading, the plea of *non est factum* has been adopted in practice, as being in effect a general traverse of the declaration. Granger *v.* Granger, 6 Hamm. Ohio, R. 41 ; Provost *v.* Calder, 2 Wend. 517.

[2] Williams *v.* Sills, 2 Campb. 519 ; Ante, Vol. 1, § 569 to 582.

[3] 1 Chitty on Pl. 280 ; 3 T. R. 592. But if the original agreement was not under seal, evidence of a parol enlargement of the time, with performance accordingly, is admissible. Ante, Vol. 1, § 304.

Thus, where the plaintiff sued in covenant for the agreed price for building two houses, which he bound himself to finish by a certain day, and averred performance, in the terms of the covenant; proof of a parol enlargement of the time, and of performance accordingly, was held inadmissible.[1]

§ 236. The *breach*, also, must be proved as laid in the declaration. And here it is a general principle, that where the party destroys that which was the subject of his agreement, or voluntarily puts it out of his power to perform that which he engaged to perform, it is a breach of his covenant.[2] Thus, if he covenant to deliver the grains, made in his brewery, and before delivery he renders them unfit for use by mixing hops with them;[3] or, to deliver up a certain obligation of the covenantee, and before delivery he recovers judgment upon it;[4] or, to permit the covenantee to sue in his name, agreeing to assign to him the judgment when recovered, and before assignment he releases the judgment debtor;[5] or, that certain goods of a debtor shall be forthcoming to the officer, and in the mean time he causes them to be seized on process in his own favor;[6] the covenant is broken.

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[1] Littler *v.* Holland, 3 T. R. 590. And see Maryon *v.* Carter, 4 C. & P. 295; Paradine *v.* Jane, Aleyn, 26; Campbell *v.* Jones, 6 T. R. 571.

[2] Hopkins *v.* Young, 11 Mass. 302. But if the covenantor involuntarily becomes unable to perform, but the disability is removed before the day of performance arrives, it is no breach. Heard *v.* Bowers, 23 Pick. 455. A covenant to *keep* in repair is broken if the lessee pull down the buildings; but a covenant to *leave* the premises in repair is not, provided he rebuilds them within the term. Shep. Touchst. p. 173.

[3] Griffith *v.* Goodhand, T. Raym. 464. And see Mayne's case, 5 Co. 21.

[4] Teat's case, Cro. El. 7.

[5] Hopkins *v.* Young, 11 Mass. 302.

[6] Whiteman *v.* Slack, 1 Harringt. 144. The neglect of an officer to return an execution, under which he has sold an equity of redemption, has been held a breach of the covenant in his deed of sale, that he had obeyed all the requisitions of law, in the proceeding. Wade *v.* Merwin, 11 Pick. 280.

And in regard to covenants of *indemnity*, this distinction has been taken; that where the covenant is to indemnify against a liability already incurred, it is not broken till the covenantee is sued upon that liability; but where the debt or duty may accrue in future, the covenant is broken whenever the liability to a suit arises.[1]

§ 237. It will be sufficient, as we have already seen,[2] to prove the breach *substantially* as laid; but it must also appear, that the covenant is *substantially broken*. If the allegation is of a total loss or destruction, it will be supported by proof of a partial loss; for it is the loss or damage, and not the extent of it, which is the substance of the allegation.[3] So, where the tenant covenanted to keep the trees in an orchard whole and undefaced, reasonable use and wear only excepted, the cutting down of trees past bearing, was held to be no breach; for the preservation of the trees for fruit was the substance of the covenant.[4] But where the breach assigned was, that the tenant had not used the farm in a husbandlike manner, but, on the contrary, had committed waste, evidence of acts, not amounting to waste, was held inadmissible; for the waste was the substance of the allegation.[5]

§ 238. In regard to the averment or proof of *notice* to the defendant, a distinction is taken between things lying more properly in the knowledge of the plaintiff, and things lying in the knowledge of the defendant, or common to them both. In the former case, the plaintiff must aver and prove notice to the defendant. But where the party bound has the same means of ascertaining the event on which his duty arises, as

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[1] 3 Com. Dig. 110, Condition, I; Lewis *v.* Crockett, 3 Bibb, 196.
[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 56 to 74.
[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 61.
[4] 2 Stark. Ev. 248, cites Good *v.* Hill, 2 Esp. 690.
[5] Harris *v.* Mantle, 3 T. R. 307. And see Ante, Vol. 1, § 52.

the party to whom he is bound, neither notice nor request are necessary to be proved.[1]

§ 239. Where the *defendant is sued as assignee of the original covenantor*, and the issue is on the assignment, it will be sufficient for the plaintiff to give evidence of any facts from which the assignment may be inferred; such as possession of the premises leased, or payment of rent to the plaintiff.[2] For it is never necessary either to allege or prove the

[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 286; Keys *v.* Powell, 2 A. K. Marsh. 253; Peck *v.* McMurtry, Ib. 358; Muldrow *v.* McCleland, 1 Littell, 1.

[2] Williams *v.* Woodward, 2 Wend. 487; Ib. 563; Derisley *v.* Custance, 4 T. R. 75; Platt on Cov. 64; Holford *v.* Hatch, Doug. 178; Hare *v.* Cator, Cowp. 766. On the liability of an assignee, see Platt on Cov. 465–505. In the declaration against an assignee, the assignment is alleged as in the following precedent of a declaration *by a lessor, against the assignee of his lessee* for nonpayment of rent.

"In a plea of covenant. For that whereas heretofore, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— by a certain indenture then made between the plaintiff of the one part and one C. D. of the other part, one part whereof, sealed with the seal of the said C. D., the plaintiff now brings here into Court, the plaintiff demised and leased to the said C. D. a certain messuage, lands and premises situated in ——— to have and to hold the same to the said C. D. and his assigns, from the ——— day of ——— for the full term of ——— years then next ensuing; yielding and paying therefor to the plaintiff the clear yearly rent of ——— payable [*here describe the mode and times of payment*], which rent the said C. D. did thereby for himself and his assigns, covenant to pay to the plaintiff accordingly. By virtue of which demise the said C. D. on the ——— day of ——— entered into the same premises and was possessed thereof for the term aforesaid. (*) And after the making of said indenture, and during the term aforesaid, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— [*naming any day before the breach*] all the estate and interest of the said C. D. in said term, then unexpired, by an assignment thereof then made, came to and was vested in the defendant, who thereupon entered into the said demised premises and became possessed thereof, and continued so possessed from thence hitherto. [*or*, "until the ——— day of ———."] Now the plaintiff in fact says, that after the making of said assignment, and during the said term, and before the commencement of this suit, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— the sum of ——— of the rent aforesaid became due and was owing to the plaintiff from the said defendant, and still is in arrear and unpaid, contrary to the covenant aforesaid."

title of the adverse party with as much precision as in stating one's own. Yet if the plaintiff does allege the particulars of the defendant's title, he must prove them as laid.[1] Under an issue on the assignment, the defendant may show that he holds as an under-tenant, and not as an assignee;[2] or, that he is an assignee, not of all, but only of a part of the premises.[3] He may also show in defence, under a proper plea, that the covenant was broken, not by himself, but by another person, to whom he had previously assigned all his interest in the premises; and in such case, it is not necessary for him to prove either the assent of the assignee, or notice to his own lessor, of the assignment.[4] It has been held, that where the lessee of a term of years assigns his interest by way of mortgage, the mortgagee is not liable to the landlord, as assignee, until he has entered upon the demised premises;[5] but this doctrine has since been overruled, and the mortgagee held liable as assignee, before entry.[6] But an executor is not liable as assignee, without proof of an actual entry.[7]

§ 240. But where the *plaintiff claims as assignee*, he must precisely allege and prove the conveyances, or other mediums of title, by which he is authorized to sue.[8] If he claims as

[1] Stephen on Pleading, p. 337, 338; Turner *v.* Eyles, 3 B. & P. 456, 461; 2 Phil. Ev. 151, (7th ed.); Ante, Vol. 1, § 60.

[2] Holford *v.* Hatch, 1 Doug. 182; E. of Derby *v.* Taylor, 1 East, 502.

[3] Hare *v.* Cator, Cowp. 766.

[4] Pitcher *v.* Tovey, 1 Salk. 81; Taylor *v.* Shum, 1 B. & P. 21.

[5] Eaton *v.* Jaques, 2 Doug. 455. It is still held, that the mortgagee of a ship is not liable as owner, until he takes possession. Brooks *v.* Bondsey, 17 Pick. 441; Colson *v.* Bonzey, 6 Greenl. 474; Abbott on Shipping, p. 19; Briggs *v.* Wilkinson, 7 B. & C. 30.

[6] Williams *v.* Bosanquet, 1 B. & Bing. 238; 4 Kent, Comm. 145; Woodfall's Law of Landl. & Ten. p. 183, (5th ed. by Wollaston.) *Sed quære;* and see Astor *v.* Hoyt, 5 Wend. 603; Astor *v.* Miller, 2 Paige, R. 68; Bourdillon *v.* Dalton, 1 Esp. 234; Cook *v.* Harris, 1 Ld. Raym. 367; Co. Lit. 46 *b*; Rex *v.* St. Michaels, 2 Doug. 630, 632; Blaney *v.* Bearce, 2 Greenl. 132; McIver *v.* Humble, 16 East, 109.

[7] Buckley *v.* Pirk, 1 Salk. 316; Jevens *v.* Harridge, 1 Saund. 1, note 1, by Williams.

[8] Steph. on Plead. p, 338. In an action by an assignee, his title is set

assignee of a covenant real, he must show himself grantee of the land, by a regular legal conveyance, from a person having capacity to convey.[1] And in regard to *covenants real*, on which any grantee of the land may sue the grantor in his own name, or may be sued, it may not be improper here to observe, (1.) that they are always such as have real estate for their subject-matter; and (2.) that they run with the land, that is, that they accompany the lawful seisin, and are prospective in their operation. If there is no seisin, the covenant remains merely personal.[2] The object of these covenants is

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forth as in the following precedent of a declaration by a *grantee of the reversion, against the lessee of his grantor*, for nonpayment of rent.

"In a plea of covenant. For that whereas heretofore, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— one J. S. was seised in his demesne as of fee of and in the following described messuage lands and tenements situated in —— [*here describe the premises.*] And being so seised, on the same day, by a certain indenture made between him of the one part and the defendant of the other part, one part whereof, sealed with the seal of the said defendant, the plaintiff now here brings into Court, [*or*, which indenture, being in neither part in the possession, custody, or control of the plaintiff, he cannot produce in Court,] the said J. S. demised the same premises to the defendant, [*here proceed, mutatis mutandis, as far as this mark* (*) *in the preceding form.*] And after the making of said indenture, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— the said J. S., being seised of the reversion of said estate, by his deed of bargain and sale, [*or, if in any other form of conveyance, state it*,] duly executed, acknowledged and recorded, and now here by the plaintiff produced in Court, for a valuable consideration therein mentioned, [bargained, sold] and conveyed the said reversion of and in the said premises to the plaintiff, to have and to hold the same with the appurtenances to the plaintiff and his heirs and assigns forever; by virtue of which deed the plaintiff thereupon became seised of the said reversion according to the tenor of the same, and has ever since continued to be so seised thereof. Now the plaintiff in fact says, that after the making of said deed [of bargain and sale] and during the said term, [*conclude as in the preceding form.*]"

[1] Milnes *v.* Branch, 5 M. & S. 411; Roach *v.* Wadham, 6 East, 289; 2 Sugd. Vend. 479, 489–491; Randolph *v.* Kinney, 3 Rand. 394; Beardsley *v.* Knight, 4 Verm. R. 471.

[2] Platt on Covenants, p. 63; Shep. Touchst. 171; Spencer's case, 5 Co. 16; Norman *v.* Wells, 17 Wend. 136; Nesbit *v.* Nesbit, Cam. & Nor. R. 324; Slater *v.* Rawson, 1 Met. 450.

threefold. (1.) To preserve the inheritance; such as covenants to keep in repair;[1] and covenants to keep the buildings insured against fire, and if they are burnt, to reinstate them with the insurance-money.[2] (2.) To continue the relation of landlord and tenant, &c.; such as, to pay rent;[3] to do suit to the lessor's mill,[4] or, to grind the tenant's corn;[5] and for renewal of leases.[6] (3.) To protect the tenant in the enjoyment of the land. Of this class are, the covenant to warrant and defend the premises to him and his heirs and assigns, against all lawful claims and demands;[7] to make farther assurance;[8] to remove incumbrances;[9] to release suit and service;[10] to produce title deeds, in any action, in support or defence of the grantee;[11] for quiet enjoyment;[12] never to claim or assert title to the premises;[13] to supply the prem-

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[1] Platt on Cov. 65, 267; Lougher *v.* Williams, 3 Lev. 92; Demarest *v.* Willard, 8 Cow. 206; Norman *v.* Wells, 17 Wend. 148; Pollard *v.* Shaaffer, 1 Dall. 210; Shelby *v.* Hearne, 6 Yerg. 512; Kellogg *v.* Robinson, 6 Verm. 276.

[2] Vernon *v.* Smith, 5 B. & Ad. 1, per Best, J.; Platt on Cov. 185; Thomas *v.* Von Kapff, 6 G. & J. 372.

[3] Stevenson *v.* Lambard, 5 East, 575; Holford *v.* Hatch, 1 Doug. 183; Hurst *v.* Rodney, 1 Wash. C. C. R. 375.

[4] This is a real covenant as long as the lessor owns both the mill and the reversion. Vivyan *v.* Arthur, 1 B. & C. 410; 42 E. 3, 3; 5 Co. 18.

[5] Dunbar *v.* Jumper, 2 Yeates, 74; Kimpton *v.* Walker, 9 Verm. 191.

[6] Spencer's case, Moor, 159; Platt on Cov. 470; 12 East, 469, per Ld. Ellenborough; Isteed *v.* Stoneley, 1 And. 82.

[7] Shep. Touchst. 161; Marston *v.* Hobbs, 2 Mass. 433; Wiltby *v.* Mountfort, 5 Cow. 137; Van Horne *v.* Crain, 1 Paige, 455.

[8] Middlemore *v.* Goodale, Cro. Car. 503.

[9] Sprague *v.* Baker, 17 Mass. 586. But a covenant that the land is not encumbered, is personal only. Clark *v.* Swift, 3 Met. 390.

[10] Co. Lit. 384 *b*.

[11] 4 Cruise Dig. 480, tit. 32, ch. 25, § 100; Barclay *v.* Raine, 1 Sim. & St. 449; Platt on Cov. 227; 10 Law Mag. 353 to 357.

[12] Noke *v.* Awder, Cro. El. 373, 436; Campbell *v.* Lewis, 3 B. & Ald. 392; Platt on Cov. 470; Markland *v.* Crump, 1 Dev. & Bat. 94.

[13] Fairbanks *v.* Williamson, 7 Greenl. 97. And if the subject of the conveyance be an estate in expectancy, by an heir or devisee, and the conveyance is lawful, it attaches to the estate when it comes to the grantor, in

ises with water ;[1] not to establish or permit another mill on the same stream, which propels the mill granted ;[2] not to erect a building on grounds dedicated by the covenantor to the public, in front of lands conveyed by the covenantor to the assignor of the plaintiff ;[3] and the like. When any of these covenants are broken, after the land has been conveyed to the assignee, the general rule is, that he alone has the right to sue for the damages ; but if, by the nature and terms of the assignment, the assignor is bound to indemnify the assignee against the breach of such covenants, it seems that the assignor may sue in his own name.[4]

§ 241. To prove a breach of the *covenant of seisin*, it is necessary to show, that the covenantor was not seised in fact ; for this covenant is satisfied by any seisin in fact, though it were by wrong, and defeasible.[5] But though the covenantor was in possession of the land at the time of the conveyance, yet if he did not exclusively claim it as his own, the covenant is broken.[6] So, if there was a concurrent seisin, by another, as tenant in common ;[7] or, if there was an adverse seisin of a part of the land, within the boundaries

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whose hands it instantly enures to the benefit of the grantee, and thereupon the covenant becomes a covenant real. Trull *v.* Eastman, 3 Met. 121 ; Somes *v* Skinner, 3 Pick. 52.

[1] Jordain *v.* Wilson, 4 B. & Ald. 266. So a covenant by the grantor of a mill-pond and land, to draw off the water six days in the year, upon request, is a covenant real. Morse *v.* Aldrich, 19 Pick. 449.

[2] Norman *v.* Wells, 17 Wend. 136.

[3] Watertown *v.* Cowen, 4 Paige, 510.

[4] Griffin *v.* Fairbrother, 1 Fairf. 81 ; Bickford *v.* Page, 2 Mass. 460 ; Kane *v.* Sanger, 14 Johns. 89 ; Niles *v.* Sawtel, 7 Mass. 444.

[5] Marston *v.* Hobbs, 2 Mass. 433 ; Bearce *v.* Jackson, 4 Mass. 408 ; Twombly *v.* Henley, Ib. 441 ; Prescott *v.* Trueman, Ib. 627 ; Chapel *v.* Bull, 17 Mass. 213 ; Wait *v.* Maxwell, 5 Pick. 217 ; Wheaton *v.* East, 5 Yerg. 41 ; Willard *v.* Twitchell, 1 N. Hamp. 177 ; Backus *v.* McCoy, 3 Ohio R. 220. But see Richardson *v.* Dorr, 5 Verm. 21 ; Lackwood *v.* Sturdevant, 6 Conn. 385.

[6] Wheeler *v.* Hatch, 3 Fairf. 389.

[7] Sedgwick *v.* Hollenback, 7 Johns. 376.

described in the deed.[1] But if the possession by a stranger was not adverse, it is no breach.[2]

§ 242. The covenant of *freedom from incumbrances* is proved to have been broken, by any evidence, showing that a third person has a right to, or an interest in, the land granted, to the diminution of the value of the land, though consistent with the passing of the fee by the deed of conveyance.[3] Therefore, a public highway over the land ;[4] a claim of dower ;[5] a private right of way ;[6] a lien by judgment ;[7] or by mortgage, made by the grantor to the grantee,[8] or any mortgagee, unless it be one which the covenantee is bound to pay ;[9] or any other outstanding elder and better title ;[10]

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[1] Wilson *v.* Forbes, 2 Dev. 30.

[2] Commonwealth *v.* Dudley, 10 Mass. 403.

[3] Prescott *v.* Trueman, 4 Mass. 627, 629, per Parsons, C. J.

[4] Kellogg *v.* Ingersoll, 2 Mass. 97, 101 ; Pritchard *v.* Atkinson, 3 N. Hamp. 335 ; Hubbard *v.* Norton, 10 Conn. 431.

[5] 4 Mass. 630. Even though inchoate only. Porter *v.* Noyes, 2 Greenl. 22 ; Shearer *v.* Ranger, 22 Pick. 447.

[6] Harlow *v.* Thomas, 15 Pick. 68 ; Mitchell *v.* Warner, 5 Conn. 497.

[7] Jenkins *v.* Hopkins, 8 Pick. 346 ; Smith *v.* M'Campbell, 1 Blackf. 100 ; Hall *v.* Dean, 13 Johns. 105.

[8] Bean *v.* Mayo, 5 Greenl. 94.

[9] Watts *v.* Welman, 2 N. Hamp. 458 ; Tufts *v.* Adams, 8 Pick. 547 ; Funk *v.* Voneida, 11 S. & R. 109 ; Stewart *v.* Drake, 4 Halst. 139 ; Wyman *v.* Ballard, 12 Mass. 304.

[10] Prescott *v.* Trueman, 4 Mass. 627 ; Chapel *v.* Bull, 17 Mass. 213, 220 ; Potter *v.* Taylor, 6 Verm. 676 ; Garrison *v.* Sandford, 7 Halst. 261.

The declaration *by a grantee* by deed of bargain and sale, *against his grantor*, for breach of the *covenant of freedom from incumbrance*, by the existence of a paramount title. is in this form : —

" —— in a plea of covenant ; for that the said defendant, on the ——— day of —— by his deed, [*if by indenture, it should be so set forth*,] duly executed, acknowledged and recorded, and by the plaintiff now here produced in Court, for a valuable consideration therein mentioned, bargained, sold and conveyed to the plaintiff [*here describe the premises*] to have and to hold the same with the appurtenances to the plaintiff and his heirs and assigns forever : and therein, among other things, did covenant with the plaintiff,(*) that the said premises were then free from all incumbrance whatsoever. Now the plaintiff in fact says that, at the time of making the said deed, the premises,

is an incumbrance, the existence of which is a breach of this covenant. In these and the like cases, it is the existence of the incumbrance which constitutes the right of action; irrespective of any knowledge on the part of the grantee, or of any eviction of him, or of any actual injury it has occasioned to him. If he has not paid it off, nor bought it in, he will still be entitled to nominal damages, but to nothing more;[1] unless it has ripened into an indefeasible estate; in which case he may recover full damages.[2]

§ 243. The covenant for *quiet enjoyment* goes to the possession, and not to the title; and therefore, to prove a breach, it is ordinarily necessary to give evidence of an entry upon the grantee, or of expulsion from, or some actual disturbance in the possession;[3] and this, too, by reason of some adverse right existing at the time of making the covenant, and not of one subsequently acquired.[4] But it will not suffice to prove

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aforesaid were not free from all incumbrance; but on the contrary the plaintiff avers that, at the time of making said deed, one E. F. had the paramount and lawful right and title to the same premises; by reason whereof the plaintiff has been obliged to expend and has expended a great sum of money, to wit, the sum of ——— in extinguishing the said paramount and lawful right and title of the said E. F. to said premises."

[1] Ibid.; Delavergne *v.* Norris, 7 Johns. 358; Stanard *v.* Eldridge, 16 Johns. 254; Bean *v.* Mayo, 5 Greenl. 94; Wyman *v.* Ballard, 12 Mass. 304.

[2] Chapel *v.* Bull, 17 Mass. 213.

[3] Fraunces's case, 8 Co. 89; Anon. 1 Com. R. 228; Waldron *v.* McCarty, 3 Johns. 471; Kortz *v.* Carpenter, 5 Johns. 120; Webb *v.* Alexander, 7 Wend. 281; Coble *v.* Wellborn, 2 Dev. 388. And see Safford *v.* Annis, 7 Greenl. 168; 2 Sugd. Vend. 514 - 522, (10th ed.)

[4] Ellis *v.* Welch, 6 Mass. 246; Tisdale *v.* Essex, Hob. 34; Hurd *v.* Fletcher, 1 Doug. 43; Evans *v.* Vaughan, 4 B. & C. 261; Spencer *v.* Marriott, 1 B. & C. 457.

The declaration by a grantee against his grantor, for breach of the general *covenant for quiet enjoyment*, recites the conveyances as in the preceding form, as far as this mark,(*) and proceeds as follows: —

— "that the plaintiff, his heirs and assigns should and might, at all times forever thereafter, peaceably and quietly have, hold, possess and enjoy said premises, without let, suit, denial, hindrance, molestation, or interruption

a demand of possession, by one having title;[1] nor a recovery in ejectment;[2] or in trespass;[3] unless there has also been an actual ouster. If however, the covenantor himself enters tortiously, claiming title, it is a breach.[4]

§ 244. The covenant of *warranty* extends only to lawful claims and acts; and not to those which are tortious;[5] and it is restricted to evictions under titles existing at the date of the covenant.[6] A breach of this covenant is proved only by

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by any person lawfully claiming any right, title, or interest in the same. Now the plaintiff in fact says, that he has not been permitted so to possess and enjoy the said premises; but on the contrary he avers, that, after the making of said deed, to wit, on the ——— day of ———, one E. F., who, at the time of making said deed had, and ever since, until the molestation of the plaintiff hereinafter mentioned, continued to have lawful right and title to said premises, did enter into the same, and did thence eject, expel and remove the plaintiff, and hold him out of the possession of the same, contrary to the form and effect of the covenant aforesaid," &c.

[1] Cowan *v.* Silliman, 2 Dev. 46. Nor, a mere forbidding to pay rent. Witchcot *v.* Nine, 1 Brownl. 81. And see Hodgskin *v.* Queensborough, Willes, 129.

[2] Kerr *v.* Shaw, 13 Johns. 236.

[3] Webb *v.* Alexander, 7 Wend. 281. And see Cushman *v.* Blanchard, 2 Greenl. 266.

[4] Sedgwick *v.* Hollenback, 7 Johns. 376; 2 Sugd. Vend. 512, (10th ed.) But not if the entry was without claim of title. Seddon *v.* Senate, 13 East, 72; Penn *v.* Glover, Cro. El. 421.

[5] 4 Cruise's Dig. tit. 32, ch. 25, § 52; Vaugh. 122; 2 Sugd Vend. 510, 511, (10th ed.); Dudley *v.* Follett, 3 T. R. 587.

[6] Ellis *v.* Welch, 6 Mass. 246.

Where the *assignee of the grantee* sues *the grantor* for a breach of the covenant of warranty, by an eviction, the declaration will be in this form:— — "in a plea of covenant: for that the said defendant heretofore, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— by his deed, by him duly executed, acknowledged and recorded, which deed, not being in the possession, custody or control of the plaintiff, he is unable to produce in Court, for a valuable consideration therein mentioned, bargained, sold and conveyed to one J. S. a certain parcel of land [*describing it*] to hold the same with the appurtenances, to him the said J. S. and his heirs and assigns forever; and in and by said deed the said defendant, among other things, covenanted with the said J. S., and his heirs and assigns, to warrant and defend the same premises

evidence of an actual ouster or eviction; but it need not be with force; for if it appears that the covenantee has quietly yielded to a paramount title, whether derived from a stranger, or from the same grantor, either by giving up the possession, or by becoming the tenant of the rightful claimant, or has purchased the better title,[1] it is sufficient. So, a formal entry

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to the said J. S. and his heirs and assigns forever, against the lawful claims and demands of all persons. And the said J. S. afterwards, on the same day, lawfully entered into said premises, and by virtue of said deed became lawfully seised of the same; and being so seised, the said J. S. afterwards, to wit, on the ——— day of ——— by his deed, by him duly executed, acknowledged and recorded, and now here by the plaintiff produced in Court, for a valuable consideration therein mentioned, bargained, sold, and conveyed the same premises to the plaintiff, to hold the same, with the appurtenances to the plaintiff and his heirs and assigns forever; by force of which deed the plaintiff, afterwards, and the same day lawfully entered into the same premises and became lawfully seised thereof accordingly. But the plaintiff in fact says, that the said defendant has not warranted and defended the said premises to the plaintiff as by his said covenant he was bound to do, but on the contrary the plaintiff avers that one E. F., lawfully claiming the same premises by an elder and better title, afterwards, by the consideration of the Justices of the ——— Court, begun and holder [*here describe the term &c.*] recovered judgment against the plaintiff for his seisin and possession of said premises, and for his costs; and afterwards, to wit, on the ——— day of ———, under and by virtue of a writ of execution duly issued upon said judgment, the said E. F. lawfully entered into said premises, and thereof evicted the plaintiff, and still lawfully holds him out of the same."

The breach may be assigned more generally, as an ouster, in the following form: —

— "but on the contrary the plaintiff avers that one E. F., lawfully claiming the same premises by an elder and better title, afterwards, to wit, on the ——— day of ———, lawfully entered into the same premises, and ousted the plaintiff thereof, and still lawfully holds him out of the same."

[1] Emerson *v.* Propr's of Minot, 1 Mass. 464; Kelly *v.* Dutch Church of Schenectady, 2 Hill, N. Y. Rep. 105; Hamilton *v.* Cutts, 4 Mass. 349; Sprague *v.* Baker, 17 Mass. 586; Clarke *v.* McAnulty, 3 S. & R. 364; Mitchell *v.* Warner, 5 Conn. 497; Stewart *v.* Drake, 4 Halst. 139; Rickert *v.* Snyder, 9 Wend. 416; Tufts *v.* Adams, 8 Pick. 547; Bigelow *v.* Jones, 4 Mass. 512. See further, 4 Kent Comm. 471; 10 Ohio R. by Wilcox, p. 330 – 332, note. If the covenantee yields peaceably to to a dispossession, the burden of proof is on him, to show that the dispossession was by one having a better title. 4 Mass. 349.

by a mortgagee, for foreclosure, though made under a statute, which does not require that the possession of the mortgagee should be continued, is a breach.[1] A judgment in ejectment, recovered by a stranger, against the covenantee, and an entry under it, with proof that the covenantor had due notice of the pendency of the action, and was requested by the covenantee to defend it, is also sufficient evidence of a breach of this covenant.[2] So, if the grantor subsequently conveys to a stranger, who enters without notice of the prior deed, it is a breach.[3]

§ 245. A covenant by a lessee, against *assigning and under-letting*, is not broken by any involuntary transfer of the possession; as, if it be sold by a sheriff, on execution, or by assignees in bankruptcy, or by an executor;[4] unless the assignment is effected by fraud of the lessee, as, by confessing judgment, to the intent that the creditor may seize the premises in execution.[5] Ordinarily, therefore, the plaintiff must prove a transfer of the possession by some voluntary act of the defendant. Evidence of the mere fact, that a stranger is in possession of the land is not alone sufficient proof of a breach of this covenant;[6] but if the stranger claims to

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[1] White *v.* Whitney, 3 Met. 81. See also Burrage *v.* Smith, 16 Pick. 56; Norton *v.* Babcock, 2 Met. 510; Ingersoll *v.* Jackson, 9 Mass. 495.

[2] Hamilton *v.* Cutts, 4 Mass. 349; Prescott *v.* Trueman, Ib. 627. In such case, an actual ouster by writ of possession has been held immaterial. Williams *v.* Wetherbee, 1 Aiken, R. 233. The notice of the suit may be verbal. Collingwood *v.* Irwin, 3 Watts, 306; Miner *v.* Clark, 15 Wend. 425. After which, it seems, the covenantee is not bound to defend. Jackson *v.* Marsh, 5 Wend. 44.

[3] Curtis *v.* Deering, 3 Fairf. 499. The covenantee is not bound to buy in an outstanding paramount title or incumbrance, though it is offered to him on moderate terms. Miller *v.* Halsey, 2 Green, N. J. Rep. 48; Clark *v.* McAnulty, 3 S. & R. 364.

[4] Doe *v.* Carter, 8 T. R. 57; Doe *v.* Bevan, 3 M. & S. 353; Seers *v.* Hind, 1 Ves. 295.

[5] Doe *v.* Carter, 8 T. R. 57. And see, on this covenant, Platt on Cov. ch. 12, p. 404 – 443.

[6] Doe *v.* Payne, 1 Stark R. 86.

hold as under-tenant of the defendant, it has been held sufficient, *primâ facie*, to maintain the allegation on the part of the plaintiff.[1]

§ 246. The plea of *non est factum*, to a declaration on an indenture of lease, is an admission of the plaintiff's title to demise.[2] And generally, under this plea, the defendant may prove that the deed was fraudulent;[3] or, that it was delivered as an escrow;[4] or, may show any personal incapacity, such as lunacy,[5] or coverture;[6] and after production of a counterpart, executed by all the plaintiffs, he may produce the demising part, to prove that it was not executed by them all.[7]

§ 247. Where issue is joined on a plea of *performance*, the defendant assumes the burden of proof, and therefore is ordinarily entitled to open and close the case.[8]

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[1] Doe *v.* Rickarby, 5 Esp. 4.
[2] Friend *v.* Eastabrook, 2 W. Bl. 1152.
[3] Anon. Lofft, R. 457.
[4] Stoytes *v.* Pearson, 4 Esp. 255.
[5] Faulder *v.* Silk, 3 Campb. 126.
[6] Lambert *v.* Atkins, 2 Campb. 272.
[7] Wilson *v.* Woolfryes, 6 M. & S. 341.
[8] Scott *v.* Hull, 8 Conn. 296. And see Ante, Vol. 1, § 74.

CUSTOM.

§ 248. Custom is unwritten law, established by common consent and uniform practice, from time immemorial; and it is local, having respect to the inhabitants of a particular place or district. It differs from Prescription, in this, that prescription is a personal right, belonging to one or a few persons, by particular designation, as for example, the owners of a certain parcel of land. The term, Usage, in its broader sense, includes them both; but is ordinarily applied to trade; designating the habits, modes, and course of dealing, which are generally observed, either in any particular branch of trade, or in all mercantile transactions.

§ 249. We have already seen,[1] that, in general, when a local custom is once established by a judgment, the judgment is competent evidence of the existence of the custom, in all other cases, though the parties may be different. Hence, no person is a competent witness to prove a local custom, stated on the record, who would derive a benefit from its establishment.[2] But in regard to the proof of usages in any particular trade, persons employed in the particular trade are held competent witnesses, as standing indifferent; the usage in question generally affecting alike both their rights and their liabilities. These usages also, when once put in issue and found by a Jury, are afterwards recognized on production of the record; and after having been frequently proved, in the course of successive legal investigations, they are taken notice of by the Courts, without farther proof.[3] They are

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 405.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 5; Smith *v.* Wright, 1 Caines, 43; Consequa *v.* Willing, 1 Pet. C. C. R. 230; Thomas *v.* Graves, 1 Const. Rep. 150, [308.]

not, however, permitted to have effect, when they contravene any established general rule of the law; and therefore evidence, in proof of any such usage, is ordinarily inadmissible.[1] The general law-merchant, being part of the Common Law, is recognised by the Courts without proof.[2]

§ 250. In proof of a local *custom*, it must be shown to have existed from time immemorial; to have continued, without any interruption of the right, though the possession may have been suspended; to have been peaceably acquiesced in; and to be reasonable, certain, consistent with law and with other acknowledged customs, and compulsory on all.[3] The existence of a custom, in one place, is not admissible in proof of its existence in another; unless where the custom has respect to some general subject common to them both, to which it is merely an incident, such as, a general tenure, and the like.[4] But where the question is upon the manner of conducting a particular branch of trade at one place, evidence of the manner of conducting the same branch at another place is admissible; being deemed to fall within the exception to the rule, as it concerns a matter, in its nature common to both places.[5] So, evidence as to the profits of mines, or the right to dig turf in fenny lands, in one manor, has been admitted in proof of the same right claimed in another, the subject being the same.[6]

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[1] Edie *v.* The East India Co. 2 Burr. 1216, 1222; Homer *v.* Dorr, 10 Mass. 26, 29; Lewis *v.* Thacher, 15 Mass. 431; Higgins *v.* Livermore, 14 Mass. 106; Randall *v.* Rotch, 12 Pick. 107; Eager *v.* The Atlas Ins. Co. 14 Pick. 141; Perkins *v.* The Franklin Bank, 21 Pick. 483; Bryant *v.* Com'th Ins. Co. 6 Pick. 131; The Reeside, 2 Sumn. 568; Bolton *v.* Colder, 1 Watts, 360; Newbold *v.* Wright, 4 Rawle, 195; Stoever *v.* Whitman, 6 Binn. 417; Brown *v.* Jackson, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 24; Prescott *v.* Hubbell, 1 McCord, 94.

[2] 2 Burr. 1216, 1222.

[3] 1 Bl. Comm. 76 – 78; Freary *v.* Cook, 14 Mass. 488.

[4] Furneaux *v.* Hutchins, Cowp. 808; D. of Somerset *v.* France, 1 Stra. 654, 661, 662.

[5] Noble *v.* Kennoway, 2 Doug. 510.

[6] Dean &c. of Ely *v.* Warren, 2 Atk. 189, per Ld. Hardwicke.

§ 251. But in regard to the *usage of trade*, it is not necessary that it should have existed immemorially; it is sufficient if it be established, known, certain, uniform, reasonable, and not contrary to law.[1] These usages, many Judges are of opinion, should be sparingly adopted by the Courts, as rules of law, as they are often founded in mere mistake, or in the want of enlarged and comprehensive views of the full bearing of principles.[2] Their true office is, to interpret the otherwise indeterminate intentions of parties, and to ascertain the nature and extent of their contracts arising not from express stipulation, but from mere implications and presumptions, and acts of a doubtful and equivocal character; and to fix and explain the meaning of words and expressions of doubtful or various senses.[3] On this principle, the usage or habit of trade or conduct, of an individual, which is known to the person who deals with him, may be given in evidence to prove what was the contract between them.[4]

§ 252. Both customs and usages must be *proved by evidence of facts*, not of mere speculative opinions; and by witnesses who have had frequent and actual experience of the

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[1] 1 Bl. Comm. 75; Todd *v.* Reid, 4 B. & Ald. 210; Collings *v.* Hope, 3 Wash. 150; Rapp *v.* Palmer, 3 Watts, 178; Trott *v.* Wood, 1 Gall. 443; Stultz *v.* Dickey, 5 Binn. 287; Winthrop *v.* Union Ins. Co. 2 Wash. C. C. R. 7; United States *v.* M'Daniel, 7 Pet. 1; Lowry *v.* Russell, 8 Pick. 360; Parrott *v.* Thacher, 9 Pick. 426; Stevens *v.* Reeves, Ib. 198; Thomas *v.* Graves, 1 Const. Rep. 150, [308.]

[2] 2 Sumn. R. 377, per Story, J.

[3] The Reeside, 2 Sumn. R. 569; Macomber *v.* Parker, 13 Pick. 182; Shaw *v.* Mitchell, 2 Met. 65; Coit *v* Commercial Ins. Co. 7 Johns. 385; Harris *v.* Nicholas, 5 Munf. 483; Allegre *v.* Maryland Ins. Co. 2 G. & J. 136. See also Ante, Vol. 1, § 292; Powley *v.* Walker, 5 T. R. 373; Roe *v.* Charnock, Peake's Cas. 5; Rex *v.* Navestock, 6 Burr. 719, (Set. Cas.) Evidence of usage is also admissible to establish a right above and beyond the contract; even though the contract is by deed. Wigglesworth *v.* Dallison, 1 Doug. 201.

[4] Loring *v.* Gurney, 5 Pick. 15; Naylor *v.* Semmes, 4 G. & J. 274; Noble *v.* Kennoway, 2 Doug. 510.

custom or usage, and do not speak from report alone.[1] The witnesses must speak as to the course of the particular trade; they cannot be examined to show what is the law of that trade.[2] And though a usage is founded on the laws or edicts of the government of the country where it prevails, yet still it may be proved by parol.[3] It has also been held, that the testimony of one witness alone, is not sufficient to establish a usage of trade, of which all dealers in that line of trade are bound to take notice.[4]

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[1] Edie *v.* E. Ind. Co. 2 Burr. 1228, per Wilmot, J.; Savill *v.* Barchard, 4 Esp. 54, per Ld. Kenyon; Austin *v.* Taylor, 2 Ohio R. 282.

[2] Ruan *v.* Gardiner, 1 Wash. C. C. R. 145; Winthrop *v.* Union Ins. Co. 2 Wash. C. C. R. 7; Austin *v.* Taylor, 2 Ohio R. 282.

[3] Livingston *v.* The Maryland Ins. Co. 7 Cranch, 500, 539; Drake *v.* Hudson, 7 H. & J. 399.

[4] Wood *v.* Hickok, 2 Wend. 501; Parrott *v.* Thacher, 9 Pick. 426; Thomas *v.* Graves, 1 Const. Rep. 150, [308.]

DAMAGES.

§ 253. Damages are given as a compensation, recompense, or satisfaction to the plaintiff, for an injury, actually received by him, from the defendant. They should be precisely commensurate with the injury; neither more, nor less;[1] and this, whether it be to his person or estate. Damages are never given in real actions; but only in personal and mixed actions. In some of the American States, the Jury are authorized by statutes, to assess, in real actions, the damages which, by the Common Law, are given in an action of trespass for mesne profits; but this only converts the real into a mixed action.

§ 254. All damages must be *the result* of the injury complained of; whether it consist in the withholding of a legal right, or the breach of a duty legally due to the plaintiff. Those which *necessarily* result, are termed *general damages*, being shown under the *ad damnum*, or general allegation of damages, at the end of the declaration; for the defendant must be presumed to be aware of the necessary consequences of his conduct, and therefore cannot be taken by surprise in the proof of them. Some damages are always presumed to follow from the violation of any right or duty implied by law; and therefore the law will in such cases award nominal damages, if none greater are proved. But where the damages, though the *natural* consequences of the act complained of, are *not* the *necessary* result of it, they are termed *special damages;* which the law does not imply; and therefore, in order to prevent a surprise upon the defendant, they must

[1] Co. Lit. 257 a; 2 Bl. Comm. 438; Rockwood *v.* Allen, 7 Mass. 256, per Sedgwick, J.; Bussy *v.* Donaldson, 4 Dall. 207, per Shippen, C. J.; 3 Amer. Jur. 257.

be particularly specified in the declaration, or the plaintiff will not be permitted to give evidence of them at the trial.[1] But where the special damage is properly alleged, and is the natural consequence of the wrongful act, the Jury may infer it from the principal fact. Thus, where the injury consisted in firing guns so near the plaintiff's decoy-pond as to frighten away the wild fowls, or prevent them from coming there; or, in maliciously firing cannon at the natives, on the coast of Africa, whereby they were prevented from coming to trade with the plaintiff; these consequences were held to be well inferred from the wrongful act.[2]

§ 255 In trials at Common Law, the Jury are the proper judges of damages; and where there is no certain measure of damages, the Court, ordinarily, will not disturb their verdict, unless on grounds of prejudice, passion, or corruption in the Jury.[3] If they are unable to agree, and the plaintiff has evidently sustained some damages, the Court will permit him to take a verdict for a nominal sum.[4]

§ 256. The damage to be recovered must always be the *natural and proximate consequence* of the act complained of. This rule is laid down in regard to special damage; but it applies to all damage. Thus, where the defendant had libelled a performer at a place of public entertainment, in consequence of which she refused to sing, and the plaintiff alleged that by reason thereof the receipts of his house were diminished, this consequence was held too remote to furnish

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[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 328, 346, 347, (4th ed.); Baker *v.* Green, 4 Bing. 317; Pindar *v.* Wadsworth, 2 East, 154; Armstrong *v.* Percy, 5 Wend. 538, 539, per Marcy, J.; 2 Stark. on Slander, 55–58, [62–66,] by Wendell; Dickinson *v.* Boyle, 17 Pick. 78.

[2] Carrington *v.* Taylor, 11 East, 571; Keeble *v.* Hickeringill, Ib. 574, n.; 11 Mod. 74, 130; 3 Salk. 9; Holt, 14, 17, 19, S. C.; Tarleton *v.* McGawley, Peake's Cas. 205.

[3] Gilbert *v.* Birkinsham, Lofft, R. 771; Cowp. 230; Day *v.* Holloway, 1 Jur. 794.

[4] Feize *v.* Thompson, 1 Taunt. 121.

ground for a claim of damages.[1] So, where the defendant asserted that the plaintiff had cut his master's cordage, and the plaintiff alleged that his master, believing the assertion, had thereupon dismissed him from his service; it was held, that the discharge was not a ground of action, since it was not the natural consequence of the words spoken.[2]

§ 257. In cases of contract, if the parties themselves have *liquidated the damages*, the Jury are bound to find the amount thus agreed. But whether the sum, stipulated to be paid upon breach of the agreement, is to be taken as liquidated damages, or only as a penalty, will depend upon the intent of the parties, to be ascertained by a just interpretation of the contract. And here it is to be observed, that the policy of the law does not regard penalties or forfeitures with favor; and that Equity relieves against them. And therefore, because, by treating the sum as a mere penalty, the case is open to relief in Equity, according to the actual damages, the sum will generally be so considered; and the burden of proof will be on him who claims it as liquidated damages, to show that it was intended as such by the parties.[3] This

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[1] Ashley *v.* Harrison, 1 Esp. R. 48; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 64, 65. And see Armstrong *v.* Percy, 5 Wend. 538, 539, per Marcy, J.

[2] Vickars *v.* Wilcocks, 8 East, 1. See also 1 Smith's Leading Cases, p. 302–304, and cases there cited; 1 Stark. on Slander, p. 205.

[3] Tayloe *v.* Sandiford, 7 Wheat. 17, per Marshall, C. J. Mr. Evans seems to have been of the contrary opinion. 2 Poth. Obl. 71, 82, 86, by Evans. Wherever there is an agreement to do a certain thing, under a penalty, the obligee may either sue in debt for the penalty; in which case he cannot recover more than the penalty and interest, but may, upon a hearing in Equity, recover less; or, he may sue in covenant, upon the agreement, for the breach thereof, disregarding the penalty; in which case he may generally recover more, if he has suffered more. Harrison *v.* Wright, 13 East, 342; Bird *v.* Randall, 1 Doug. 373; Winter *v.* Trimmer, 1 Bl. Rep. 395; Astley *v.* Weldon, 2 B. & P. 346. If the sum is claimed as liquidated damages, it must be sued for in debt, or *indebitatus assumpsit*. Davies *v.* Penton, 6 B. & C. 221; Bank of Columbia *v.* Patterson, 7 Cranch, 303.

intent is to be ascertained from the whole tenor and subject of the agreement; the mere use of the *words* "penalty," "forfeiture," or "liquidated damages," not being regarded as at all decisive of the question, if the instrument discloses, upon the whole, a different intent.[1]

§ 258. The *cases*, in which the sum has been *treated as a penalty*, will be found to arrange themselves into five classes, furnishing certain *rules* by which the *intention* of the parties is *ascertained*. (1.) Where the parties, in the agreement, have *expressly declared* the sum to be intended as a forfeiture, or penalty, and no other intent is to be collected from the instrument.[2] (2.) Where it is *doubtful* whether it was intended as a penalty, or not; and a certain damage, or debt, less than the penalty, is made payable, on the face of the instrument.[3] (3.) Where the agreement was evidently made for the attainment of another object, to which the sum specified is *wholly collateral*. This rule has been applied, where the principal agreement was, not to trade on a certain coast;[4] to let the plaintiff have the use of a certain building;[5] or, of certain rooms;[6] and, not to sell brandy, within certain limits;[7] but the difference between these and some other cases, which have been regarded as liquidated damages, is not very clear. (4.) Where the agreement contains *several matters, of different degrees of importance*, and yet the sum named is payable for the breach of any, even the least.

[1] Davies *v.* Penton, 6 B. & C. 224, per Littledale, J.; Kemble *v.* Farren, 6 Bing. 141; 2 Story on Eq. § 1318.

[2] Astley *v.* Weldon, 2 B. & P. 346, 250; Smith *v.* Dickenson, Ib. 630; Tayloe *v.* Sandiford, 7 Wheat. 14; Wilbeam *v.* Ashton, 1 Campb. 78; Orr *v.* Churchill, 1 H. Bl. 227; Stearns *v.* Barrett, 1 Pick. 451; Dennis *v.* Cumming, 3 Johns. Cas. 297; Brown *v.* Bellows, 4 Pick. 179.

[3] Astley *v.* Weldon, 2 B. & P. 350, per Ld. Eldon. And see the observations of Best, C. J. in Crisdee *v.* Bolton, 3 C. & P. 240.

[4] Perkins *v.* Lyman, 11 Mass. 76.

[5] Merrill *v.* Merrill, 15 Mass. 488.

[6] Sloman *v.* Walter, 1 Bro. Ch. C. 418.

[7] Hardy *v.* Martin, 1 Bro. Ch. C. 419.

Thus, where the agreement was, to play at Covent Garden, and to conform to *all* the rules of the establishment, and to pay one thousand pounds for *any* breach of them, as liquidated damages, and not as a penalty, it was still held as a penalty only.[1] (5.) Where the contract is *not under seal*, and the *damages are capable of being certainly known* and estimated; and this, though the parties have expressly declared the sum to be as liquidated damages.[2]

§ 259. On the other hand, it will be inferred that the parties intended the sum as *liquidated damages*, (1.) Where the *damages* are uncertain, and are *not capable of being ascertained* by any satisfactory and known rule; whether the uncertainty lies in the nature of the subject itself, or in the particular circumstances of the case. This rule has been applied, where the agreement was, to pay a certain sum for each week's neglect to repair a building;[3] for each year's neglect to remove a lime-kiln;[4] for not marrying the plaintiff;[5] for running a stage on a certain road, in violation of contract;[6] for breach of a contract not to trade, or practice, within certain limits;[7] and for not resigning an office, agree-

[1] Kemble *v.* Farren, 6 Bing. 141; Boys *v.* Ancell, 5 Bing. N. C. 390; 7 Scott. 364; Charrington *v.* Laing, 6 Bing. 242. There are, however, some cases in which it has been said that, where the parties expressly declare, that the sum is to be taken as liquidated damages, it shall be so taken. See Hasbrouck *v.* Tappen, 15 Johns. 200; Slosson *v.* Beale, 7 Johns. 72; Reilly *v.* Jones, 1 Bing. 302. But this rule, it is conceived, ought to be applied only where the meaning is not otherwise discoverable; since it runs counter to the general policy of the law of Equity, and to the statutes which provide for relief against forfeitures and penalties, in the Courts of Common Law.

[2] Pinkerton *v.* Caslon, 2 B. & Ald. 704; Davies *v.* Penton, 6 B. & C. 216; Randall *v.* Everest, 1 M. & Malk. 41; Barton *v.* Glover, 1 Holt, Cas. 43; Spencer *v.* Tilden, 5 Cow. 144; Graham *v.* Bickham, 4 Dall. 150.

[3] Fletcher *v.* Dyche, 2 T. R. 32.

[4] Huband *v.* Grattan, 1 Alcock & Napier, R. 389.

[5] Lowe *v.* Peers, 2 Burr. 2225; Cock *v.* Richards, 10 Ves. 429.

[6] Leighton *v.* Wales, 3 M. & W. 545; Pierce *v.* Fuller, 8 Mass. 223.

[7] Noble *v.* Bates, 7 Cow. 307; Smith *v.* Smith, 4 Wend. 468; Crisdee

ably to a previous stipulation.[1] (2.) Where, from the nature of the case, and the tenor of the agreement, it is apparent, that the damages have already been the subject of actual and fair calculation and adjustment between the parties.[2] Of this sort are agreements to pay an additional rent for every acre of land, which the lessee should plough up;[3] not to permit a stone weir to be enlarged, "under the penalty of double the yearly rent, to be recovered by distress or otherwise;[4] to convey land, or, instead thereof, to pay a certain sum;[5] to pay a higher rent, if the lessee should cease to reside on the premises;[6] that a security should become void, if put in suit before the time limited in a letter of license granted to the debtor;[7] and, to pay a sum of money, in goods, at an agreed price.[8]

§ 260. In the proof of damages, the plaintiff is *not confined to the precise number, sum, or value*, laid in the declaration; nor is he bound to prove the breach of a contract to the full extent alleged. Thus, though he cannot recover greater damages than he has laid in the *ad damnum* at the conclusion of his declaration, yet the Jury may find damages for

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v. Bolton, 3 C P. 240. In this case, the sum was declared by the parties to be liquidated damages.

[1] Legh *v.* Lewis, cited 2 Poth. Obl. 85, by Evans.

[2] See the observations of Best, C. J. in Crisdee *v.* Bolton, 3 C. & P. 240; 2 Story on Eq. § 1318; Leland *v.* Stone, 10 Mass. 459, 462.

[3] Rolfe *v.* Peterson, 6 Bro. P. C. 436; Birch *v.* Stephenson, 3 Taunt. 473; Farrant *v.* Olmius, 3 B. & Ald. 692; Jones *v.* Green, 3 Y. & J. 298; Aylet *v.* Dodd, 2 Atk. 238; Woodward *v.* Giles, 2 Vern. 119.

[4] Gerrard *v.* O'Reilly, 2 Connor & Lawson, 165.

[5] Slosson *v.* Beale, 7 Johns. 72. And see Hasbrouck *v.* Tappen, 15 Johns. 200; Reilly *v.* Jones, 1 Bing. 302; Knapp *v.* Maltby, 13 Wend. 507; Tingley *v.* Cutler, 7 Conn. 291.

[6] Ponsonby *v.* Adams, 6 Bro. P. C. 418.

[7] White *v.* Dingley, 4 Mass. 433. And see Wafer *v.* Mocato, 9 Mod. 113.

[8] Brooks *v.* Hubbard, 3 Conn. 58. If the agreed price is unconscionable, the Court will not adopt it as the rule of damages. Cutler *v.* How, 8 Mass. 257; Cutler *v.* Johnson, Ib. 266; Baxter *v.* Wales, 12 Mass. 365.

the value of goods tortiously taken, beyond the value alleged in the body of the count.[1] So, under a count for a total loss of property insured, it is sufficient to prove an average or partial loss.[2] And in covenant, or *assumpsit*, proof of part of the breach alleged, is sufficient to entitle the plaintiff to recover.[3]

§ 261. The *measure of damages* will, ordinarily, be ascertained by reference to the rule already stated, namely, the natural and proximate consequences of the act complained of. Thus, the drawers and indorsers of *bills of exchange*, upon the dishonor thereof, are ordinarily liable to the holder for the principal sum and the common mercantile damages, such as interest, expenses, re-exchange, &c. consequent upon the dishonor of the bill. For, having engaged that the bill shall be paid at the proper time and place, the holder is entitled to expect the money there; and if it is not paid accordingly, he is entitled to re-draw on them for such a sum, as, at the market rate of exchange at the place, would put him in funds to the amount of the dishonored bill, and interest, with the necessary incidental expenses.[4] Upon a *contract to deliver goods*, the general rule of damages for non-delivery, is the market value of the goods at the time and place of the promised delivery, if no money has yet been paid by the vendee;[5] but if the vendee has already paid the price in advance, he may recover the highest price of such goods in the same

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[1] Hutchins *v.* Adams, 3 Greenl. 174; Pratt *v.* Thomas, 1 Ware, R. 147; The Jonge Bastiaan, 5 Rob. 322.

[2] Gardiner *v.* Croasdale, 2 Burr. 904; 1 W. Bl. 198, S. C.; Nicholson *v.* Croft, 2 Burr. 1188, per Ld. Mansfield.

[3] 1 Chitty on Pl. 297; Sayer, Law of Dam. p. 45; Van Rensselaer *v.* Platner, 2 Johns. 18.

[4] Story on Bills, § 399, 400; 3 Kent, Comm. 115, 116.

[5] Gainsford *v.* Carroll, 2 B. & C. 624; Boorman *v.* Nash, 9 B. & C. 145; Shaw *v.* Nudd, 8 Pick. 9; Swift *v.* Barnes, 16 Pick. 194, 196; Shepherd *v.* Hampton, 3 Wheat. 200, 204; Douglas *v.* McAlister, 3 Cranch, 298; Chitty on Contr. 352, n. (2), by Perkins; Dey *v.* Dox, 9 Wend. 129.

place, at any time between the stipulated day of delivery, and the time of trial.[1] If in the latter case, the market price is lower at the stipulated time of delivery, than at the date of the contract, the measure of damages is the money advanced, with interest.[2] So, upon a *contract to replace stock*, the measure of damages, is the price or value on the day when it ought to have been replaced, or, at the time of trial, at the option of the plaintiff. But if afterwards, and while the stock was rising, the defendant offered to replace it, the plaintiff cannot recover more than the price on the day of tender.[3] And in all cases of breach of contract, it is to be observed, that, if the party injured can protect himself from damage at a trifling expense, or by any reasonable exertions, he is bound so to do. He can charge the delinquent party only for such damages, as, by reasonable endeavors and expense, he could not prevent.[4]

§ 262. In *assumpsit* upon the *warranty of goods*, the measure of damages is the difference between the value of the goods at the time of sale, if the warranty were true, and the actual value in point of fact.[5] If goods are warranted as fit for the particular purpose which they are asked for, the purchaser is entitled to recover what they would have been worth to him, had they been so.[6] If they have been received

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[1] Clark *v.* Pinney, 7 Cow. 681; Chitty on Contr. 352, n. (2), by Perkins. But in Massachusetts, the damages are restricted to the value at the agreed time of delivery. Kennedy *v.* Whitwell, 4 Pick. 466; Sargent *v.* Franklin Ins. Co. 8 Pick. 90.

[2] Ibid.; Bush *v.* Canfield, 2 Conn. 485.

[3] Shepard *v.* Johnson, 2 East, 211; McArthur *v.* Ld. Seaforth, 2 Taunt. 257; Harrison *v.* Harrison, 1 C. & P. 412. But in Massachusetts, the rule is confined to the price at the agreed day of transfer, and is not extended to any subsequent period. Gray *v.* Portland Bank, 3 Mass. 390.

[4] Miller *v.* The Mariners Church, 7 Greenl. 57. So, in trespass. Loker *v.* Damon, 17 Pick. 284.

[5] Caswell *v.* Coare, 1 Taunt. 566; Fielder *v.* Starkin, 1 H. Bl. 17; Curtis *v.* Hannay, 3 Esp. 83; Buchanan *v.* Parnshaw, 2 T. R. 745; Egleston *v.* Macauly, 1 McCord, 379; Armstrong *v.* Percy, 5 Wend. 539.

[6] Bridge *v.* Wain, 1 Stark. R. 504.

back by the vendor, the plaintiff may recover the whole price he paid for them; otherwise, he may re-sell them, and recover the difference between the price he paid and the price received.[1] And if, not having discovered the unsoundness or defects of the goods, he sells them with similar warranty, and is sued thereon, he may recover the costs of that suit, as part of the damages he has sustained by breach of the warranty made to himself, if he gave seasonable notice of the suit, to the original vendor.[2]

§ 263. In *debt on bond*, interest, beyond the penalty, may be recovered as damages.[3] If the damages actually sustained are greater than the penalty and interest, the only remedy is by an action of covenant, which may be maintained where the condition discloses an agreement to perform any specific act; in which case, if it be other than the payment of money, the Jury may, ordinarily, award the damages actually sustained, without regard to the amount of the penalty.

§ 264. In an action of *covenant*, upon any of the *covenants of title*, in a deed of conveyance, except the covenant of warranty, the ordinary measure of damages is the consideration-money, or the proper proportion of it, with interest.[4] But for breach of the *covenant of warranty*, though, in some of the United States, the same rule prevails as in covenants of title; yet, in others, the course is to award damages to the value of the land at the time of eviction. In the former States, the Courts regard the modern covenant of warranty as a substitute for the old real covenant, upon which, in a writ of *warrantia chartæ*, or upon voucher, the value of the

[1] Caswell *v.* Coare, 1 Taunt. 566; Buchanan *v.* Parnshaw, 2 T. R. 745.

[2] Lewis *v.* Peake, 7 Taunt. 153; Armstrong *v.* Percy, 5 Wend. 535.

[3] Lonsdale *v.* Church, 2 T. R. 388; Wilde *v.* Clarkson, 6 T. R. 303; McClure *v.* Dunkin, 1 East, 436; Francis *v.* Wilson, Ry. & M. 105; Harris *v.* Clap, 1 Mass. 308; Pitts *v.* Tilden, 2 Mass. 118; Warner *v.* Thurlo, 15 Mass. 154.

[4] 4 Kent, Comm. 474, 475; Dimmick *v.* Lockwood, 10 Wend. 142.

other lands to be recovered was computed as it existed at the time when the warranty was made; and accordingly they retain the same measure of compensation for the breach of the modern covenant. But in the latter States, the Courts view the covenant as in the nature of a personal covenant of indemnification, in which, as in all other cases, the party is entitled to the full value of that which he has lost, to be computed as it existed at the time of the breach.[1]

§ 265. In general, as we have already seen, damages are estimated by the *actual injury* which the party has received. But to this rule there are some *exceptions*. Thus, if the plaintiff has concurrent remedies, such as trespass and trover, he may elect one, which, by legal rules, does not admit of the assessment of damages to the extent of the injury. Thus, if he elects to sue in trover, he can ordinarily recover no more than the value of the property, with interest; whereas, if he should bring trespass, he may recover not only the value

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[1] The consideration money and interest, is adopted as the measure of damages, in *New York;* Staats *v.* Ten Eyck, 3 Caines, R. 111; Pitcher *v.* Livingston, 4 Johns. 1; Bennett *v.* Jenkins, 13 Johns. 50; — and in *Pennsylvania;* Bender *v.* Fromberger, 4 Dall. 441; — and in *Virginia;* Stout *v.* Jackson, 2 Rand. 132; — and in *North Carolina;* Cox *v.* Strode, 2 Bibb, 272; Phillips *v.* Smith, 1 N. Car. Law Repos. 475; Wilson *v.* Forbes, 2 Dev. R. 30; — and in *South Carolina;* Henning *v.* Withers, 2 S. Car. Rep. 584; Ware *v.* Weathnall, 2 McCord, 413; — and in *Ohio;* Backus *v.* McCoy, 3 Ohio R. 211, 221; — and in *Kentucky;* Hanson *v.* Buckner, 4 Dana, 253; — and in *Missouri;* Tapley *v.* Lebeaume, 1 Mis. R. 552; Martin *v.* Long, 3 Mis. R. 391; — and in *Illinois;* Buckmaster *v.* Grundy, 1 Scam. 310. In *Indiana*, the question has been raised, without being decided. Blackwell *v.* Justices of Lawrence Co. 2 Blackf. 147.

The value of the land at the time of eviction, has been adopted as the measure of damages, in *Massachusetts;* Gore *v.* Brazier, 3 Mass. 523; Caswell *v.* Wendell, 4 Mass. 108; Bigelow *v.* Jones, Ib, 512; Chapel *v.* Bull, 17 Mass. 213; — and in *Maine;* Swett *v.*.Patrick, 3 Fairf. 1; — and in *Connecticut;* Sterling *v.* Peet, 14 Conn. 245; — and in *Vermont;* Drury *v.* Strong, D. Chipm. R. 110; Park *v.* Bates, 12 Verm. 381; — and in *Louisiana;* Bissell *v.* Erwin, 13 Louis. R. 143. See also 4 Kent, Comm. 474, 475.

of the goods, but the additional damages occasioned by the unlawful taking. And if he waives the tort, and brings *assumpsit* for money had and received, he can recover only what the goods were actually sold for by the defendant, though it were less than their real value.[1] So, if the plaintiff sue in debt, for the escape of a debtor in execution, he will recover the whole amount of the judgment and costs, if he recovers at all; though the debtor were insolvent; whereas, if he sue in trespass on the case, he will recover only his actual damages.[2]

§ 266. It is frequently said that, in actions *ex delicto*, evidence is admissible in *aggravation*, or, in *mitigation of damages*.[3] But this, it is conceived, means nothing more than that evidence is admissible of facts and circumstances, which go in aggravation or in mitigation of the *injury itself*. The circumstances, thus proved, ought to be those only which belong to the act complained of. The plaintiff is not justly entitled to receive compensation beyond the extent of his injury; nor ought the defendant to pay to the plaintiff more than the plaintiff is entitled to receive.[4] Thus, in trespass on

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[1] See 3 Amer. Jurist, p. 288; Lindon *v.* Hooper, Cowp. 419; Parker *v.* Norton, 6 T. R. 695; Lamine *v.* Dorrell, 2 Ld. Raym. 1216; Laugher *v.* Brefitt, 5 B. & Ald. 762; Bull. N. P. 32; Jacoby *v.* Laussatt, 6 S. & R. 300; Pierce *v.* Benjamin, 14 Pick. 356, 361; Barnes *v.* Bartlett, 15 Pick. 78; Otis *v.* Gibbs, MSS. cited 15 Pick. 207; Whitwell *v.* Kennedy, 4 Pick. 466; Johnson *v.* Sumner, 1 Met. 172; Rogers *v.* Crombie, 4 Greenl. 274.

[2] Bonafous *v.* Walker, 2 T. R. 126; Porter *v.* Sayward, 7 Mass. 377; 3 Am. Jur. 289.

[3] What is here said on the subject of evidence in aggravation or mitigation of damages, is chiefly drawn from a masterly discussion of this subject by Theron Metcalf, Esq. in 3 Amer. Jur. 287 – 313.

[4] "There would seem to be no reason, why a plaintiff should receive greater damages from a defendant who has intentionally injured him, than from one who has injured him accidentally, his loss being the same in both cases. It better accords, indeed, with our natural feelings, that the defendant should suffer more in the one case than in the other; but points of mere sensibility and mere casuistry are not allowed to operate in judicial

the case for an escape, the actual loss sustained by the plaintiff is the measure of damages, whether the escape were voluntary or negligent; and in cases of voluntary trespass, the innocent intentions of the party cannot avail to reduce the damages below the amount of the injury he has inflicted.

§ 267. *Injuries to the person*, or to the *reputation*, consist in the pain inflicted, whether bodily or mental, and in the expenses and loss of property which they occasion. The Jury, therefore, in the estimation of damages, are to consider not only the direct expenses incurred by the plaintiff, but the loss of his time, his bodily sufferings, and, if the injury was wilful, his mental agony also;[1] the injury to his reputation, the circumstances of indignity and contumely under which the wrong was done, and the consequent public disgrace to the plaintiff, together with any other circumstances belonging to the wrongful act, and tending to the plaintiff's discomfort. And, on the other hand, they are to consider any circumstances of recent and immediate misconduct on the part of the plaintiff, in respect to the same transaction, tending to diminish the degree of injury, which, on the whole, is fairly to be attributed to the defendant. Thus, if the plaintiff himself provoked the assault complained of by words or acts so recent as to constitute part of the *res gestæ*;[2] or, if the

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tribunals; and if they were so allowed, still it would be difficult to show, that a plaintiff ought to receive a compensation beyond his injury. It would be no less difficult, either on principles of law or ethics, to prove that a defendant ought to pay more than the plaintiff ought to receive. It is impracticable to make moral duties and legal obligations, or moral and legal liabilities, coextensive. The same principles will apply to the mitigation of damages. If the law awards damages for an injury, it would seem absurd (even without resorting to the definition of damages) to say that they shall be for a part only of the injury." 3 Amer. Jur. 292, 293.

[1] If the act were not wilfully done, it seems that the mere mental suffering resulting from it forms no part of the actionable injury. Flemington *v.* Smithers, 2 C. & P. 292.

[2] Lee *v.* Woolsey, 19 Johns. 329; Fraser *v.* Berkley, 2 M. & Rob. 3; Avery *v.* Ray, 1 Mass. 12.

injury were an arrest without warrant, and he were shown to be justly suspected of felony;[1] or, in an action for seduction, if it appear, that the crime was facililated by the improper conduct or connivance of the husband or father;[2] these circumstances may well be considered as reducing the real amount of the plaintiff's claim of damages.

§ 268. It seems, therefore, that, in the proof of damages, both parties must be confined to the *principal transaction* complained of, and to its *attendant circumstances* and natural *results;* for these alone are put in issue. These results include all the damage to the plaintiff, of which the injurious act of the defendant was the efficient cause, though, in point of time, such damage did not occur until some time after the act done. Thus, in trespass *quare clausum fregit*, where the defendant had broken and dug away the bank of a river in the plaintiff's close, the Jury were properly directed to assess the damages occurring three weeks afterwards, by a flood, which rushed in at the breach, and carried away the soil.[3] And it is further to be observed, that the proof of actual damages may extend to all facts which occur and grow out of the injury, even up to the day of the verdict; excepting those facts which not only happened since the commencement of the depending suit, but do of themselves furnish sufficient cause for a new action.[4]

§ 269. The *character* of the parties is immaterial; except in actions for slander, seduction,[5] or the like, where it is necessarily involved in the nature of the action. It is no matter how bad a man the defendant is, if the plaintiff's injury is not on that account the greater; nor how good he

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[1] Chinn *v.* Morris, Ry. & M. 24.

[2] See *ante*, tit. ADULTERY, § 51.

[3] Dickinson *v.* Boyle, 17 Pick. 78. See Ante, § 55, 56.

[4] Wilcox *v.* Plummer, 4 Pet. 172, 182; 3 Com. Dig. 343, tit. Damages, D. See Post, § 271.

[5] See *post*, § 274.

is, if that circumstance enhanced the wrong. Nor are damages to be assessed merely according to the defendant's *ability to pay;* for whether the payment of the amount due to the plaintiff, as compensation for the injury, will or will not be convenient to the defendant, does not at all affect the question as to the extent of the injury done, which is the only question to be determined. The Jury are to inquire, not, what the defendant can pay, but, what the plaintiff ought to receive.[1] But so far as the defendant's *rank and influence* in society, and therefore the extent of the injury, are increased by his wealth, evidence of the fact is pertinent to the issue.[2]

§ 270. Whether evidence of *intention* is admissible, to affect the amount of damages, will, in like manner, depend on its materiality to the issue. In actions of trespass *vi et armis*, the secret intention of the defendant is wholly immaterial. For, if the act was voluntarily done, that is, if it might have been avoided, the party is liable to pay some damages, even though he be an infant, under seven years of age, or a lunatic, and therefore legally incapable of any bad intention.[3] And where an authority or license is given by law, and the party exceeds or abuses it, though without intending so to do, yet he is trespasser *ab initio;* and damages are to be given for all that he has done, though some part of it, had he done nothing more, might have been lawful.[4] His

[1] See Lofft, R. 774, Ld. Mansfield's allusion to Berkeley *v.* Wilford. See also Stout *v.* Prall, Coxe, N. J. Rep. 80; Coryell *v.* Colbaugh, Ib. 77, 78; 6 Conn. R. 27; Ante, § 265.

[2] Bennett *v.* Hyde, 6 Conn. R. 24, 27; Shute *v.* Barrett, 7 Pick. 86, per Parker, C. J. See Ante, § 89.

[3] Weaver *v.* Ward, Hob. 134; Bessey *v.* Olliot, T. Raym. 467; Gilbert *v.* Stone, Aleyn, 35; Sty. 72, S. C.; Sikes *v.* Johnson, 16 Mass. 289; Bingham on Infancy, 110, 111; 3 Com. Dig. 627, tit. Enfant, D. 4; Macpherson on Infants, p. 481; Shelford on Lunatics, p. 407; Stock on Non Compotes Mentis, p. 76; 3 Am. Jur. 291, 297.

[4] Six Carpenters' case, 8 Co. 146; Bagshaw *v.* Gaward, Yelv. 96; Sackrider *v.* McDonald, 10 Johns. 253, 256; 3 Am. Jur. 297, 298; Kerbey *v.* Denby, 1 M. & W. 336.

secret intention, whether good or evil, cannot vary the amount of injury to the plaintiff. So it is, if one set his foot upon his neighbor's land, without his license or permission; or, if he injure him beyond, or even contrary to his intention, if it might have been avoided.[1] And where, to an action of trespass, a plea of *per infortunium* was pleaded in bar, it was held bad, on demurrer, the Court declaring that damages were recoverable "according to the hurt or loss."[2] In all such cases of voluntary act, the intent is immaterial, the only question being, whether the act was injurious, and to what extent.[3]

§ 271. In certain other actions, such as case, for a *malicious prosecution*,[4] or, for *false representations* of another person's credit in order to induce one to trust him,[5] or for *slander*, the *intention* of the defendant is of the gist of the action, and must therefore be shown to be malicious; not to affect the amount of damages, but to entitle the plaintiff to recover any damages whatever. Thus, in an action for a libel, either party may give evidence to prove or disprove the existence of a malicious intent, even though such evidence consist of other libellous writings; but if they contain matter

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[1] Russell *v.* Palmer, 2 Wils. 325; Varrill *v.* Heald, 2 Greenl. 92, per Mellen, C. J.; Brooks *v.* Hoyt, 6 Pick. 468; Bacon's Elements, p. 31; 2 East, 104, p. Ld. Kenyon.

[2] Weaver *v.* Ward, Hob. 134.

[3] Underwood *v.* Hewson, 1 Stra. 596; 1 Chitty on Plead. 120; Weaver *v.* Ward, Hob. 134; Taylor *v.* Rainbow, 2 Hen. & Munf. 423; Wakeman *v.* Robinson, 1 Bing. 213. The general rule is, that, under the general issue, any evidence is admissible, which tends to show that the accident resulted entirely from a superior agency; for then it was no trespass; but that any defence, which admits that the trespass complained of was the act of the defendant, must be specially pleaded. Hall *v.* Fearnley, 3 Ad. & El. 919, N. S.

[4] 1 Chitty on Pl. 404, 405, (7th ed.); Sutton *v.* Johnstone, 1 T. R. 493, 545; 3 Am. Jur. 295; Stone *v.* Crocker, 24 Pick. 81, 83; Grant *v.* Duel, 3 Rob. Louis. R. 17.

[5] Vernon *v* Keys, 12 East, 632, 636; Young *v.* Covell, 8 Johns. 23.

actionable in itself, the Jury must be cautioned not to increase the damages on account of them.[1]

§ 272. But where an evil *intent* has *manifested itself in acts* and circumstances, accompanying the principal transaction, they constitute part of the injury, and, if properly alleged, may be proved, like any other facts material to the issue. Thus, in trespass for taking goods, besides proof of their value, the inconvenience and injury occasioned to the plaintiff by taking them away, under the particular circumstances of the case, and the abusive language and conduct of the defendant at the time,[2] are admissible in evidence to the Jury, who may give damages accordingly. And evidence of improper language or conduct of the defendant is also admissible, under proper allegations, in an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, as constituting part of the injury.[3] And,

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[1] Pearson *v.* Lemaitre, 5 M. & G. 700; 7 Jur. 748.

[2] Churchill *v.* Watson, 5 Day, 140; Tilden *v.* Metcalf, 2 Day, 259; Johnson *v.* Courts, 3 Har. & McHen. 510.

[3] Bracegirdle *v.* Orford, 2 M. & S. 77; Cox *v.* Dugdale, 12 Price, 708, 718; Merest *v.* Harvey, 5 Taunt. 442. In this case, Gibbs, C. J. expressed himself in these terms. "I wish to know, in a case where a man disregards every principle, which actuates the conduct of gentlemen, what is to restrain him except large damages? To be sure, one can hardly conceive worse conduct than this. What would be said to a person in a low situation of life, who should behave himself in this manner? I do not know upon what principle we can grant a rule in this case, unless we were to lay it down that the Jury are not justified in giving more than the absolute pecuniary damage that the plaintiff may sustain. Suppose a gentleman has a paved walk in his paddock, before his window, and that a man intrudes and walks up and down before the window of his house, and looks in while the owner is at dinner, is the trespasser to be permitted to say, 'here is a halfpenny for you, which is the full extent of all the mischiefs I have done?' Would that be a compensation? I cannot say that it would be." 5 Taunt. 443. In trespass for entering the plaintiff's house, evidence may be given of keeping the plaintiff out, for that is a consequence of the wrongful entry. Sampson *v.* Coy, 15 Mass. 493. So, in trespass for destroying a mill-dam, damages may be recovered for the interruption of the use of the mill. White *v.* Moseley, 8 Pick. 356.

generally, whenever the wrongful act of the defendant was accompanied by aggravating circumstances of indignity and insult, whether in the time, place, or manner, though they may not form a separate ground of action, yet being properly alleged, they may be given in evidence, to show the whole extent and degree of the injury.[1] Hence, where to an action of trespass for false imprisonment, the defendant pleaded by way of justification, that the plaintiff had committed a felony, but abandoned the plea at the trial, and exonerated the plaintiff from the charge, it was held that the Jury might lawfully consider the putting of such a plea on the record as persisting in the charge, and estimate the damages accordingly.[2] And, on the other hand, the defendant may show any other circumstances of the transaction, in mitigation of the injury done by his trespass. Thus, where the defendant shot the plaintiff's dog, soon after he had been worrying the defendant's sheep, this fact, and the habits of the animal, were held admissible in evidence for the defendant, in the estimation of damages.[3] And in trespass *de bonis asportatis*, he may show that the goods did not belong to the plaintiff, and that they have gone to the use of the owner.[4]

§ 273. It may here also be remarked, that if the defendant, while he is an actual trespasser in the plaintiff's house or close, commit any *other acts or trespass* against the person of the plaintiff, his wife, children or servants, these acts and their consequences may be alleged and proved in an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, as matters in aggravation of the injury. It is on this ground that the plaintiff, in an action of trespass for breaking and entering his house, has been permitted to allege and recover full damages for the debauching

[1] Sears *v.* Lyons, 2 Stark. R. 282, [317]; 3 Am. Jur. 303, 312; 3 Wils. 19, per Bathurst, J.; Woert *v.* Jenkins, 14 Johns. 352.

[2] Warwick *v.* Foulkes, 12 M. & W. 507.

[3] Wells *v.* Head, 4 C. & P. 568.

[4] Squire *v.* Hollenbeck, 9 Pick. 551. And see Pierce *v.* Benjamin, 14 Pick. 361.

of his daughter and servant. It makes no difference that the plaintiff may have a separate action for these additional wrongs, provided it be an action of trespass, or of trespass on the case; and not a remedy in another form. If he sues in trespass, and alleges the debauching of his servant in aggravation, the breach and entry of the house, being the principal fact complained of, must be proved, or the action will not be maintained.[1] And so it is, in regard to any other consequential damages alleged in an action of trespass; for wherever the principal trespass, namely, the entry into the house or close, is justified, it is an answer to the whole declaration.[2]

§ 274. But, though the plaintiff may generally show all the circumstances of the trespass tending in aggravation of the injury, it does not therefore follow, that the *defendant may*, in all cases, show them in mitigation; for he may *preclude himself* by his mode of defence, as well as the plaintiff may, as we have already seen, by his election of remedy. Thus, it is a sound rule in pleading, that matter, which goes in complete justification of the charge, must be specially pleaded, in order that the plaintiff may be prepared to meet it; and cannot be given in evidence under the general issue, for this would be a surprise upon him.[3] If, there-

[1] Bennett *v.* Alcott, 2 T. R. 166; Ream *v.* Rank, 3 S. & R. 215; 2 Stark. Ev. 813; 3 Am. Jur. 298; Dean *v.* Peale, 5 East, 45; Woodward *v.* Walton, 2 New R. 476; 1 Smith's Leading Cases, [219], Amer. Ed., notes. See 43 Law Lib. 328, 330. Any other consequential damage to the plaintiff may be alleged and proved as matter of aggravation. 1 Chitty on Plead. 347, 348; Anderson *v.* Buckton, 1 Stra. 192; Heminway *v.* Saxton, 3 Mass. 222; Sampson *v.* Coy, 15 Mass. 493. But the proof must be restricted to damages resulting to the plaintiff alone, and not to another, nor to himself jointly with another. Edmonson *v.* Machell, 2 T. R. 4. See Ante, § 268.

[2] Taylor *v.* Cole, 3 T. R. 292; 1 H. Bl. 555; Bennett *v.* Alcott, 2 T. R. 166; Monprivatt *v.* Smith, 2 Campb. 175; Phillips *v.* Howgate, 5 B. & Ald. 220; Ropes *v.* Barker, 4 Pick. 239.

[3] Co. Lit. 282 *b*, 283 *a*; 1 Chitty on Plead. 415; Trials per Pais, p. 403, (6th ed.); 3 Amer. Jur. 301; Watson *v.* Christie, 2 B. & P. 224, and note (a.)

fore, the defendant pleads the general issue, this is notice to the plaintiff that he has nothing to offer in evidence, which amounts to a justification of the charge; and hence no evidence of matter which goes in justification will be received, even in mitigation of damages. Thus, in trespass for an assault and battery, where the defendant, under the general issue, offered to prove that the beating was inflicted by way of correcting the misconduct of the plaintiff, who was a seaman, on board a ship of which the defendant was master, the evidence was held inadmissible; and the Jury were instructed, that they could neither increase the damages beyond a compensation for the injury actually sustained, nor lessen them on account of the circumstances under which the beating was given.[1] And in trespass by an apprentice against his master, for an assault and battery, the defendant cannot, under this issue, give evidence of an admission by the plaintiff, that his master had beaten him for misconduct.[2] So, in an action of slander, the defendant cannot, under the general issue, give the truth of the words in evidence, even in mitigation of damages;[3] nor can he, for this purpose, show that the plaintiff has for a long time been hostile to him, and has proclaimed that he did not wish to live with him on terms of peace.[4]

§ 275. In actions of *slander*, it is well settled that the plaintiff's *general character* is involved in the issue; and that therefore evidence, showing it to be good or bad, and conse-

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[1] Watson *v.* Christie, 2 B. & P. 224; Bull. N. P. 16; 1 Salk. 11, per Holt, C. J.

[2] Pujolas *v.* Holland, 1 Longf. & Towns. 177.

[3] Underwood *v.* Parkes, 2 Stra. 1200; Mullett *v.* Hulton, 4 Esp. 248; 1 Chitty on Plead. 433; Shepard *v.* Merrill, 13 Johns. 475. Nor can the plaintiff prove the speaking of other slanderous words, in aggravation of the damages; though he may offer such evidence, in proof that the words charged were spoken maliciously. See 3 Am. Jur. 293, 294; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 48 – 51, [54 – 57], Wendell's ed.

[4] Andrews *v.* Bartholomew, 2 Met. 509.

quently of much or little value, may be offered on either side, to affect the amount of damages.[1] But whether the defendant will be permitted, under the general issue, to prove *general suspicions*, and *common reports* of the guilt of the plaintiff, in mitigation of damages, is not universally agreed.[2] It seems, however, that, where the evidence goes to prove, that the defendant did not act wantonly and under the influence of actual malice, or is offered solely to show the real character and degree of the malice, which the law implies from the falsity of the charge, all intention of proving the truth being expressly disclaimed, it may be admitted, and of course be considered by the Jury.[3] Evidence of any *misconduct of the plaintiff*, giving rise to the charge, such as, an *attempt* by him *to commit the crime*,[4] or, *opprobrious language* addressed by him to the defendant, either verbally or in writing, contemporaneously with the charge complained of, or tending to explain its meaning, may also be shown in mitigation of damages.[5] So, if, through the misconduct of the

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[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 77–86, [88–97], by Wendell; 3 Am. Jur. 294, 295; Wolcott *v.* Hall, 6 Mass. 514, 518. If the declaration states, that the plaintiff had never been suspected to be guilty of the crime imputed to him, the defendant, under the general issue, may show that he was so suspected, and that in consequence of such suspicions his relatives and acquaintance had ceased to visit him. Earl of Leicester *v.* Walter, 2 Campb. 251.

[2] In England, and in Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and South Carolina, such evidence is admissible. In Massachusetts, New York, and Virginia, it is not. See 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 84, note (1), by Wendell; Wolcott *v.* Hall, 6 Mass. 514; Alderman *v.* French, 1 Pick. 1; Bodwell *v.* Swan, 3 Pick. 376; Root *v.* King, 7 Cowen, 613; Matson *v.* Buck, 5 Cowen, 499; McAlexander *v.* Harris, 6 Munf. 465. See also Boies *v.* McAllister, 3 Fairf. 310.

[3] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 88, note (1), by Wendell; Root *v.* King, 7 Cowen, 613; Gilman *v.* Lowell, 8 Wend. 582; Mapes *v.* Weeks, 4 Wend. 659, 662.

[4] Anon. cited arg. 2 Campb. 254; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 83, note (1), by Wendell.

[5] Hotchkiss *v.* Lathrop, 1 Johns. 286; May *v.* Brown, 3 B. & C. 113; Wakley *v.* Johnson, Ry. & M. 422; Child *v.* Homer, 13 Pick. 503; Larned *v.* Buffinton, 3 Mass. 553; Watts *v.* Frazer, 7 Ad. & El. 223;

plaintiff, the defendant was led to believe that the charge was true, and to plead in justification accordingly, this may be shown to reduce the damages.[1] And if the charge was made under a *mistake*, upon discovering of which, the defendant forthwith retracted it in a public and proper manner, and by way of atonement, this also may be shown in evidence, for the same purpose.[2] So, the extreme youth, or partial insanity of the defendant, may be shown to convince the Jury, that the plaintiff has suffered but little injury.[3]

§ 276. In *trover*, the value of the property at the time of the conversion, if it has not been restored and accepted by the plaintiff, with interest on that amount, is ordinarily the measure of damages.[4] It has been held in England, that the Jury may, in their discretion, find the value at a subsequent time. Thus, in trover for East India Company's warrants for cotton, where the value at the time of the conversion was six pence the pound, but it afterwards rose to upwards of ten pence, the Jury were left at liberty to find the latter price as the value; for though the plaintiff might with money have replaced the goods at the former price, yet he might not have been in funds for that purpose.[5] But in the United States, upon

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Beardsley *v.* Maynard, 4 Wend. 336; 7 Wend. 560; Gould *v.* Weed, 12 Wend. 12.

[1] Larned *v.* Buffinton, 3 Mass. 546. But see Alderman *v.* French, 1 Pick. 1, 19. The fact of the defendant's taking depositions to prove the truth of the words, and afterwards declining to justify them, is inadmissible in evidence for the plaintiff, to enhance the damages. Bodwell *v.* Osgood, 3 Pick. 379.

[2] Larned *v.* Buffinton, 3 Mass. 546, as qualified in 1 Pick. 19; Mapes *v.* Weeks, 4 Wend. 663; Hotchkiss *v.* Oliphant, 2 Hill, N. Y. R. 515; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 95, note, by Wendell.

[3] Dickinson *v.* Barber, 9 Mass. 225, 228; 3 Am. Jur. 297. But the defendant will not be permitted to offer in mitigation of damages, any evidence impeaching his own character for veracity. Howe *v.* Perry, 15 Pick. 506.

[4] 3 Campb. 477, per Ld. Ellenborough; Pierce *v.* Benjamin, 14 Pick. 356, 361; Parks *v.* Boston, 15 Pick. 198, 206, 207; Stone *v.* Codman, Ibid. 297, 300; Greenfield Bank *v.* Leavitt, 17 Pick. 1.

[5] Greening *v.* Wilkinson, 1 C. & P. 625.

consideration of the rule, it has been held safer to adhere to the value at the time of the conversion, with interest. But if the defendant has enhanced the value of the goods by his labor, as, for example, if he has taken logs, and converted them into boards, the plaintiff is permitted to recover the enhanced value, namely, the value of the boards, and is not confined to the value of the material, either at the place of taking, or of manufacture.[1] Where the subject is a written security, the damages are usually assessed to the amount of the principal and interest due upon it.[2] If the plaintiff has himself recovered the property, the actual injury occasioned by the conversion, including the expenses of the recovery, will form the measure of damages;[3] and if the property, in whole or in part, has been applied to the payment of the plaintiff's debt, or otherwise to his use, this may be considered by the Jury as diminishing the injury and consequently the damages.[4]

§ 277. In all actions for a *joint tort*, against *several defendants*, the Jury are to assess damages against all the defendants jointly, according to the amount which, in their judgment, the most culpable of the defendants ought to pay.[5] And if several damages are assessed, the plaintiff may elect which sum he pleases, and enter judgment *de melioribus damnis*, against them all.[6] But if several trespasses are

[1] Greenfield Bank *v.* Leavitt, 17 Pick. 3; Baker *v.* Wheeler, 8 Wend. 505.

[2] Mercer *v.* Jones, 3 Campb. 477.

[3] Greenfield Bank *v.* Leavitt, 17 Pick. 3.

[4] Pierce *v.* Benjamin, 14 Pick. 356, 361.

[5] Brown *v.* Allen, 4 Esp. 158; Lowfield *v.* Bancroft, 2 Stra. 910; Bull. N. P. 15; Austen *v.* Willward, Cro. El. 860; Heydon's case, 11 Co. 5; Onslow *v.* Orchard, 1 Stra. 422; Smithson *v.* Garth, 3 Lev. 324; 3 Com. Dig. 348, tit. Damages, E. 6.

[6] Heydon's case, 11 Co. 5; Headley *v.* Mildmay, 1 Roll. R. 395, pl. 17; 7 Vin. Abr. 303, pl. 5, S. C.; Johns *v.* Dodsworth, Cro. Car. 192; Doune *v.* Estevin de Darby, 44, E. 3, 7; F. N. B. [107,] E.; Walsh *v.* Bishop, Cro. Car. 243; Rodney *v.* Strode, Carth. 19; 2 Tidd's Pr. 896, (9th ed.); Halsey *v.* Woodruff, 9 Pick. 455.

charged in the declaration, and the defendants plead severally, and are found severally guilty of *distinct trespasses*, the damages ought to be severed, and assessed, for each trespass, against him who committed it.[1]

§ 278. The averment of *alia enormia*, at the end of a declaration in trespass, seems to have been designed to enable the plaintiff to give evidence of circumstances, belonging to the transaction, which were not in themselves actionable, and which could not conveniently be put upon the record. And it has frequently been said, that, under this averment, things may be proved, which could not be put upon the record because of their indecency; and that, therefore, in trespass for breaking and entering the plaintiff's house, he might under this averment prove that the defendant, while there, debauched his daughter. When this doctrine was first advanced, it was generally understood that no action would lie for this latter injury, unless as an aggravation of the former; and hence the Judges may have been led to find a special reason for admitting this evidence. But since it is well settled, and has become the ordinary course, to sue specially for this injury to a daughter and servant, as well as for criminal conversation with a wife, and to allege the main facts upon the record, no reason is perceived for retaining this anomaly in practice. There is no injury, however indecent in its circumstances, but may be substantially stated with decency on the record; the law permitting and even requiring parties, as well as witnesses, to state in general terms and with indirectness, those things which cannot otherwise be expressed with decency; and to this extent, at least, every party is entitled, by the settled rules of pleading, as well as by the reason of the thing, to be informed of that which is

[1] Propr's of Kennebec Purchase *v.* Boulton, 4 Mass. 419. Where an injury was done by two dogs jointly, who belonged to several owners, it was held that each owner was liable only for the mischief done by his own dog. Buddington *v.* Shearer, 20 Pick. 477; Russell *v.* Tomlinson, 2 Conn. R. 206.

to be proved against him. The circumstances and necessary results of the defendant's wrongful act may be shown without this averment; and as to those consequences, which, though natural, did not necessarily follow, they must, as we have seen,[1] be specially alleged.[2]

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[1] See Ante, § 253.

[2] See the observations of Mr. Peake, Evid. p. 505, by Norris; Mr. Phillips, 2 Phil. Evid. 189, Cowen & Hill's ed.; and Mr. Starkie, 2 Stark. Ev. 815; 1 Chitty on Pl. 412, (7th ed.); Chitty's Precedents, p. 716, note (k); Bull. N. P. 89; Lowden *v.* Goodrick, Peake's Cas. 46; Pettit *v.* Addington, Ib. 62.

DEBT.

§ 279. The action of debt lies for a sum certain; whether it have been rendered certain by contract between the parties, or by judgment, or by statute, as, when this remedy is given for a penalty, or, for the escape of a judgment debtor.[1]

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[1] The *common consolidated count* in Debt, is as follows: — "For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— was indebted to the plaintiff in ——— dollars, for [*here state what the debt is for, as in Assumpsit, which see,*] which monies were to be paid to the plaintiff upon request; whereby, and by reason of the nonpayment thereof, an action hath accrued to the plaintiff to demand and have from the said (*defendant*) the sums aforesaid, amounting in all to the sum of ———. Yet the said (*defendant*) has never paid the same," &c.

On a *promissory note*, between the original parties, the declaration is as follows: — "For that the said (*defendant*) on ———, made his promissory note and delivered the same to the plaintiff, and thereby, for value received, promised the plaintiff to pay him the sum of ——— in ——— months, (*as the case may be*) and by reason of the nonpayment thereof an action hath accrued to the plaintiff to demand and have from the said (*defendant*) the sum aforesaid. Yet," &c.

In *debt on a judgment*, the count is thus: — "For that the plaintiff, at the ——— Court [*here describe the Court by its proper title*] begun and holden at ——— within and for the [*county or district*] of ——— on [*here state the day appointed by law for holding the term*] by the consideration of the Justices of said Court, recovered judgment against the said (*defendant*) for the sum of ——— debt or damage and the further sum of ——— for costs of suit, as by the record thereof in the same Court remaining appears; which said judgment remains in full force, unreversed, and unsatisfied; whereby an action has accrued to the plaintiff, to demand and have from the said (*defendant*) the sums aforesaid, amounting to the sum of ———. Yet the said (*defendant*) has not paid the same, (*nor any part thereof*)" &c.

The following is the usual count in *debt upon a bond:* — "For that the said (*defendant*) on ——— by his writing obligatory of that date, which the plaintiff here produces in Court, bound and acknowledged himself indebted to the plaintiff in the sum of ——— to be paid to the plaintiff on demand. Yet the said (*defendant*) has not paid the same," &c.

Where the contract is by a specialty, the execution of the deed is put in issue by the plea of *non est factum*, which, as it may also be made in an action of covenant, will hereafter be considered, under the title of Deed. The liability of an heir, on the bond of his ancestor, will be treated under the title of Heir.

§ 280. When this action is brought upon a *parol contract*, or for an *escape*, or for a *penalty* given by statute, the general issue is *nil debet;* under which, as it is a traverse of the plaintiff's right to recover, he must prove every material fact alleged in the declaration. And, on the other hand, as the defendant alleges that he does not owe, this plea enables him to give in evidence any matters, tending to deny the existence of any debt, such as, a release, satisfaction, arbitrament, non-delivery of goods, and the like. And, generally, when the action is upon a matter of fact, though the fact be proved by a specialty, or by a record, the plea of *nil debet* is good, and will open the whole declaration, as well as admit the defendant to make any defence, showing that he is not indebted. But if the specialty is itself the foundation of the action, though extrinsic facts be mixed with it, the rule is otherwise. Thus, in debt for rent, due by indenture, the action is founded on the fact of occupation of the premises, and pernancy of

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In *debt for rent*, founded upon the defendant's occupancy, and not upon the indenture, the count is as follows: — "For that the plaintiff, on ——— demised to the said (*defendant*) a certain messuage and premises with the appurtenances, situated in ——— to have and to hold the same to the said (*defendant*) for the term of ——— thence next ensuing, yielding and paying therefor, to the plaintiff, during the said term, the yearly rent of ——— to be paid [*here insert the times of payment,*] by equal portions; by virtue of which demise the said (*defendant*) entered into said demised premises, and was possessed thereof thenceforth and until the ——— day of ——— when a large sum of money, to wit, the sum of ——— of the rent aforesaid, accruing up to the day last aforesaid, was due and payable from said (*defendant*) to the plaintiff; whereby an action has accrued to the plaintiff to demand and have from the said (*defendant*) the said sum last mentioned. Yet the said (*defendant*) has never paid the same," &c.

the profits, by the defendant, the lease being alleged only by way of inducement; and, therefore, the plea of *nil debet* puts the plaintiff upon proof of the whole declaration; and under it, the defendant may give in evidence a release; payment; or, that possession was withheld by the lessor; or, that he was subsequently ousted or evicted by the lessor, or by a stranger having a better title. If the ouster or eviction was by the lessor, and was of only a part of the premises, it will bar the whole action, for, being a wrong-doer, no apportionment will be made in his favor; but if it were by a stranger, the rent will be apportioned. So, in debt for an escape, or upon a *devastavit*, the judgment is but inducement, the action being founded on the fact of the escape, or of the waste.[1]

§ 281. In debt for rent, founded upon a demise by deed, if the defendant pleads *nil habuit in tenementis*, the plaintiff may estop him by replying the deed; but if, instead of so doing, he takes issue upon the plea, the deed is no estoppel, and the Jury may find according to the truth, upon the whole matter. And if he pleads *nil debet*, he cannot, under this issue, give in evidence that the plaintiff had no interest in the demised premises; because, if he had pleaded it specially, the plaintiff might have replied the deed, by way of estoppel; of which right he shall not be deprived, but by his own laches.[2] Nor can the defendant, under this plea, give evidence of any disbursement for necessary repairs, where the

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[1] Steph. on Plead. 177; 1 Chitty on Plead. 423; Tyndal *v.* Hutchinson, 3 Lev. 170; Bullis *v.* Giddens, 8 Johns. 83; Minton *v.* Woodworth, 11 Johns. 474; Jansen *v.* Ostrander, 1 Cowen, 670; Stilson *v.* Tobey, 2 Mass. 521; 2 Saund. 187 *a*, note (2), by Williams. See, as to apportionment, Woodfall's Landlord & Tenant, p. 301, (5th ed.) by Wollaston; Vaughan *v.* Blanchard, 1 Yeates, 175; Gilb. Evid. 283, 284. In debt for a statute penalty, a former recovery by another person cannot be given in evidence under *nil debet*, but must be specially pleaded. Bull. N. P. 197; Bredon *v.* Harman, 1 Stra. 701.

[2] Bull. N. P. 170; Trevivan *v.* Lawrence, 1 Salk. 277.

plaintiff is bound to repair; for his remedy is by an action of covenant.[1] But if it be part of the covenant that the tenant may make repairs out of the rent, the evidence is admissible.[2]

§ 282. The *Statute of Limitations* cannot be given in evidence under the plea of *nil debet;* it must be specially pleaded. Nor can a *former recovery* by another person be given in evidence under this plea, when pleaded to an action of debt for a penalty given by statute; for if it could be so shown, the plaintiff might be deprived of the opportunity of pleading *nul tiel record*, or of proving that the recovery was by fraud.[3] But in debt upon a parol contract, under the plea of *nil debet*, the defendant may take advantage of the *Statute of Frauds;* for the plaintiff, under that issue, is bound to prove his case by such evidence as the statute requires.[4]

§ 283. In *debt for a penalty* given by statute, and in every other case, where a criminal omission of duty is charged, whether official or otherwise, we have already seen that the allegation, though negative in its character, must be proved by the plaintiff.[5] But if the action is founded on the doing of an act without being duly licensed or qualified, the burden of proving the license or qualification lies on the defendant, because it is a matter lying peculiarly within his own knowledge.[6]

§ 284. The plaintiff, in such action, besides proving the *corpus delicti* as alleged, must also show that the action has

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[1] Bull. N. P. 176, 177; Taylor *v.* Beal, Cro. El. 222.

[2] Clayton *v.* Kynaston, 1 Ld. Raym. 420, per Holt, C. J.

[3] Bull. N. P. 197; Bredon *v.* Harman, 1 Stra. 701.

[4] Fricker *v.* Thomlinson, 1 M. & G. 772. So, in assumpsit, the same defence is open under the general issue. Buttemere *v.* Hayes, 5 M. & W. 456; Eastwood *v.* Kenyon, 11 Ad. & El. 438.

[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 78, 80.

[6] Ante, Vol. 1, § 79.

been regularly commenced within the limited time, if the statute has made this essential to his right to recover; and in the right county, if any is designated by law.[1] If the time of the commencement of the action does not appear on the record, it may be shown by the writ, or *aliundè*, by any other competent evidence.[2] And if part of the penalty is given to the town or parish, where the offence was committed, or to the poor thereof, it must be proved that the offence was committed in that town or parish.[3]

§ 285. The *defendant*, in a penal action, may, under the general issue, avail himself of any statutory provision exempting him from the penalty, whether it be contained in the same statute on which the action is founded, or in any other.[4] He may also, under this issue, take advantage of any variance between the allegation and the proof on the part of the plaintiff; for, as we have already seen, the plaintiff is held to the same strictness of proof in a penal action, or in an action founded in tort, where a contract is set forth, as in an action upon the contract itself.[5]

§ 286. In an action of debt for *bribery* at an election, the material fact is, that the party was bribed to vote; and the plaintiff must therefore prove some bribe, promise, or agreement, according to the statute, previous to voting. But though several candidates are mentioned in the declaration, it will not be necessary to prove, that the party was bribed to

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[1] Bull. N. P. 194, 195. And see, as to the place where the offence was committed, Scott *v.* Brest, 2 T. R. 238; Butterfield *v.* Windle, 4 East, 385; Pope *v.* Davies, 2 Campb. 266; Scurry *v.* Freeman, 2 B. & P. 381; Pearson *v.* McGowran, 3 B. & C. 700.

[2] Johnson *v.* Smith, 2 Burr. 950; Granger *v.* George, 5 B. & C. 149.

[3] Evans *v.* Stevens, 4 T. R. 226; Frederick *v.* Lookup, 4 Burr. 2018.

[4] Rex *v.* St. George, 3 Campb. 222.

[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 58, 65; Parish *v.* Burwood, 5 Esp. 33; Everett *v.* Tindall, Ib. 169; Partridge *v.* Coates, 1 C. & P. 534; Ry. & M. 153, S. C.

vote for more than one; nor, that they all were candidates; nor will it be necessary to prove that the party bribed was a voter, the offer of a bribe by the defendant being conclusive evidence, against him, of that fact.[1] A *wager* with the voter, by a person who is not one, that he will not vote for a particular candidate, is an offer or agreement to bribe; and in any case is competent evidence for the plaintiff, the intent being for the consideration of the Jury.[2]

§ 287. The *defendant* in such action, may, under the general issue, show that the money was a mere loan; but though a note be given, the question whether it was a loan or a gift will still be for the Jury.[3] It is no defence that the party did not vote as he was requested; nor, that he never intended so to do;[4] nor, that the party corrupted had no right to vote, if he claimed such right, and the party offering the bribe thought he had such right.[5]

§ 288. In *debt for an escape*, the plaintiff must prove, (1.) the judgment, by a copy of the record; (2.) the issuing and delivery of the writ of execution to the officer; (3.) the arrest of the debtor; and (4.) the escape. The process may be proved by its production, or, if it has been returned, by a copy. If the defendant has made the return, this is conclusive evidence against him, both of the delivery of the precept to him, and of the facts stated in the return. If the process is not returned, after proof of notice to the defendant to pro-

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[1] Combe *v.* Pitt, 3 Burr. 1586; Rigg *v.* Curgenven, 2 Wils. 395.

[2] Allen *v.* Hearn, 1 T. R. 56, 60; Anon. Lofft, R. 552; United States *v.* Worrall, 2 Dall. 384. See also Commonwealth *v.* Chapman, 1 Virg. Cas. 138. Whether an agreement to vote for each other's candidates for different offices, amounts to bribery, *quære;* and see Commonwealth *v.* Callaghan, 2 Virg. Cas. 460.

[3] Sulston *v.* Norton, 1 W. Bl. 317, 318.

[4] Ib. 3 Burr. 1235, S. C.; Henslow *v.* Faucett, 3 Ad. & El. 51; Harding *v.* Stokes, 2 M. & W. 233.

[5] Lilly *v.* Corne, 1 Selw. N. P. 650, n.

duce it, secondary evidence of it is admissible.[1] The escape, if voluntary, may be proved by the party escaping; for though the whole amount of the debt may be recovered against the sheriff, yet this will be no defence for the debtor, in an action by the creditor against him.[2]

§ 289. Where *breaches* of covenant are *assigned on the record*, the plaintiff should be prepared to prove the breaches as assigned or suggested, and the amount of damages.[3] And if the condition of the bond declared on, is for the performance of the covenants in some other deed, he must prove the execution of that deed also, as well as the breaches alleged.[4] If the condition of the bond is not set out in the pleadings, but is only suggested on the record after a judgment on demurrer, the plaintiff, in proving his damages, must produce the bond, and prove its identity with the bond declared on; but of this fact, slight evidence, it seems, will ordinarily suffice.[5]

§ 290. The plea of *solvit ad diem*, to an action of debt on a bond, payable on a certain day, will be supported by evidence of payment *before* the day; for if the money were paid before the day, the obligee held it in trust for the obligor until the day, and then it became his own.[6] But if the bond was payable on or before a certain day, the payment before the day may be so pleaded and proved.[7] This plea may be supported by the lapse of twenty years, without any payment

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[1] Cook *v.* Round, 1 M. & Rob. 512.

[2] Bull. N. P. 67; Hunter *v.* King, 4 B. & Ald. 210, per Abbott, C. J.; Ante, Vol. 1, § 404.

[3] 2 Saund. 187 *a*, n. (2); 2 Phil. Evid. 169.

[4] 2 Phil. Evid. 169.

[5] Hodgkinson *v.* Marsden, 2 Campb. 121.

[6] Tryon *v.* Carter, 7 Mod. 231; 2 Stra. 994, S. C.; Dyke *v.* Sweeting, Willes, 585. If one only, of several joint and several obligors, is sued, he may give evidence of any payment made by his co-obligors. Mitchell *v.* Gibbes, 2 Bay, R. 475.

[7] 2 Saund. 48 *b*.

of interest on the bond within that period. But as the payment of any interest after the day will falsify this plea,[1] the plaintiff, where interest or part of the principal has been so paid, should plead *solvit post diem;* in which case the lapse of twenty years since the last payment, will, in the absence of opposing proof, warrant the Jury in finding for the defendant.[2] This presumption of payment, arising from the lapse of twenty years, is not conclusive; and, on the other hand, the Jury may infer the fact of payment from the lapse of a shorter period, with corroborating circumstances.[3]

§ 291. This *presumption*, arising from lapse of time, may be *repelled* by evidence of the defendant's recent admission of the debt or duty; such as, the payment of interest, and the like.[4] But an indorsement of part payment, made on the bond by the obligee, is not alone evidence of that fact; the indorsement must be proved to have been made at a time when the presumption of payment could not have arisen, and when, therefore, the indorsement was contrary to the interest of the obligee.[5] This presumption may also be repelled by evidence of other circumstances, such as, the plaintiff's absence abroad, and the like, explanatory of his neglect to demand his money.[6]

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[1] Moreland *v.* Bennett, 1 Stra. 652; Denham *v.* Crowell, Coxe, R. 467.

[2] 2 Saund. 48 *b*; Bull. N. P. 174; Moreland *v.* Bennett, 1 Stra. 652; 2 Steph. N. P. 1259. The plea of *solvit post diem* was bad at Common Law, but was permitted by Stat. 4 Ann. c. 16, § 12.

[3] Oswald *v.* Leigh, 1 T. R. 271; Colsell *v.* Budd, 1 Campb. 27. See also 4 Burr. 1963.

[4] 1 T. R. 271.

[5] See *ante*, Vol. 1, § 121, 122. See also Roseboom *v.* Billington, 17 Johns. 182; Rose *v.* Bryant, 2 Campb. 321. The creditor's indorsement alone, is now rendered insufficient by Stat. 9, Geo. 4, c. 14, and by the statutes of several of the United States. See Mass. Rev. St. ch. 120, § 17; Maine Rev. St. ch. 146, § 23.

[6] Newman *v.* Newman, 1 Stark. R. 101; Willaume *v.* Gorges, 1 Campb. 317. See Best on Presumptions, p. 187 – 189. The whole subject of Presumptive Evidence, has been treated with much ability and clearness, by

§ 292. Under the plea of *non est factum*, to an action of debt on bond, the defendant cannot give in evidence, as a defence, any thing arising under the condition of the bond;[1] nor can he show, under this issue, that the bond was not taken conformably to the requisitions of a statute.[2] And if the action is against one obligor alone, as jointly *and severally* bound, the plaintiff cannot, under this plea, give in evidence a *joint* bond of the defendant and the other person mentioned, though it agrees in date and amount with the bond described in the declaration.[3] So, if the declaration is against one as principal and the other as surety, and the evidence is a bond given by the two as sureties only, it is a *variance*, equally fatal.[4]

Mr. Best, in his *Treatise on Presumptions of Law and Fact.* The lapse of twenty years is now made a bar, by Stat. 3 & 4 W. 4, c. 42. See also Mass. Rev. St. ch. 120, § 7; Maine Rev. St. ch. 146, § 11.

[1] Rice *v.* Thompson, 2 Bailey, R. 339.

[2] Commissioners *v.* Hanion, 1 Nott & McC. 554.

[3] The Postmaster General *v.* Ridgway, Gilpin, R. 135.

[4] Bean *v.* Parker, 17 Mass. 605.

DEED.

§ 293. When a deed or specialty is the foundation of the action, whether it be an action of covenant or of debt, and the defendant would deny the genuineness or legal formality of execution of the instrument, this fact is put in issue by the plea of *non est factum.* Under this plea, the plaintiff need not prove the other averments in his declaration.[1]

§ 294. The *burden of proof* of the formal execution of a deed, whether it is put in issue by a special plea, or is properly controverted under any other issue, is upon the party claiming under it. This proof consists in producing the deed, removing any suspicions arising from alterations made in it, and showing that it was signed, sealed and delivered by the obligor; and where any particular formalities are required by statute, as essential to its validity, such as a stamp, or the like, the party must show that these have been complied with.

§ 295. The subject of the *production* of deeds, and of the nature and effect of *alterations* in them, has been treated in the preceding volume.[2] The cases in which the evidence of the subscribing witnesses is dispensed with, have also been considered.[3] In the proof of *signing* and *sealing*, it is not necessary that the witnesses should have seen this actually done; it is sufficient if the party showed it to them as his hand and seal, and requested them to subscribe the instru-

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[1] 1 Chitty, Pl. 424, 428; Kane *v.* Sanger, 14 Johns. 89; Gardiner *v.* Gardiner, 10 Johns. 47.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 559 – 563, 564 – 568.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 569 – 575.

ment as witnesses.[1] So, where the witness was requested to be present at the execution of the writings, and saw the money paid, and proved the handwriting of the obligor, but did not see him sign, seal, or deliver the instrument, this was held sufficient proof, to admit the instrument to go to the Jury.[2] If the attesting witness has no recollection of the facts, but recognises his own signature as genuine, and from this, and other circumstances, which he states to the Jury, has no doubt that he witnessed the execution of the instrument, this also, uncontradicted, has been held sufficient.[3] And if the witness recollects seeing the signature only, but the attestation-clause is in the usual form, the Jury will be advised, in the absence of controlling circumstances, also to find the sealing and delivery.[4] Indeed, if there is any evidence, however slight, tending to prove the formal execution of the instrument, it is held sufficient to entitle it to go to the Jury.[5] If the signature of the obligor's name is made

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[1] Munns *v.* Dupont, 3 Wash. 42; Ledgard *v.* Thompson, 11 M. & W. 41.

[2] Lesher *v.* Levan, 2 Dall. 96.

[3] Pigott *v.* Holloway, 1 Binn. 436. See also Dewey *v.* Dewey, 1 Metc. 349; Quimby *v.* Buzzell, 4 Shepl. 470; New Haven Co. Bank *v.* Mitchell, 15 Conn. R. 206; Ante, Vol. 1, § 572; Pearson *v.* Wightman, 1 Const. Rep. 344; Denn *v.* Mason, 1 Coxe, R. 10; Currie *v.* Donald, 2 Wash. 58; Russell *v.* Coffin, 8 Pick. 143.

[4] Burling *v.* Paterson, 9 C. & P. 570; Curtis *v.* Hall, 1 South. 148; Long *v.* Ramsey, 1 S. & R. 72.

[5] Berks Turnp. Co. *v.* Myers, 6 S. & R. 12; Sigfried *v.* Levan, Ib. 308; Scott *v.* Galloway, 11 S. & R. 347; Churchill *v.* Speight, 2 Hayw. 338. In *New Hampshire*, (Rev. St. ch. 130, § 3); *Connecticut*, (Rev. St. 1838, p. 390; Coit *v.* Starkweather, 8 Conn. R. 293); *Ohio*, (3 Ohio R. 89, Walk. Introd. 354); *Vermont*, (Rev. St. 1839, ch. 60, § 4); and *Georgia*, (Prince's Dig. p. 160, § 6), two witnesses are required, to the validity of a deed of conveyance of lands. In *Indiana*, (Rev. Stat. 1838, ch. 44, § 7); *New Jersey*, (Elmer's Dig. p. 83, § 12); *Illinois*, (Rev. Stat. 1833, p. 131, § 9); and in *Alabama*, (Aikin's Dig. p. 88), the deed must be either acknowledged before a magistrate, or be proved by one or more of the attesting witnesses, before it is admissible in evidence. But in the latter State, the statute is not considered as excluding the proof by evidence *aliundè*. Robertson *v.* Kennedy, 1 Stew. 245. Whether a deed,

by a stranger, in his presence and at his request, it is a sufficient signing.[1]

§ 296. In regard to *sealing*, where there are several obligors, or grantors, it is sufficient if there be several impressions, though there be but one piece of wax.[2] And in the sale of lands by a committee of a corporation, it is sufficient if the deed have but one seal, if it be signed by all the members of the committee.[3] If the deed bears on its face a declaration that it was signed and sealed, and there is a seal upon it, proof of the signature is evidence to be left to a Jury that the party sealed and delivered it, even though the witness does not recollect whether or not it had a seal, at the time of attestation.[4] And if the party, on being inquired of, acknowledge his signature without objection, this also is sufficient,[5] though it were signed without his authority.[6]

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invalid to pass the estate, for want of witnesses, can be read to support an action of covenant, on proof of its execution at Common Law, *quære;* and see French *v.* French, 3 N. Hamp. R. 234; Pritchard *v.* Brown, 4 N. Hamp. R. 397; Merwin *v.* Camp, 3 Conn. R. 35, 41.

[1] Rex *v.* Longnor, 1 Nev. & Man. 576.

[2] Perk. § 134. In Kentucky, obligatory writings without seal are placed on the footing of specialties; by Stat. 1812, ch. 375, § 8; Hughes *v.* Parks, 4 Bibb, R. 60; Handley *v.* Rankin, 4 Monr. 556.

[3] Decker *v.* Freeman, 3 Greenl. 338. So, if a bond be executed by a private agent of several obligors, one seal is sufficient. Martin *v.* Dortch, 1 Stew. 479.

[4] Talbot *v.* Hodson, 7 Taunt. 251; 2 Marsh. 527, S. C.; Ball *v.* Taylor, 1 C. & P. 417.

[5] Byers *v.* McClanahan, 6 Gill & J. 250.

[6] Hill *v.* Scales, 7 Yerg. 410. In several of the American States, south of New York, a scroll, made with a pen, denoting the place of a seal, is held a sufficient sealing. 4 Kent, Comm. 453; M'Dill *v.* M'Dill, 1 Dall. 63; Long *v.* Ramsey, 1 S. & R. 72; Tayler *v.* Glaser, 2 S. & R. 504. But in some States, it is necessary that the instrument should contain some expression, showing an intent to give it the effect of a sealed instrument. Baird *v.* Blaigrove, 1 Wash. 170; Austin *v.* Whitlock, 1 Munf. 487; Anderson *v.* Bullock, 4 Munf. 442; or, at least, that the obligor acknowledged it as his seal; U. States *v.* Coffin, Bee, R. 140. In New Jersey, the scroll is restricted to money bonds. Hopewell *v.* Amwell, 1 Halst.

§ 297. The *delivery* of a deed is complete, when the grantor or obligor has parted with his dominion over it, with intent that it shall pass to the grantee or obligee; provided the latter assents to it, either by himself or his agent. It follows, therefore, that no form of words is necessary, if the act is done; and that the delivery may be complete, without the presence of the other party, or any knowledge of the fact by him, at the time, if it be made to his previously constituted agent, or if, being made to a stranger, the transaction is subsequently ratified.[1] The receipt of the purchase-money, or bringing an action to recover it, is evidence of the delivery of the deed.[2] So, where the obligor, after signing and sealing a bond, held it out to the obligee, saying "here is your bond; what shall I do with it?" — this has been held a sufficient delivery, though it never came to the actual possession of the obligee.[3] If the effect of the instrument is beneficial to the party to whom it is made, as, for example, if it be an absolute conveyance of land in fee simple, or an assignment to pay a debt, his assent to it will be pre-

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169. See also Newbold *v.* Lamb, 2 South. 449. But it seems that such an instrument, in States where the Common Law rule prevails, would still be regarded only as a simple contract. Adam *v.* Kerr, 1 B & P. 360; Warren *v.* Lynch, 5 Johns. 239.

[1] Porter *v.* Cole, 4 Greenl. 25, 26, per Mellen C. J.; Ante, Vol. 1, § 568, note (8); Mills *v.* Gore, 20 Pick. 28, 36; Hatch *v.* Hatch, 9 Mass. 307; Maynard *v.* Maynard, 10 Mass. 456; Harrison *v.* Phillips Academy, 12 Mass. 456; Chapel *v.* Bull, 17 Mass. 213. 220; Woodman *v.* Coolbroth, 7 Greenl. 181; Goodrich *v.* Walker, 1 Johns. Cas. 256; Barns *v.* Hatch, 3 N. Hamp. R. 304; Ward *v.* Lewis, 4 Pick. 588; Goodright *v.* Gregory, Lofft, R. 339. Though the grantor die before the deed reaches the hands of the grantee, it is still a good delivery. Wheelwright *v.* Wheelwright, 2 Mass. 447. And it is not necessary that the delivery be made to an agent of the grantee or obligee. Doe *v.* Knight, 5 B. & C. 671. It may remain in the grantor's own custody, as bailee. Ibid. See further, Verplank *v.* Sterry, 12 Johns. 536; Ruggles *v.* Lawson, 13 Johns. 285; Gardiner *v.* Collins, 3 Mason, R. 398.

[2] Porter *v.* Cole, 4 Greenl. 20.

[3] Folly *v.* Vantuyl, 4 Halst. 153. See also Byers *v.* McClanahan, 6 G. & J. 250.

sumed.[1] And the possession of a deed by the grantee or obligee, is, in the absence of opposing circumstances, *primâ facie* evidence of delivery.[2]

§ 298. If the instrument is formally executed in a foreign country, and the execution is *authenticated by a notary public*, this is sufficient proof to entitle it to be read.[3] But if the authentication was before the *mayor of a foreign town*, it is not received, without some evidence of his holding that office.[4]

§ 299. Where the instrument is required by law to be *acknowledged* and *registered*, or to be examined and *approved* by a Judge or other public officer, as is the case of some official bonds, such acknowledgment, or other official act, duly authenticated, is in some Courts considered as *primâ facie* evidence of all the circumstances necessary to give validity to the instrument, and of course will entitle it to be read.[5] But the practice, in this particular, is not sufficiently uniform to justify the statement of it as a general rule.

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[1] Camp *v.* Camp, 5 Conn. R. 291; Jackson *v.* Bodle, 20 Johns. 184; Halsey *v.* Whitney, 4 Mason, R. 206.

[2] Mallory *v.* Aspinwall, 2 Day, R. 280; Clark *v.* Ray, 1 H. & J. 323; Ward *v.* Lewis, 4 Pick. 518; Union Bank *v.* Ridgely, 1 H. & Gill, 324; Hare *v.* Horton, 2 B. & Ad. 715; Maynard *v.* Maynard, 10 Mass. 456, 458.

[3] Ld. Kinnaird *v.* Lady Saltoun, 1 Madd. R. 227.

[4] Garvey *v.* Hibbert, 1 Jac. & W. 180.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 573: Craufurd *v.* The State, 6 H. & J. 234. In the following States, a deed duly acknowledged, seems admissible in evidence, without further proof; namely, *New York*, (See 1 Rev. Stat. p. 759, § 16); *New Jersey*, (Elmer's Dig. p. 83, § 12); *Pennsylvania*, (Purdon's Dig. 1837, p. 251, § 5); *Virginia*, (Rev. Code 1819, Vol. 1, p. 363, § 6); *North Carolina*, (Rev. Stat. 1837, Vol. 1, p. 226, § 6); *Georgia*, (Prince's Dig. 1837, p. 212, § 10); *Alabama*, (Aiken's Dig. 1833, p. 88, § 1); *Illinois*, (Rev. Stat. 1833, p. 135, 136, § 17); *Mississippi*, Alden & Van Hoesen's Dig. 1839, p. 297, § 1); and *Missouri*. (Rev. St. 1835, p. 123, § 35.)

§ 300. Under the issue of *non est factum*, the defendant may prove that the deed was delivered and still remains as an *escrow;*[1] or, he may take advantage of any material *variance* between the deed as set forth by the plaintiff, and the deed produced at the trial;[2] or may give any evidence showing that the deed either (1.) was originally void, or (2.) was made void by matter subsequent to its execution and before the time of pleading; for it is to the time of pleading that the averment relates. Thus, the defendant may show, under this issue, that the deed is a forgery; that it was obtained by fraud; or was executed while he was insane, or so intoxicated as not to know what he was about; or, that it was made by a feme covert; or, to her, but her husband disagreed to it; or, that it was delivered to a stranger for the use of the plaintiff, who refused it; or, that it was never delivered at all.[3] Or, he may show that since its execution, it has become void by being materially *altered*, or *cancelled* by tearing off the seal.[4] But matters which do not impeach the execution of the deed, but go to show it *voidable* by Common Law, or by statute, such as usury, infancy, duress, gaming, or, that it was given for ease and favor, or the like, must be specially pleaded.[5] And here it may be observed that, under a general plea of *non est*

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[1] Bull. N. P. 172; 1 Chitty Pl. 424; Stoytes *v.* Pearson, 4 Esp. 255; Union Bank of Maryland *v.* Ridgely, 1 H. & G. 324.

[2] 1 Chitty, Pl. 268, 269, 316; Ante, Vol. 1, § 69; Howell *v.* Richards, 11 East, 633; Swallow *v.* Beaumont, 1 Chitty R. 518; Horsefall *v.* Testar, 7 Taunt. 385; Morgan *v.* Edwards, 6 Taunt. 394; 2 Marsh. 96, S. C.; Bowditch *v.* Mawley, 1 Campb. 195; Birch *v.* Gibbs, 6 M. & S. 115.

[3] Bull. N. P. 172; 1 Chitty, Pl. 425; Whelpdale's case, 5 Co. 119; Pitt *v.* Smith, 3 Campb. 33; Dorr *v.* Munsell, 13 Johns. 430; Van Valkenburg *v.* Rouk, 12 Johns. 337; Roberts *v.* Jackson, 1 Wend. 478; Jackson *v.* Perkins, 2 Wend. 308; Wigglesworth *v.* Steers, 1 Hen. & Munf. 69; Curtis *v.* Hall, 1 South. 361.

[4] Leyfield's case, 10 Co. 92.

[5] 1 Chitty, Pl. 425; Harmer *v.* Wright, 2 Stark. R. 35; Colton *v.* Goodridge, 2 W. Bl. 1108; Bull. N. P. 172.

factum, the burden of proving the deed lies upon the plaintiff; but that under any special plea of matter in avoidance of the deed, the burden of proving the plea lies upon the defendant.[1]

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[1] Bushell *v.* Pasmore, 6 Mod. 218, per Holt, C. J.; 5 Com. Dig. Pleader, 2 W. 18.

DURESS.

§ 301. By *Duress*, in its more extended sense, is meant that degree of severity, either threatened and impending, or actually inflicted, which is sufficient to overcome the mind and will of a person of ordinary firmness.[1] The Common Law has divided it into two classes, namely, duress *per minas*, and duress of imprisonment. Duress *per minas* is restricted to fear of loss of life, or of mayhem, or loss of limb; or, in other words, of remediless harm to the person. If therefore duress *per minas* is pleaded in bar of an action upon a deed, the plea must state a threat of death or mayhem, or loss of limb; and a threat to this specific extent must be proved. A fear of mere battery, or of destruction of property, is not, technically, duress, and therefore is not pleadable in bar;[2] but facts of this kind, it is conceived, are admissible in evidence, to make out a defence of *fraud* and *extortion* in obtaining the instrument.[3]

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[1] Non suspicio vel cujuslibet vani vel meticulosi hominis, sed talis qui cadere possit in virum constantem; talis enim debet esse metus, qui in se contineat mortis periculum, et corporis cruciatum. Bracton, lib. 2, c. 5, par. 14.

[2] 1 Bl. Comm. 131. In Louisiana, any threats will invalidate a contract, if they are "such as would naturally operate on a person of ordinary firmness, and inspire a just fear of great injury to person, *reputation*, or *fortune*." Civil Code Louis. Art. 1845. And the age, sex, health, and disposition, and other circumstances of the party threatened, are taken into consideration. Ibid. The contract is equally invalidated by a false report of threats, if it were made under a belief of their truth; and by threats of injury to the wife, husband, descendant or ascendant of the party contracting. Ibid. Art. 1846, 1847. These rules apply to cases where there may be some other motive for making the contract, besides the threats. But if there is no other motive or cause, then any threats, even of slight injury, will invalidate it. Ibid. Art. 1853.

[3] See Evans *v.* Huey, 1 Bay, R. 13; Collins *v.* Westbury, 2 Bay, R.

§ 302. The plea of *Duress of imprisonment* is supported by any evidence, that the party was unlawfully restrained of his liberty, until he would execute the instrument. If the imprisonment was lawful, that is, if it were by virtue of legal process, the plea is not supported;[1] unless it appear that the arrest was upon process sued out maliciously and without probable cause; or, that, while the party was under lawful arrest, unlawful force, constraint, or severity was inflicted upon him, by reason of which the instrument was executed.[2] But in all cases, the duress must affect the party himself; for if there be two obligors, one of whom executed the bond by duress, the other cannot take advantage of this, to avoid the bond as to himself.[3]

211; Sasportas *v.* Jennings, 1 Bay, R. 470, 475. In this last case the rule is broadly laid down, that where assumpsit would lie to recover back the money, had it been paid under restraint of goods, a promise to pay it, made under the like circumstances, may be avoided by plea of duress.

[1] 1 Bl. Comm. 136, 137; Hob. 266, 267; 2 Inst. 482; Anon. 1 Lev. 68, 69; Wilcox *v.* Howland, 23 Pick. 167.

[2] Anon. Aleyn, 92; Watkins *v.* Baird, 6 Mass. 506.

[3] Huscombe *v.* Standing, Cro. Jac. 187; Thompson *v.* Lockwood, 15 Johns. 256.

EJECTMENT.

§ 303. This, which was originally a personal action of trespass, is now a mixed action, for the recovery of land and damages, and is become the principal, and in some States the only action, by which the title to real estate is tried and the land recovered. In several of the United States, the remedy for the recovery of land is by an action frequently called an ejectment, but in form more nearly resembling the writ of entry on disseisin, in the nature of an assise.[1] But in all the forms of remedy, as they are now used in practice, the essential principles are the same, at least so far as the law of evidence is concerned. The real plaintiff, in every form, recovers only on the strength of *his own title;*[2] and he must show that he has the *legal interest*, and a *possessory title*, not barred by the statute of limitations.[3]

§ 304. When the title of the real plaintiff in ejectment is controverted under the *general issue*, he must prove, (1.) that he had the *legal estate* in the premises, at the time of the demise laid in the declaration; (2.) that he also had the *right of entry;* and, (3.) that the defendant, or those claiming under him, were in *possession* of the premises at the time when the declaration in ejectment was served.[4]

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[1] Jackson on Real Actions, p. 2, 4.

[2] Roe *v.* Harvey, 4 Burr. 2484, 2487; Jackson on Real Actions, p. 5; Adams on Eject. p. 32, 285, by Tillinghast; 1 Chitty on Pl. 173; Williams *v.* Ingell, 21 Pick. 288; Martin *v.* Strachan, 5 T. R. 108, n.; Goodtitle *v.* Baldwin, 11 East, 488, 495; Lane *v.* Reynard, 2 S. & R. 65; Covert *v.* Irwin, 3 S. & R. 288.

[3] 1 Chitty on Pl. 172; Ibid. 209, [7th ed.]

[4] Adams on Eject. p. 247, by Tillinghast.

§ 305. If a *privity* in estate has subsisted between the parties, proof of title is ordinarily unnecessary; for a party is not permitted to dispute the original title of him by whom he has been let into the possession.[1] This rule is extended to the case of a tenant, acquiring the possession by wrong against the owner, and to one holding over after the expiration of his lease.[2] And when the relation of landlord and tenant is once established by express act of the parties, it attaches to all who may succeed to the possession through or under the tenant, whether immediately or remotely; the succeeding tenant being as much affected by the acts and admissions of his predecessor in regard to the title, as if they were his own.[3] Even an agreement to purchase the lands, if made deliberately, estops the purchaser from denying the title of the vendor.[4] But evidence of an agreement for a lease, if none was ever executed, is not alone sufficient to establish this relation, against a tenant already holding ad-

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[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 24, 25; Adams on Eject. p. 247, by Tillinghast; Wood *v.* Day, 7 Taunt. 646; 1 Moore, 389; Jackson *v.* Reynolds, 1 Caines, 444; Jackson *v.* Whitford, 2 Caines, 215; Jackson *v.* Vosburg, 7 Johns. 186; Williams *v.* Annapolis, 6 H. & J. 533; Jackson *v.* Stewart, 6 Johns. 34; Jackson *v.* De Walts, 7 Johns. 157; Jackson *v.* Hinman, 10 Johns. 292; Doe *v.* Edwards, 6 C. & P. 208. The lessee of a close in severalty, demised to him by one of several tenants in common, cannot set up an adverse title, in bar of an action by his lessor. Doe *v.* Mitchell, 1 B. & B. 11; Jackson *v.* Creal, 13 Johns. 116.

[2] Jackson *v.* Stiles, 1 Cowen, 575; Doe *v.* Baytup, 3 Ad. & El. 188; 4 N. & M. 837. So, though the landlord's title was acquired by wrong. Parry *v.* House, Holt's Cas. 489. Or, was only an equitable title. Doe *v.* Edwards, 6 C. & P. 208.

[3] Taylor *v.* Needham, 2 Taunt. 278; Doe *v.* Mills, 2 Ad. & El. 17; Doe *v.* Lewis, 5 Ad. & El. 577; Jackson *v.* Davis, 5 Cowen, 123; Jackson *v.* Harsen, 7 Cowen, 323; Jackson *v.* Scissam, 3 Johns. 499; Graham *v.* Moore, 4 S. & R. 467; Jackson *v.* Walker, 7 Cowen, 637; Cooper *v.* Blandy, 4 M. & Scott, 562; Doe *v.* Mizen, 2 M. & Rob. 56; Barwick *v.* Thompson, 7 T. R. 488. The purchaser at a sheriff's sale is privy to the debtor's title, and is therefore equally estopped, with him. Jackson *v.* Graham, 3 Caines, 188; Jackson *v.* Bush, 10 Johns. 223.

[4] Whiteside *v.* Jackson, 1 Wend. 418; Jackson *v.* Walker, 7 Cowen, 637; Jackson *v.* Norris, Ib. 717; Hamilton *v.* Taylor, Litt. Sel. Cas. 444.

versely.[1] Nor is the tenant precluded from showing that an agreement to purchase from the plaintiff, was made by him under a mistake, or that the title was in himself, or out of the lessor;[2] or, that a lease, which he has taken while in possession, was unfairly imposed upon him, by misrepresentation and *fraud.*[3] The same principle applies to any other act or acknowledgment, amounting to an admission of tenancy or title.[4] But the tenant may always show that his *landlord's title has expired;*[5] or, that he has sold his interest in the premises;[6] or, that it is alienated from him by judgment, and operation of law.[7]

§ 306. One of the ordinary methods of establishing a privity in estate, is by proof of the *payment of rent;* which is always *primâ facie* evidence of the title of the landlord, and is conclusive against the party paying, and all others claiming under and in privity with him.[8] And the payment of rent, after an occupancy of many years, is sufficient evidence, if unexplained, to show that the occupancy began by permission of the party to whom it was paid.[9]

§ 307. Where both parties *claim under the same third person*, it is sufficient to prove the derivation of title from

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[1] Jackson *v.* Cooley, 2 Johns. Cas. 223.

[2] Jackson *v.* Cuerden, 2 Johns. Cas. 353.

[3] Brown *v.* Dysinger, 1 Rawle, R. 408; Miller *v.* M'Brier, 14 S. & R. 382; Hamilton *v.* Marsden, 6 Binn. 45; Jackson *v.* Ayres, 14 Johns. 224; Jackson *v.* Norris, 7 Cowen, 717.

[4] Gregory *v.* Doidge, 3 Bing. 474; 11 Moore, 394, S. C.

[5] Neave *v.* Moss, 1 Bing. 360; 8 Moore, 389, S. C.; England *v.* Slade, 4 T. R. 682; Doe *v.* Whitroe, 1 Dowl. & R. 1; Brook *v.* Briggs, 2 Bing. N. C. 572.

[6] Doe *v.* Watson, 2 Stark. R. 230.

[7] Jackson *v.* Davis, 5 Cowen, 123, 135; Camp *v.* Camp, 5 Conn. 291.

[8] Doe *v.* Pegge, 1 T. R. 758, 759, n.; Doe *v.* Clarke, Peake, Add. Cas. 239; Hall *v.* Butler, 10 Ad. & El. 204; 2 P. & D. 374, S. C.; Jew *v.* Wood, 1 Craig & Phil. 185; 5 Jur. 954.

[9] Doe *v.* Wilkinson, 3 B. & C. 413.

him, without proving his title. So, if either has held under such third person, as his tenant, and is thereby estopped to deny his title.[1]

§ 308. The *identity* of the lands, and the *possession* of them by the defendant, may be proved by the payment of rent, or by the defendant's admission of his tenancy, or by any other competent evidence of the fact; it being merely a matter of fact, provable, like other facts, by parol evidence.[2]

§ 309. The party claiming as *lineal heir*, must prove that the ancestor, from whom he derives title, was the person last seised of the premises, as his inheritance, and that he is the heir of such ancestor.[3] This seisin may, in the first instance, be proved, by showing that the ancestor was either in actual possession of the premises, at the time of his death, and within the period of the Statute of Limitations, or, in the receipt of rent from the tertenant; possession being *primâ facie* evidence of a seisin in fee.[4] If he claims as *collateral heir*, he must show the descent of himself, and the person last seised, from some common ancestor, together with the extinction of all those lines of descent which would claim before him. This is done by proving the marriages, births and deaths necessary to complete his title, and the identity of the persons.[5]

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[1] Adams on Eject. p. 248, by Tillinghast. But, in the former case, a mere possessory title, which would be good against a stranger, and may have been gained by a tortious entry, is not always sufficient. Sparhawk *v.* Bullard, 1 Met. 95; Oakes *v.* Marcy, 10 Pick. 195.

[2] Adams on Eject. p. 248, by Tillinghast; Jackson *v.* Vosburg, 7 Johns. 186.

[3] Adams on Eject. p. 253, by Tillinghast; Jackson on Real Actions, p. 157; Co. Litt. 11 b; Jenkins *v.* Pritchard, 2 Wils. 45.

[4] Adams on Eject. p. 254, by Tillinghast; Bull. N. P. 102, 103.

[5] Ibid. 2 Bl. Comm. 208, 209; Roe *v.* Lord, 3 W. Bl. 1099. For the proof of pedigree, see Vol. 1, § 103–105, 134; and Post, tit. HEIR. See further, Richards *v.* Richards, 15 East, 294, n.

§ 310. Where the plaintiff claims as *devisee* of a freehold, he must prove the seisin and death of the devisor, and the due execution of the will; unless it is thirty years old, in which case it may be read without farther proof; and the age of the will is to be reckoned from the day of its date, and not from the death of the testator.[1]

§ 311. The *seisin* of the ancestor or devisor may be proved by his receipt of rent, or by his actual possession of the premises; either of which is *primâ facie* evidence of title in fee;[2] or, by proof of an *entry* into one of several parcels of the land, if they were all in the same county, and there was no adverse possession at the time, for this gives a seisin of them all.[3] If there was an adverse possession, and the owner's right of entry was not barred, his entry, in order to revest the seisin in himself, should have been an open and notorious entry into that particular parcel; and in every case, an entry, to revest an estate, must be made with that intention, sufficiently indicated either by the act, or by words accompanying it.[4]

§ 312. The *entry*, to gain a seisin, need not be made by the very *person entitled;* but may be made by another in his behalf, even if it be by a *stranger*, without any precedent command, or express subsequent agreement. By the Common Law, the entry of one joint-tenant, tenant in common, or coparcener, is deemed the entry of all; and the entry of a guardian, tenant for years, tenant by elegit, or younger brother or sister, inures to the benefit of the ward, lessor, or

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[1] Adams on Eject. p. 259; Ante, Vol. 1, § 570, n. (3); Doe *v.* Wolley, 3 B. & C. 22; McKenire *v.* Fraser, 9 Ves. 5; Jackson *v.* Laroway, 3 Johns. Cas. 283, 386; Jackson *v.* Christman, 4 Wend. 277, 282. For the proof of Wills, see Post, tit. WILL.

[2] Bull. N. P. 103; Jayne *v.* Price, 5 Taunt. 326; 1 Marsh. 68, S. C.; 2 Phil. Evid. 282.

[3] Co. Lit. 15 *a*, *b*, 252 *b*; 1 Cruise, Dig. by White, p. 50, § 21, 22.

[4] Co. Lit. 245 *b*; Robison *v.* Swett, 3 Greenl. 316; Ante, § 23.

other person entitled.[1] So, the possession of the mother, becomes the seisin of her posthumous son.[2] And it seems that the heir may acquire an actual seisin, without any entry by himself, by making a lease for years or at will, if his possession in law is unrebutted by the actual seisin of any other person.[3]

§ 313. There can be no mesne seisin of a *remainder* or *reversion* expectant on an estate of *freehold*, while such remainder or reversion continues in a regular course of descent; for if it be granted over, it vests immediately in the grantee, making him the new stock of descent for any subsequent claimant; the exertion of such ownership being equivalent to the actual seisin of an estate, which is capable of being reduced to possession by entry. He, therefore, who claims an estate in remainder or reversion by descent, must make himself heir, either to him in whom such estate first vested by purchase, or to the person to whom it was last granted by the owner.[4]

§ 314. Where the plaintiff claims as *legatee of a term of years*, he must show the probate of the will, and prove the assent of the executor to the legacy, without which he cannot take. But allowing the legatee to receive the rents, or applying them to his use, or any other slight evidence of assent on the part of the executor, such as, on the part of a tenant, would amount to an attornment, will be sufficient; and such assent, once given, is irrevocable.[5] He must also show that the testator had a chattel and not a freehold interest in the premises; because we have already seen that his possession, unexplained, will be

[1] Co. Lit. 15 *a*, 245 *b*, 258 *a*; 2 Cruise's Dig. by White, p. 377, § 63; Ibid. p. 402, § 14.

[2] 3 Cruise, Dig. by White, p. 345, § 64, 65, 66; Ibid. p. 348; Goodtitle *v.* Newman, 3 Wils. 516; 3 Cruise, Dig. by White, p. 391, § 28, 29, 30.

[3] Watkins on Descents, p, 67, 68, [49,] [50.]

[4] Watkins on Descents, p. 137, 138, 151, [110,] [118.]

[5] 1 Roper on Legacies, 250, 251.

presumed a seisin in fee. Of this fact, the lease itself will be the most satisfactory evidence; but it may be proved by any solemn admission of the other party, as, for example, by his answer as defendant, to a bill in Equity, in which he stated that "he believed that the lessor was possessed of the leasehold premises in the bill mentioned."[1]

§ 315. If the plaintiff claims a chattel real as *executor* or *administrator*, he must prove the grant of the letters of administration, or the probate of the will, in addition to the evidence of the testator's or intestate's title. And where no formal record of the grant of letters of administration or letters testamentary is drawn up, they may be proved by the book of Acts, or other brief official memorial of the fact.[2] If the plaintiff claims as *guardian*, he must in like manner prove, not only the title of the ward, and his minority at the time of the demise laid in the declaration, but also the due execution of the deed or will, appointing him guardian, if such was the source of his authority; or the due issue of letters of guardianship, if he was appointed by the tribunal having jurisdiction of that subject.[3]

§ 316. Where the plaintiff claims as *purchaser, under a sheriff's sale*, made by virtue of an execution *against the defendant in ejectment*, it is sufficient to show the execution, and the proceedings under it,[4] without producing a copy of

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[1] Doe *v.* Steel, 3 Campb. 115.

[2] Bull. N. P. 246; Elden *v.* Keddel, 8 East, 187; Ante, Vol. 1, § 519; Adams on Eject. p. 271, by Tillinghast. A Court of Common Law takes no notice of a will, as a title to personal property, until it has been proved in the Court having jurisdiction of the probate of wills. Stone *v.* Forsyth, 2 Doug. 707. An executor may lay a demise before probate of the will. Roe *v.* Summersett, 2 W. Bl. 694.

[3] Adams on Eject. by Tillinghast, p. 275.

[4] The sheriff's return is itself conclusive evidence between the parties and those in privity with them, of all the facts it recites, which relate to his own

the record of the judgment itself; for the debtor might have applied to have the execution set aside, if it had been issued without a valid judgment to support it; but not having done so, it will be presumed, in an action against him, that the judgment is right. But where the action of ejectment is against a *stranger*, no such presumption is made, and the plaintiff will be required to prove the judgment, as well as the execution.[1] In some of the United States, the freehold estate of a judgment debtor may be taken on execution, in the nature of an extent, and set off to the creditor, at an appraised value; in which case an actual seisin is vested in the creditor; by virtue of which he may maintain a real action, even against the debtor himself.[2]

§ 317. If a *joint demise* is laid in the declaration, evidence must be given of a joint interest in the lessors. But if *several demises* are laid, the declaration will be supported by proof of several demises, even by joint-tenants; for a several demise severs a joint-tenancy.[3] So, if four joint-tenants jointly demise, such of them as give notice to quit, may recover their several shares, in an ejectment on their several demises.[4] By the Common Law, tenants in common cannot recover upon a joint demise; but must sue separately, each for his share, in whatever form of real action the remedy is sought.[5] But in

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doings by virtue of the precept. Bott *v.* Burnell, 11 Mass. 163; Whitaker *v.* Sumner, 7 Pick. 551, 555; Lawrence *v.* Pond, 17 Mass. 433.

[1] Doe *v.* Murless, 6 M. & S. 110; Hoffman *v.* Pitt, 5 Esp. R. 22, 23; Cooper *v.* Galbraith, 3 Wash. 546. But this point was otherwise decided, and the judgment was required to be proved, in an ejectment against the debtor himself, in Doe *v.* Smith, 1 Holt's Cas. 589, n.; 2 Stark. R. 199, n.; Fenwick *v.* Floyd, 1 H. & Gill, 172.

[2] Gore *v.* Brazier, 3 Mass. 523; Blood *v.* Wood, 1 Met. 528, 534.

[3] Doe *v.* Read, 12 East, 57; Doe *v.* Fenn, 3 Campb. 190; Doe *v.* Lonsdale, 12 East, 39.

[4] Doe *v.* Chaplin, 3 Taunt. 120.

[5] Co Litt. 197; Hammond on Parties, p. 251; 1 Chitty on Pl. 14, (7th ed.); Innis *v.* Crawford, 4 Bibb, 241; Taylor *v.* Taylor, 3 A. K. Marsh. 18; White *v.* Pickering, 12 S. & R. 435.

some of the United States, this rule has been changed by statute, and in others it has been broken in upon, by a long course of practice in the Courts, permitting tenants in common and all others claiming as joint-tenants, or as coparceners, to join or sever in suits for the recovery of their lands.[1] If the declaration is for a certain quantity of land, or for a certain fractional part, and the plaintiff proves title to a part only of the land, or to a smaller fraction, the declaration is supported for the quantity or fraction proved, and he may accordingly recover.[2] But whether, if an entirety is demanded, the plaintiff may recover an undivided part, is not uniformly agreed; though the weight of authority is clearly in favor of his recovery.[3]

§ 318. If the action is by a joint-tenant, parcener, or tenant in common, *against his companion*, the consent-rule, if it is in the common form, will be sufficient evidence of an *ouster;* but if it is special, to confess lease and entry only, the ouster must be proved.[4] Possession alone, will not be sufficient proof of an ouster by one owner, against his companion; for where both have equal right to the possession, each will be presumed to hold under his lawful title, till the contrary appears. An ouster in such cases, therefore, must be proved by acts of an adverse character, such as, claiming the whole for himself; denying the title of his companion; or, refusing to permit him to enter; and the like. A bare

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[1] Maine Rev. St. ch. 145, § 12; Mass. Rev. St. ch. 101, § 10; Jackson *v.* Bradt, 2 Caines, 169; Jackson *v.* Sample, 1 Johns. Cas. 231; Jackson *v.* Sidney, 12 Johns. 185; Doe *v.* Potts, 1 Hawks, R. 469.

[2] Denn *v.* Purvis, 1 Burr. 326; Guy *v.* Rand, Cro. El. 12; Santee *v.* Keister, 6 Binn. 36.

[3] Doe *v.* Wippel, 1 Esp. R. 360; Roe *v.* Lonsdale, 12 East, 39; Dewey *v.* Brown, 2 Pick. 387; Somes *v.* Skinner, 3 Pick. 52; Holyoke *v.* Haskins, 9 Pick. 259; Gist *v.* Robinet, 2 Bibb, 2; Ward *v.* Harrison, Ibid. 304; Larue *v.* Slack, 4 Bibb, 358; *Contra*, Carroll *v.* Norwood, 1 H. & J. 463; Young *v.* Drew, 1 Taylor, R. 119.

[4] Doe *v.* Cuff, 1 Campb. 173; Oakes *v.* Brydon, 3 Burr. 1895; Doe *v.* Roe, 1 Anstr. 86.

perception of the whole profits does not, of itself, amount to an ouster; yet an undisturbed and quiet possession for a a long time, is a fact from which an ouster may be found by the Jury.[1]

§ 319. Where the action is brought by a *landlord against his tenant*, or is between persons in privity with them, the claimant must show that the *tenancy is determined;* otherwise, being once recognized, it will be presumed still to subsist. It may be determined, either by efflux of time; or, by notice; or, by forfeiture for breach of condition.[2]

§ 320. If the tenancy is determined by *lapse of time*, this may be shown by producing and proving the counterpart of the lease. And if it depended on the happening of a particular event, the event also must be proved to have happened.[3] If the demise was by parol, or the lease is lost, it may be proved by a person who was present at the demise; or, by evidence of the payment of rent; or, by admissions of the defendant, or other competent secondary evidence.[4]

§ 321. Where it is determined by *notice to quit*, or, by notice from the tenant that he will no longer occupy, the tenancy must be proved, with the tenor and service of the notice given, the authority of the person who served it, if served by an agent, and that the time mentioned in the notice was contemporaneous with the expiration of the tenancy, or with the period when the party was at liberty so to terminate it. And if a custom is relied on, as entitling the party so to do,

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[1] Doe *v.* Prosser, Cowp. 217; Fairclaim *v.* Shackleton, 5 Burr. 2604; Bracket *v.* Norcross, 1 Greenl. 89; Doe *v.* Bird, 11 East, 49.

[2] Adams on Eject. by Tillinghast, p. 276, 277.

[3] Ibid. p. 278.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 560, as to laying a foundation for the admission of secondary evidence of a written instrument, by notice to the adverse party to produce it.

this also must be shown.[1] If the tenant, on application of his landlord to know the time when the lease commenced, states it erroneously, and a notice to quit is served upon him according to such statement, the tenant is estopped to prove a different day.[2] He is also concluded by the time stated in the notice, if, at the time of service, he assents to its terms.[3] But if the tenant, being personally served with notice, made no objection to it at the time, this is *primâ facie* evidence to the Jury, that the term commenced at the time mentioned in the notice.[4] If, however, the notice was not personally served, or was not read by the tenant, nor explained to him, no such presumption arises from his silence.[5]

§ 322. The *service of the notice* may be proved by the person who delivered it; but if there was a subscribing witness, he also must be called, as in other cases of documentary evidence. The *contents* of the notice may be shown by a copy; or, if no copy was taken, it may be proved by a witness; and in either case, no previous notice to produce the original will be required.[6]

§ 323. The *form of notice* must be explicit and positive, truly giving to the party, in itself, all that is material for him

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[1] Adams on Eject. by Tillinghast, p. 120, 131, 278, 279. By the Common Law, a parol notice is sufficient. Doe *v.* Crick, 5 Esp. 196; Legg *v.* Benion, Willes, 43. If the party has disclaimed or denied the tenancy, no notice is necessary. Doe *v.* Grubb, 10 B. & C. 816; Doe *v.* Pasquali, Peake's Cas. 196; Bull. N. P. 96. And a new notice, or receipt of rent, or a distress for rent, subsequently accrued, is evidence of a waiver of a prior notice. Doe *v.* Palmer, 16 East, 53; Zouch *v.* Willingale, 1 H. B. 311; Doe *v.* Batten, Cowp. 243.

[2] Doe *v.* Lambly, 2 Esp. 635.

[3] Adams on Eject. p. 280.

[4] Doe *v.* Forster, 13 East, 405; Doe *v.* Woombwell, 2 Campb. 559; Thomas *v.* Thomas, 2 Campb. 647; Oakapple *v.* Copous, 4 T. R. 361.

[5] Doe *v.* Harris, 1 T. R. 161; Doe *v.* Calvert, 2 Campb. 387.

[6] Ante, Vol. 1, § 561, 569; Adams on Eject. by Tillinghast, p. 279; Jory *v.* Orchard, 2 B. & P. 39, 41; Doe *v.* Durnford, 2 M. & S. 62.

to know upon the subject. A misdescription of the premises, or a misstatement of dates, which cannot mislead, will not vitiate the notice;[1] nor need it be directed to the person.[2] Even if directed by a wrong name, yet if he keeps it without objection, the error is waived.[3] A notice as to part only of the demised premises, is bad;[4] but a notice by one of several joint-tenants, will enable him to recover his share.[5] The notice, however, must be such as the tenant may act upon at the time when it is given. Where, therefore, two only of three executors gave notice, "acting on the part and behalf of themselves and the said J. H.," the other executor, this was held insufficient, though it was afterwards recognized by the third; the lease requiring a notice in writing, under the hands of the respective parties; for at the time when it was served, the tenant could not know that it would be ratified and adopted by the other.[6] But where the notice was signed by an agent professing to act as the agent of all the lessors, it was held sufficient to enable the tenant to act upon with certainty, though in fact the letter of attorney was not signed by all the lessors until a subsequent day.[7]

§ 324. *Service of notice* at the dwelling-house of the party is sufficient, whether upon the party in person, or his wife, or servant.[8] And if there are two joint lessees, service on one of them is *primâ facie* evidence of a service on both.[9] If the lessee has assigned his interest to one, between whom and

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[1] Doe ex dem. Cox, 4 Esp. 185; Doe *v.* Kightley, 7 T. R. 63.

[2] Doe *v.* Wrightman, 4 Esp. 5.

[3] Doe *v.* Spiller, 6 Esp. 70.

[4] Doe *v.* Archer, 14 East, 245.

[5] Doe *v.* Chaplin, 3 Taunt. 120.

[6] Right *v.* Cuthell, 5 East, 491, 499, per Lawrence J.

[7] Goodtitle *v.* Woodward, 3 B. & Ald. 689.

[8] Widger *v.* Browning, 2 C & P. 523; Doe *v.* Dunbar, 1 M. & Malk. 10; Jones *v.* Marsh, 4 T. R. 464; Doe *v.* Lucas, 5 Esp. 153.

[9] Doe *v.* Crick, 5 Esp. 196; Doe *v.* Watkins, 7 East, 553.

the landlord there is no privity, the notice should be served on the original lessee.[1]

§ 325. *Notice to quit* is not necessary, where the relation of landlord and tenant is at an end, as, in the case of a tenant holding over by *sufferance;*[2] nor, where the person in possession is but a *servant* or *bailiff* to the owner;[3] nor, where he has either never admitted the relation of landlord and tenant, as, if he claims in fee, or adversely to the plaintiff;[4] or, has subsequently disclaimed and repudiated it, as, for example, by attorning to a stranger, or the like.[5] But such notice is deemed necessary only where the relation of landlord and tenant does exist, whether it be created by an express demise, or is incidentally admitted, either by the acceptance of rent, or by entering under an agreement to purchase, or the like.[6] And notice, if given, is *waived* on the part of the landlord, by a subsequent new notice to quit; or, by the receipt of rent before the bringing of an ejectment; or, by a distress for rent accruing subsequently to the expiration of the notice to quit; or, by an action for subsequent use and occupation; or, by any other act on the part of the lessor, after knowledge by him of the tenant's default, recognizing the tenancy as still subsisting.[7]

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[1] Roe *v.* Wiggs, 2 New R. 330; Pleasant *v.* Benson, 14 East, 234.

[2] Jackson *v.* Parkhurst, 5 Johns. 128; Thunder *v.* Belcher, 3 East, 449, 451; Jackson *v.* McLeod, 12 Johns. 182.

[3] Jackson *v.* Sample, 1 Johns. Cas. 231.

[4] Jackson *v.* Deyo, 3 Johns. 422; Jackson *v.* Cuerden, 2 Johns. Ch. 353; Doe *v.* Williams, Cowp. 622; Doe *v.* Creed, 5 Bing. 327.

[5] Bull. N. P. 96; Doe *v.* Frowd, 4 Bing. 557, 560; Jackson *v.* Wheeler, 6 Johns. 272; Doe *v.* Grubb, 10 B. & C. 816; Doe *v.* Whittick, Gow, 195.

[6] Jackson *v.* Wilsey, 9 Johns. 267; Jackson *v.* Rowan, Ibid. 330; Ferris *v.* Fuller, 4 Johns. 213; Jackson *v.* Deyo, 3 Johns. 422.

[7] Doe *v.* Palmer, 16 East, 53; Doe *v.* Inglis, 3 Taunt. 54; Arnsby *v.* Woodward, 6 B. & C. 519; Roe *v.* Harrison, 2 T. R. 425; Goodright *v.* Davids, Cowp. 803; Doe *v.* Batten, Cowp. 243; Doe *v.* Meaux, 1 C. & P. 346; 4 B. & C. 606, S. C.; Doe *v.* Johnson, 1 Stark. R. 411. By the Common Law, the receipt of the rent previously due, is a waiver of the forfeiture occasioned by its non-payment. 4 Saund. 287, note (16), by Williams.

§ 326. Where the ejectment is founded upon the *forfeiture* of a lease for *non-payment of rent*, and the case is not governed by any statute, but stands at Common Law, the plaintiff must prove that he demanded the rent, and that the precise sum due, and neither more nor less, was demanded; that the demand was precisely upon the day when the rent became due and payable; that it was made at a convenient time before sunset on that day; that it was made upon the land, and at the most notorious place upon it, and if there be a dwelling-house on it, then at the front or principal door, though it is not necessary to enter the house, even if the door be open; and that a demand was in fact made, although no person was there to pay it. But if any other place was appointed, where the rent was payable, the demand must be proved to have been made there. A demand made after or before the last day of payment, or not upon the land, or at the place, will not be sufficient to defeat the estate.[1]

§ 327. If the lease contained an express *limitation*, that upon non-payment, or other breach, the lease should become *absolutely void*, then no entry by the landlord need be made, but an ejectment lies immediately, upon the breach, with proof of demand of rent as before stated, if the breach was by non-payment. But where the terms of the lease are, that upon non-payment or other breach, it shall be lawful for the lessor to *re-enter*, there, by the Common Law, the plaintiff must show an entry, made in reasonable time, and because of such breach; unless the entry is confessed in the consent-rule, which is now held sufficient. And in this latter class of cases, if the lessor, after notice of the forfeiture, (which is an

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[1] See 1 Saund. 287, note (16), by Williams, and cases there cited. The strictness of the Common Law, in the particulars mentioned in the text, has been abated, and the subject otherwise regulated by statutes, both in England, and in several of the United States; but as these statutory provisions are various in the different States, rendering the subject purely a matter of local law, they are not here particularly stated.

issuable fact), accepts rent subsequently accruing, or distrains for the rent already due, or does any other act which amounts to a recognition of the relation of landlord and tenant as still subsisting, or to a dispensation of the forfeiture, the lease, which before was voidable, is thereby affirmed; and this will constitute a good defence to the action.[1] If the tenant, after demand of the rent, but before the expiration of the last day, tenders the sum due, this also will save the forfeiture.[2]

§ 328. If the breach consisted in assigning or *under-letting without the consent of the lessor*, it has been held sufficient for the plaintiff to show, that another person was found in possession, acting and appearing as tenant, this being *primâ facie* evidence of an under-letting, and sufficient to throw upon the defendant the burden of proving in what character such person held possession of the premises. And in such case, the declarations of the occupant are admissible against the defendant, to show the character of the occupancy.[3]

§ 329. Where the action is between a *mortgagee and the mortgagor*, the mortgagee's case is ordinarily made out by the production and proof of the mortgage deed, which the defendant is estopped to deny. If the action is against a tenant of the mortgagor, the determination of the tenancy must be proved; unless it commenced subsequent to the mortgage, and has not been acknowledged by the mortgagee; in which case no notice to quit need be shown.[4] And where the mort-

[1] 1 Saund. 287, note (16), by Williams, and cases there cited; Doe *v.* Banks, 4 B. & Ald. 401; Fawcett *v.* Hall, 1 Alcock & Napier, R. 248; Zouch *v.* Willingale, 1 H. Bl. 311. But the rent must have been received as between landlord and tenant, and not upon any other consideration. Right *v.* Bawden, 3 East, 260.

[2] Co. Litt. 202, a.

[3] Doe *v.* Rickarby, 5 Esp. 4, per Ld. Alvanley; Ante, Vol. 1, § 108, 109.

[4] Thunder *v.* Belcher, 3 East, 449; Keech *v.* Hall, 1 Doug. 21, Jackson *v.* Chase, 2 Johns. 84; Jackson *v.* Fuller, 4 Johns. 215; Birch *v.* Wright, 1 T. R. 378, 383. But if the mortgagee or the assignee of the mortgage has acknowledged the tenancy by the receipt of rent, a notice to

gage deed contains a proviso that the mortgagor may remain in possession until the condition is broken, it will be necessary for the plaintiff to prove a breach.[1] Whether, in general, a mortgagor is entitled to notice to quit, seems not to be perfectly clear by the authorities. In England, he is held not entitled to such notice ;[2] but in some of the United States it has been held otherwise.[3]

§ 330. *Payment* of the mortgage-debt, is a good defence to an action at law, brought by the mortgagee, against the mortgagor, to obtain possession of the mortgaged premises; but if the mortgagee is already in possession, the remedy of the mortgagor, where no other is provided by statute, is by bill in equity.[4] And where *usury* renders the security void, this also may be shown in defence, against an action brought by the mortgagee, upon the mortgage.[5]

§ 331. As the claimant in ejectment, or other real action, can recover only upon the strength of his own title, and not upon the weakness of that of the tenant, *the defence* will generally consist merely in rebutting the proofs adduced by the plaintiff. For possession is always *primâ facie* evidence of title ; and the party cannot be deprived of his possession by any person but the rightful owner, who has the *jus pos-*

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quit is necessary to be proved. Ibid. ; Clayton *v.* Blackey, 8 T. R. 3. See also Jackson *v.* Stackhouse, 1 Cowen, 122.

[1] Hall *v.* Doe, 5 B. & Ald. 687.

[2] Keech *v.* Hall, 1 Doug. 21 ; Thunder *v.* Belcher, 3 East, 449 ; Patridge *v.* Beere, 5 B. & Ald. 604.

[3] Jackson *v.* Laughhead, 2 Johns. 75 ; Jackson *v.* Green, 4 Johns. 186.

[4] Gray *v.* Jenks, 3 Mason, R. 520 ; Gray *v.* Wass, 1 Greenl. 260 ; Vose *v.* Handy, 2 Greenl. 322; Perkins *v.* Pitts, 11 Mass. 125 ; Erskine *v.* Townsend, 2 Mass. 493 ; Wade *v* Howard, 11 Pick. 289 ; Howard *v.* Howard, 3 Metc. 548, 557 ; Hitchcock *v.* Harrington, 6 Johns. 290, 294 ; Jackson *v.* Stackhouse, 1 Cowen, R. 122 ; Deering *v.* Sawtel, 4 Greenl. 191.

[5] Holton *v.* Button, 4 Conn. R. 436 ; Deering *v.* Sawtel, 4 Greenl. 191 ; Chandler *v.* Morton, 5 Greenl. 174 ; Richardson *v.* Field. 6 Greenl. 35.

sessionis.[1] The defendant, therefore, need not show any title in himself, until the plaintiff has shown some right to disturb his possession. Thus, if the plaintiff claims as heir, and proves his heirship, the defendant may show a devise by the ancestor to a stranger; or, that, by the local law, some other person, is entitled as heir; or, that the claimant is illegitimate, or the like. So, if he claims as devisee, the defendant may prove that the will was obtained by fraud, or may impeach its validity on any other grounds, not precluded by the previous probate of the will.[2] And he may also defeat the plaintiff's claim, by showing that the real title is in another, without claiming under it, or deducing it to himself, either by legal conveyance, or operation of law.[3] But he cannot set up a merely equitable title or lien, to defeat a legal title, under which the plaintiff claims.[4]

§ 332. As the *damages* given in an action of ejectment are now merely nominal, the title alone being the subject of controversy, the plaintiff is permitted to recover his real damages in an action of *trespass for mesne profits;* in which he complains of his having been ejected from the possession of the premises by the defendant, who held him out and took the rents and profits, during the period alleged in the declaration.[5]

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[1] Adams on Eject. p. 285, 286, by Tillinghast; Hall *v.* Gittings, 2 Har. & Johns. 122; Lane *v.* Reynard, 2 S. & R. 65; *Ante*, § 303, 304.

[2] Adams on Eject. p. 286, by Tillinghast.

[3] Ibid. p. 29, 30, 31. But if he entered under a contract to purchase from the plaintiff, he is estopped to deny the plaintiff's title. Norris *v.* Smith, 7 Cowen, R. 717.

[4] Adams on Eject. p. 32; Roe *v.* Read, 8 T. R. 118, 123; Jackson *v.* Sisson, 2 Johns. Cas. 321; Jackson *v.* Harrington, 9 Cowen, R. 88; Jackson *v.* Parkhurst, 4 Wend. 369; Sinclair *v.* Jackson, 8 Cowen, R. 543. But in Pennsylvania, it seems that an ejectment is regarded as an equitable remedy, and judgment is rendered at law, upon any principles which would require a decree in Chancery. Peebles *v.* Reading, 8 S. & R. 484. Delancy *v.* McKean, 1 Wash. C. C. R. 354; Thomas *v.* Wright, 9 S. & R. 87, 93.

[5] There is some diversity, in the different American States, as to the remedy

And as this remedy is one of the incidents and consequences of an ejectment, it is usually considered under that head. We have heretofore seen[1] that the law considers the lessor of the plaintiff, and the actual tenant, as the real parties, in an action of ejectment; and therefore the action for mesne profits may be brought by the lessor of the plaintiff, as well as by the nominal plaintiff himself. The evidence on the part of the plaintiff, consists of proof of his possessory title; the defendant's wrongful entry; the time of his occupation; the value of the mesne profits; and any other damages and expenses recoverable in this action.

§ 333. Where this action is between the parties to the prior action of ejectment, and the plaintiff proceeds only for profits accruing subsequent to the alleged date of the demise, the *record of the judgment* in that case will be conclusive evidence of the plaintiff's title, and of the defendant's *entry* and *possession*, from the day of the demise laid in the declaration.[2] If the plaintiff would claim for profits antecedent to that time, he must prove his title as in other cases, and the defendant will not be estopped to gainsay it.[3] So, if the suit is against a precedent occupant, the judgment in ejectment is no proof of the plaintiff's title.[4] And if the suit is against

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for mesne profits, which it is not within the plan of this treatise to consider. See Gill *v.* Cole, 1 Har. & J. 403; Lee *v.* Cooke, Gilmer, R. 331; Coleman *v.* Parish, 1 McCord, R. 264; Sumter *v.* Lehie, 1 Const. R. 102; Cox *v.* Callender, 9 Mass. 533. Where provision is made by statute, for an allowance to the tenant in a real action for the value of his lasting improvements, of which he avails himself at the trial, the value of the mesne profits is generally taken into the estimate, by special provisions for that purpose.

[1] *Ante*, Vol. 1, § 535.

[2] Adams on Eject. 334; Dodwell *v.* Gibbs, 2 C. & P. 615; Dewey *v.* Osborn, 4 Cowen, R. 329, 335; Van Alen *v.* Rogers, 1 Johns. Cas. 281; Benson *v* Matsdorf, 2 Johns. 369; Chirac *v.* Reinicker, 11 Wheat. 280; Lion *v.* Burtis, 5 Cowen, R. 408.

[3] Bull. N. P. 87; Aslin *v.* Parkin, 2 Burr. 668; Jackson *v.* Randall, 11 Johns. 405; West *v.* Hughes, 1 Har. & J. 574.

[4] Bull. N. P. 87.

the landlord of the premises, a judgment in ejectment against the casual ejector is not evidence of the plaintiff's title, unless the landlord had notice of the ejectment.[1]

334. The plaintiff must also prove his *possession* of the premises. If the judgment in ejectment was rendered after verdict, against the tenant in possession, the *consent-rule*, if it was entered into, will be sufficient proof of possession by the plaintiff. But if no consent-rule was entered into, the judgment being rendered against the casual ejector by default, the plaintiff's possession must be proved, either by the writ of possession and the sheriff's return thereon, or, by evidence that the plaintiff has been admitted to the possession by the defendant.[2] The entry of the plaintiff, it seems, will relate back to the time when his title accrued, so as to entitle him to recover the mesne profits from that time.[3]

§ 335. It will also be incumbent on the plaintiff to prove the duration of the *occupancy by the defendant*, or by his tenant, if he be the landlord; and in the latter case, if the judgment in ejectment was against the casual ejector, by default, it must be shown that the defendant was landlord when the ejectment was brought, which may be done by proof of his receipt of rent accruing subsequent to the time of the demise. The plaintiff must also prove that the landlord had due notice of the service of the declaration in ejectment upon the tenant in possession; but if he has subsequently promised to pay rent and the costs of the ejectment, this will suffice.[4]

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[1] Hunter *v.* Britts, 3 Campb. 455.

[2] Bull. N. P. 87. It would seem that a judgment in ejectment recovered by the plaintiff against the defendant, estops the latter from controverting the plaintiff's possession, as well as his title, of which possession is a part. See Adams on Eject. 336, note (q); Calvart *v.* Horsfall, 4 Esp. 167; Brown *v.* Galloway, 1 Peters, C. C. R. 291, 299; Jackson *v.* Combs, 7 Cowen, R. 36.

[3] Bull. N. P. 87, 88; Adams on Eject. 335.

[4] Hunter *v.* Britts, 3 Campb. 455; Adams on Eject. 337.

§ 336. The plaintiff in this action may recover the *costs* incurred by him in a Court of Error, in reversing a judgment in ejectment obtained by the defendant, as part of his damages, sustained by his having been wrongfully kept out of possession by the act of the defendant; and the Jury will be instructed to consider the costs between attorney and client as the measure of this item of damages.[1] He may also recover in this form the costs of the ejectment;[2] and also, under proper averments, the amount of any injury done to the premises, in consequence of the misconduct of the defendant or his servants, and any *extra damages* which the circumstances of the case may demand.[3]

§ 337. The defendant, in this action for mesne profits, if he has in good faith made *lasting improvements* on the land, may be allowed the value of them, against the rents and profits claimed by the plaintiff.[4] But he cannot set up any matter in defence, which would have been a bar to the action of ejectment.[5] Nor is bankruptcy a good plea in bar of this action;[6] unless the case is such that the damages were capable of precise computation, without the intervention of a Jury, and might have been proved under the commission.[7]

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[1] Nowell *v.* Roake, 7 B. & C. 404. And see Doe *v.* Huddart, 5 Tyrwh. 846; 2 C. M. & R. 316, S. C.; Denn *v.* Chubb, 1 Coxe, N. J. Rep. 466.

[2] Doe *v.* Davis, 1 Esp. R. 358; Baron *v.* Abeel, 3 Johns. 481; Symonds *v.* Page, 1 C. & J. 29; Doe *v.* Hare, 4 Tyrwh. 29. For the defendant was but nominal, in the ejectment. Anon. Lofft, R. 451.

[3] Goodtitle *v.* Tombs, 3 Wils. 118, 121; Adams on Eject. 337; Dewey *v.* Osborn, 4 Cowen, R. 329; Dunn *v.* Large, 3 Doug. 335. In *Maryland*, the action for mesne profits is only for the use and occupation, and is no bar to an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, for any other injuries done to the premises during the same period. Gill *v.* Cole, 1 Har. & J. 403.

[4] Jackson *v.* Loomis, 4 Cowen, R. 168; Hylton *v.* Brown, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 165; Cawdor *v.* Lewis, 1 Y. & C. 427.

[5] Baron *v.* Abeel, 3 Johns. 481; Jackson *v.* Randall, 11 Johns. 405; Benson *v.* Matsdorf, 2 Johns. 369.

[6] Goodtitle *v.* North, 2 Doug. 584.

[7] Utterson *v.* Vernon, 3 T. R. 539.

EXECUTORS AND ADMINISTRATORS.

§ 338. The evidence, under this title, relates to the official character of the parties, and to the cases and manner in which it must be proved. Where the executor or administrator is plaintiff, and sues upon a contract made with the testator, or for any other cause of action accruing in his lifetime, he makes *profert* of the letters testamentary, or of the letters of administration ;[1] for he must declare in that character, in order to entitle himself upon the record, to recover judgment for such a cause ; and if the defendant would controvert the representative character of the plaintiff, in such case, by reason of any extrinsic matter, not appearing on the face of the letters, such as the want of *bona notabilia*, or the like, he must put it in issue by a plea in abatement, or, as it seems, by a plea in bar ;[2] and cannot contest it under the general issue, this being a conclusive admission of the plaintiff's title to the character in which he sues.[3] But in regard to causes of action accruing subsequent to the decease of the testator or intestate, such as in trover, for a subsequent conversion of his goods, or in assumpsit, for his money subsequently received by the defend-

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[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 420. The practice in the United States, in this respect, is not uniform; the profert, in some of the States, being omitted. Langdon *v.* Potter, 11 Mass. 313 ; Champlin *v.* Tilley, 3 Day, 305 ; Amer. Prec. Decl. p. 91. The rule, requiring profert of letters testamentary, is itself an exception from the general rule, that profert is required of deeds only. Gould on Pleading, p. 442, § 43.

[2] Langdon *v.* Potter, 11 Mass. 313, 316; 1 Chitty on Plead. 489, [358] ; 1 Saund. 274, note (3), by Williams.

[3] Loyd *v.* Finlayson, 2 Esp. R 564 ; Marshfield *v.* Marsh, 2 Ld. Raym. 824 ; Gidley *v.* Williams, 1 Salk. 37, 38 ; 5 Com. Dig. tit. Pleader, 2 D. 10, 14 ; Watson *v.* King, 4 Campb. 272 ; Stokes *v.* Bate, 5 B. & C. 491 ; Yeomans *v.* Bradshaw, Carth. 373 ; Hilliard *v.* Cox, 1 Salk. 37.

ant, and the like, though it is always proper for the plaintiff to sue in his representative character, wherever the money, when recovered, will be assets in his hands, yet it is not always necessary that he should do so. For where the action is upon a personal contract made with himself, respecting the property of the deceased, or is for a violation of his actual possession of the assets, he may sue either in his private or in his representative capacity.[1] But in other cases, where the cause of action accrued in his own time, he must sue in his representative capacity, and must prove this character, under the general issue, which raises the question of title.[2]

§ 339. The *proof* of the plaintiff's *representative character*, is made by producing the probate of the will, or the letters of administration, which, *primâ facie*, are sufficient evidence for the plaintiff, both of the death of the testator or intestate, and of his own right to sue. Where an oath of office and the giving of bonds, are made essential, by statute, to his right to act, these also must be proved. The *probate* itself is the only legitimate ground of the executor's right to sue for the personalty; and is conclusive evidence, both of his appointment, and of the contents of the will; and if granted at any time previous to the declaration, it is sufficient, for the probate relates back to the death of the testator.[3] The same principle

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[1] Hunt *v.* Stevens, 3 Taunt. 113, 115; Hollis *v.* Smith, 10 East, 293; Blackham's case, 1 Salk. 290; 2 Saund. 47 *c*, note by Williams. The allegation of his representative character, in these two cases, will be regarded as surplusage, and need not be proved. Crawford *v.* Whittal, 1 Doug. 4, n. See also Powley *v.* Newton, 6 Taunt. 453, 457; Clark *v.* Hougham, 2 B. & C. 149.

[2] Smith *v.* Barrow, 2 T. R. 476, 477, per Ashhurst J.; Crawford *v.* Whittal, 1 Doug. 4, n. (1); Hunt *v.* Stevens, 3 Taunt. 113.

[3] Smith *v.* Milles, 1 T. R. 475, 480; Woolley *v.* Clark, 5 B. & Ald. 744; Wankford *v.* Wankford, 1 Salk. 299, 301, 306, 307; Loyd *v.* Finlayson, 2 Esp. R. 564; 1 Com. Dig 340, 341, tit. Administration, B. 9, 10; Dublin *v.* Chadbourn, 16 Mass. 433. The probate will be presumed to have been rightly made. Brown *v.* Wood, 17 Mass. 68, 72; Ante, Vol. 1, § 550.

governs in the case of an administrator; whose title, though it does not exist until the grant of administration, relates back to the time of the death of the intestate, so as to enable him to maintain an action for an injury to the goods of the intestate, or for the price, if they have been sold by one who had been his agent.[1] But the defendant may show that the probate itself, or the letter of administration, is a forgery;[2] or, that it was utterly void, for want of jurisdiction over the subject, by the Court which granted it;[3] whether because the person was still living, or because he had no domicil within the jurisdiction of the Court, where this is essential;[4] or for any other sufficient cause.

§ 340. The plaintiff's character as *administrator* may also be shown by an exemplified copy of the record of the grant of the letters, or by a copy of the book of Acts or original minutes of the grant, as has already been stated.[5] If letters of administration have been granted to the wrong person, they are only voidable, and liable to be repealed; but if granted by the wrong Court, they are void.

§ 341. Where the plaintiff is bound to prove his representative character of executor, under the general issue, as part of his title to sue, and it appears that there are *several executors*, some of whom have not joined in the suit, it is fatal, though all have not proved the will; unless they have renounced the trust.[6] And where the plaintiff sues as administrator *de bonis non*, it is sufficient to prove the grant of administration to himself, which recites the letters granted to the preceding administrator, without other proof of the latter[7]

[1] Foster *v.* Bates, 12 M. & W. 226.
[2] Bull. N. P. 247; Chichester *v.* Philips, T. Raym. 405.
[3] Bull. N. P. 143, 247; Noell *v.* Wells, 1 Lev. 235, 236.
[4] Harvard College *v.* Gore, 5 Pick. 370.
[5] Ante, Vol. 1, § 519.
[6] Munt *v.* Stokes. 4 T. R. 565, per Buller, J.
[7] Catherwood *v.* Chabaud, 1 B. & C. 155.

§ 342. If the action is upon promises made to the deceased, to which the *statute of limitations* is pleaded, the declaration, according to the English practice, will not be supported by evidence of a new promise made to the executor or administrator; but in the American Courts this rule is not universally recognized; and where the plea is *actio non accrevit infra sex annos*, the weight of argument seems in favor of admitting the evidence.[1] In both countries, leave will be granted to amend the declaration, by adding a new count on a promise to the executor.

§ 343. If the *defendant* is sued as *executor*, his representative character may be shown, either by the evidence already mentioned as proof of that character in the plaintiff, or, by proof of such acts of intermeddling in the estate, as estop him to deny the title, constituting him what is termed an executor *de son tort*. Very slight acts of intermeddling have formerly been held sufficient for this purpose; but the material fact for

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[1] 2 Saund. 63, f. g. note, by Williams. In Green (or Dean) *v.* Crane, 2 Ld. Raym. 1101, 6 Mod. 309, 1 Salk. 28, which is the leading case on this subject, the plea was *non assumpsit infra sex annos*, and to this issue, it was held that the evidence of a new promise to the executor would not apply. So, in Hickman *v.* Walker, Willes, 27. In Sarell *v.* Wine, 3 East, 409, Jones *v.* Moore, 5 Binn. 573, and Beard *v.* Cowman, 3 Har. & McHen. 152, the form of the issue is not stated. In Fisher *v.* Duncan, 1 Hen. & Munf. 563, and in Quarles *v.* Littlepage, 2 Hen. & Munf. 401, the action was against the executor; and the point in question was therefore not before the Court. On the other hand, in Heylin *v.* Hastings, Carth. 470, it was held, upon the issue of *non assumpsit infra sex annos*, that evidence of a new promise to the executor within six years was admissible, as well as sufficient to take the case out of the statute. And such also is the practice in Massachusetts, and in Maine. Baxter *v.* Penniman, 8 Mass. 133, 134; Emerson *v.* Thompson, 16 Mass. 428; Brown *v.* Anderson, 13 Mass. 201; Sullivan *v.* Holker, 15 Mass. 374. Where the issue is *actio non accrevit infra sex annos*, the technical reason for not admitting evidence of an acknowledgment or promise to the executor, entirely fails; and indeed, in any case, a promise to the executor amounts only to an admission, that the debt, due to the testator, has never been paid, but is still subsisting, and therefore is not barred by the statute of limitations. See 5 Binn. 582, 583, per Brackenridge, J.

the jury to find, is, that the party has intruded himself into the office of executor; and this may well be inferred from such acts as are lawful for an executor alone to do, such as taking and claiming possession of the goods of the deceased, or selling them, or converting them to his own use; collecting, releasing, or paying debts; paying legacies; or any other acts, evincing a claim of right to dispose of the effects of the deceased. But if the acts of intermeddling appear to have been done in kindness, merely for the preservation of the goods or property, or for the sake of decency or of charity, such as, in the burial of the dead, or the immediate support and care of his children, or in the feeding and care of his cattle; or, as the servant of one having the actual custody of the goods, and in ignorance of his title; or, in execution of orders received from the deceased as his agent, in favor of the vested rights of a third person; or the like; the party will not thereby be involved in the responsibilities of an executorship.[1] So, if he, in good faith, sets up a colorable title to the possession of the goods of the deceased, though he may not be able to establish it as a completely legal title in every respect, he will not be deemed an executor *de son tort*.[2] And in all these cases, the question, whether the party is chargeable as executor *de son tort*, is a mixed question of law and fact, similar to the question of probable cause, in an action for a malicious prosecution; the province of the Jury being only to say whether the facts are sufficiently proved.[3]

§ 344. If the defendant would controvert the fact of the representative character, this is done by the plea of *ne unques*

[1] Williams on Executors, p. 136 – 146; 1 Dane's Abr. ch. 29, art. 6; Givers *v.* Higgins, 4 McCord, 286; Toller on Ex'rs. p. 37 – 41. But if the agent, after the decease of his principal, continues to deal with the property on his own responsibility, or as the agent of another, he may be charged as executor. Cottle *v.* Aldrich, 4 M. & S. 175; 1 Stark. R. 37, S. C.; Turner *v.* Child, 1 Dever. R. 331. See also Mitchell *v.* Lunt, 4 Mass. 654, 658.

[2] Femings *v.* Jarratt, 1 Esp. 335; Turner *v.* Child, 1 Dever. R. 25.

[3] Padget *v.* Priest, 2 T. R. 99, per Buller, J.

executor, or, administrator; in which case the burden of proving the affirmative is on the plaintiff; who must prove, not only the appointment of the defendant to that office, but that he has taken upon himself the trust; and this may be by his proving the will, or taking the oaths, and giving bond, or, if he is charged as executor *de son tort*, by proving acts of intermeddling with the estate. The plaintiff should always take the precaution, where this plea is pleaded, to serve the defendant with notice to produce the letters testamentary, or letters of administration, at the trial, they being presumed to be in his possession; in order to lay a foundation for the introduction of secondary evidence.[1] He must also give some evidence of the identity of the party, with the person described in the letters as executor or administrator. If the evidence shows the defendant liable as an executor *de son tort*, by intermeddling, he may discharge himself by proof that he delivered the goods over to the rightful executor before action brought, but not afterwards;[2] or, that he subsequently took out letters of administration, and has administered the estate according to law.[3]

§ 345. By pleading *ne unques executor*, the defendant, if the issue is found against him, will be charged with the whole debt;[4] without being allowed to retain the amount of a debt due from the deceased to himself, even if it is of a higher nature, and he has the assent of the rightful executor, after action brought.[5] But an executor *de son tort* is, in general, liable to creditors only for the amount of the assets in his

[1] 2 Saund. on Plead. & Evid. 511, 512; 2 Stark. Evid. 320; Douglas *v.* Forrest, 4 Bing. 686, 704; Atkins *v.* Tredgold, 2 B. & C. 23, 30; Cottle *v.* Aldrich, 4 M. & S. 175.

[2] Curtis *v.* Vernon, 3 T. R. 587; Vernon *v.* Curtis, 2 H. Bl. 18; Andrews *v.* Gallison, 15 Mass. 325.

[3] Shillaber *v.* Wyman, 15 Mass. 322; Andrews *v.* Gallison, Ibid. 325.

[4] Anon. Cro. El. 472; Mitchell *v.* Lunt, 4 Mass. 658; Hob. 49 *b*, note by Williams; Bull. N. P. 144.

[5] Ireland *v.* Coulter, Cro. El. 630; Curtis *v.* Vernon, 3. T. R. 587; 2 H. Bl. 18.

hands at the time of the action; and therefore, if he pleads *plene administravit*, he may give in evidence payment of the just debts of the deceased, to any creditors in the same or a superior degree;[1] or, as we have just seen, he may show that, before action brought, he had delivered over the goods in his hands, to the rightful executor or administrator.[2]

§ 346. If the plaintiff traverses the plea of *plene administravit*, in its material allegation of the want of assets in the defendant's hands, the burden of proof will be on the plaintiff, to show that the defendant had assets in his hands at the commencement of the action.[3] If the assets have come to his hands since the pendency of the suit, this should be specially replied, or the proof will not be admissible.[4] If the action is *debt*, the plea of *plene administravit* is an admission of the whole debt, which therefore the plaintiff will not be bound to prove; but if the action is *assumpsit*, this plea is only an admission that something is due, but not the amount; and therefore the plaintiff must come prepared to prove it.[5]

§ 347. The fact of *assets* in the hands of a defendant executor or administrator, may be shown by the inventory returned by him under oath, pursuant to law; which devolves on him the burden of discharging himself from the items which it contains.[6] So, if he has repeatedly paid interest on

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[1] Mountford *v.* Gibson, 4 East, 441, 445; Toller, Ex'rs. p. 474. And it seems that he may make this defence even against the rightful administrator. Weeks *v.* Gibbs, 9 Mass. 74, 77.

[2] Anon. 1 Salk. 313; Hob. 49 b, note by Williams; Curtis *v.* Vernon, 3 T. R. 587; Vernon *v.* Curtis, 2 H. Bl. 18; Andrews *v.* Gallison, 15 Mass. 325.

[3] Bentley *v.* Bentley, 7 Cowen, 701. And see Fowler *v.* Sharp, 15 Johns. 323; 2 Phil. Evid. 366, (Cowen & Hill's ed.)

[4] Mara *v.* Quin, 6 T. R. 1, 10, 11.

[5] Bull. N. P. 140; Saunderson *v.* Nicholl, 1 Show. 81; Shelley's case, 1 Salk. 296.

[6] Weeks *v.* Gibbs, 9 Mass. 74; Bull. N. P. 142, 143; Hickey *v.* Hayter, 1 Esp. 313; 6 T. R. 384, S. C.; Giles *v.* Dyson, 1 Stark. R. 32. But the

a bond, or on a legacy, this is *primâ facie* evidence of assets.[1] So, if he has given his own promissory note for a debt of the deceased.[2] So, if he has submitted to arbitration, without protesting at the time against its being so taken.[3] So, if he confess judgment, or suffer it to go by default, or it be rendered against him on demurrer to the declaration; or, if he plead a judgment, without averring that he has no assets *ultra;* or plead payment without also pleading *plene administravit;* this is an admission of assets, and may be used against him in a subsequent action on the judgment, suggesting a *devastavit.*[4] But an award in favor of the estate is no evidence that the executor has received the money;[5] nor is a judgment assets, until the amount is levied and paid.[6] And if there are several executors, and some are shown to have assets in their hands, and others are not, the latter will be entitled to a verdict.[7]

§ 348. Under the issue of *plene administravit,* the defendant may *rebut the proof of assets,* by showing that he has

schedule or inventory, offered by the executor in the Ecclesiastical Court, for the purpose of obtaining probate, is not generally any evidence that he has received the effects therein mentioned. Stearn *v.* Mills, 4 B. & Ad. 657.

[1] Corporation of Clergymen's Sons *v.* Swainson, 1 Ves. 75; Cleverly *v.* Brett, 5 T. R. 8, n.; Campbell's case, Lofft, R. 68. Whether the probate stamp on a will, is admissible, in England, as *primâ facie* evidence of assets in the hands of the executor to the amount indicated by the stamp, is not clearly agreed. See Foster *v.* Blakelock, 5 B. & C. 328; Curtis *v.* Hunt, 1 C. & P. 180; Stearn *v.* Mills, 4 B. & Ad. 657; Mann *v.* Lang, 3 Ad. & El. 699.

[2] Bank of Troy *v.* Hopping, 13 Wend. 577.

[3] Barry *v.* Rush, 1 T. R. 691; Worthington *v.* Barlow, 7 T. R. 453; Riddle *v.* Sutton, 5 Bing. 200. But see Pearson *v.* Henry, 5. T. R. 5, *contra.*

[4] Skelton *v.* Hawling, 1 Wils. 258; 1 Saund. 219, note (8), by Williams; Roberts *v.* Wood, 3 Dowl. P. C. 797; Ewing *v.* Peters, 3 T. R. 685; Rock *v.* Layton, 1 Ld. Raym. 589; better reported in 3 T. R. 690–694, from Ld. Holt's own notes.

[5] Williams *v.* Innes, 1 Campb. 364.

[6] Jenkins *v.* Plume, 1 Salk. 207.

[7] Parsons *v.* Hancock, 1 M. & Malk. 330.

exhausted them in the payment of other debts of the deceased, not inferior in degree to that of the plaintiff, before the commencement of the action.[1] And if debts of an inferior degree have been paid before the commencement of the action, or if debts of a superior degree have been paid while

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[1] 6 T. R. 388, per Lawrence, J.; Smedley *v.* Hill, 2 W. Bl. 1105. In the United States, provision is made by statutes, for the settlement of insolvent estates, by a liquidation of all the claims, and a *pro rata* distribution of the assets. The application of the plea of *plene administravit*, to such cases, is thus stated by Mr. Justice Story. "It does not appear to me, that upon principle any special plea of *plene administravit* is necessary, where the assets have been in fact paid according to the directions of the statute of insolvency; for if the assets are rightfully applied, the mode is matter of evidence and not of pleading. A special *plene administravit* can only be necessary, where the administrator either admits assets to a limited extent, or he sets up a right of retainer for the payment of other debts, to which they are legally appropriated, or he has paid debts of an inferior nature, without notice of the plaintiff's claim. And so is the doctrine of the Common Law, according to the better authorities. In the next place, it seems to me, that there may be cases, where the estate may be insolvent, and yet the administrator would not be bound to procure a commission, and proceed under the statute of insolvency. If, for example, the assets were less than the privileged or priority debts, a commission of insolvency would be utterly useless to the other creditors; and surely the law would not force the administrator to nugatory acts. In such a case it seems to me, that a general *plene administravit* would be good, if the administrator had in fact applied the assets in discharge of such debts. If he had not so applied them, then he might specially plead these debts and no assets ultra. Other cases may be put of an analogous nature; and unless some stubborn authority could shown, founded in our local jurisprudence (and none such has been produced), I should not be bold enough to overrule what I consider a most salutary doctrine of the Common Law. Judgments, bonds, and some other debts at the Common Law are privileged debts, and are entitled to a priority of payment. And yet, if the administrator have no notice, either actual or constructive, of such privileged debts, he will be justified in paying debts of an inferior nature, provided a reasonable time has elapsed after the decease of the intestate. And in principle there cannot be any just distinction, whether such payment be voluntary or compulsive. But in such case, if he be afterwards sued for such privileged debt, he cannot plead *plene administravit* generally, but is bound to aver, that he had fully administered before notice of such debt." United States *v.* Hoar, 2 Mason, R. 317, 318.

the action was pending, this also may be shown under a special plea; but in the former case, it must be averred and proved that the payment was made without notice of the plaintiff's claim.[1] By the Common Law, an executor or administrator will be presumed to have notice of judgments of a court of record, and of all other debts of record; but of other debts, actual notice must be proved.[2] Where *plene administravit* is pleaded to an action of debt on bond, the defendant must prove that the debts paid were due by bonds sealed and delivered, or, that they were of higher degree, and entitled to priority of payment; but where this issue arises in an action for a debt due by simple contract, it is sufficient to prove the prior payment of a debt of any sort, without proof of the instrument by which it was secured; for it is a good payment, in the course of administration.[4] In either case, the creditor is a competent witness, to prove both the existence of his debt, and the payment of the money;[4] but where the debt is said to have been due by bond, which has been destroyed, it has been thought that the attesting witnesses, or some other evidence of the existence of the bond ought to be produced.[5]

§ 347. Under this issue, the defendant, by the Common Law, may in certain cases give in evidence a *retainer* of assets to the amount of a debt of the same or a higher degree, due

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[1] Sawyer *v.* Mercer, 1 T. R. 690; Anon. 1 Salk. 153; Toller, Ex'r. 269. But where the executor, more than a year after the decease of the testator, had paid all the debts and legacies, and paid over the remainder of the estate to the residuary legatee, without notice of any other claim, this was held admissible and sufficient, under the plea of *plene administravit.* Gov. &c. of Chelsea Water-works *v.* Cowper, 1 Esp. 275, per Ld. Kenyon.

[2] 1 Com. Dig. 352, tit. Administration, C. 2; Dyer, 32, a. By statute 4 & 5 W. & M. c. 20, all judgments not docketted, or abstracted and entered in a book kept for that purpose, are reduced to the footing of simple contract debts. Hickey *v.* Hayter, 6 T. R. 384; Toller, Ex'r. 268.

[3] Bull. N. P. 143; Saunderson *v.* Nicholl, 1 Show. 81.

[4] Bull. N. P. 143; Kingston *v.* Grey, 1 Ld. Raym. 745.

[5] Gillies *v.* Smither, 2 Stark. R. 528; Ante, Vol. 1, § 84, note 2, ad calc.

to himself;[1] or, to the amount of the expenses of administration, for which he has made himself personally responsible;[2] or, to the amount of debts of the same or a higher degree, which he has paid, out of his own money, before the commencement of the action.[3] But if the payment was made to a co-executor, to be paid over to the plaintiff, which he has not done, it is no defence; the receiver being in that case made the agent of the defendant himself, and not of the plaintiff.[4] But in most of the United States, the right of an executor or administrator to retain for a debt due to himself, or for moneys which he has paid for expenses of administration, has been qualified by statutes, not necessary here to be stated; so that, ordinarily, he cannot retain for his own debt, until it has been proved and allowed in the Court where the estate is settled, and then only under its decree, upon the settlement and allowance of his account of administration.

§ 350. In order to sustain the claim of *retainer*, it is necessary for the party to show that he has been rightfully constituted executor or administrator; and for this cause, as well as to prevent strife among creditors, an *executor de son tort* cannot retain for his own debt, even though it be of higher degree, unless he has since duly received letters of administration. But under the plea of *plene administravit*, he may show that he has paid other debts, in their order; or that, before action brought, he had delivered all the assets in his hands to the rightful executor or administrator.[5]

§ 351. If the defendant would give in evidence the existence of outstanding *debts of a higher nature*, entitled on

[1] Bull. N. P. 140, 141; Co. Litt. 283 *a*; Plumer *v.* Marchant, 3 Burr. 1380; 1 Saund. 333, n. (6), by Williams.

[2] Gillies *v.* Smither, 2 Stark. R. 528.

[3] Bull. N. P. 140; Smedley *v.* Hill, 2 W. Bl. 1105.

[4] Crosse *v.* Smith, 7 East, 246, 258.

[5] Bull. N. P. 143; Chitty's Prec. p. 301; Curtis *v.* Vernon, 3 T. R. 587, 590; Anon. 1 Salk. 313; Oxenham *v.* Clapp, 2 B. & Ad. 309.

that account to be preferred, but not yet paid, he can do this only under a special plea. If the debts are due by obligations already forfeited, the penalties are ordinarily to be taken as the amount of the debts; unless, by a proper replication, it is made to appear that the penalty is kept on foot by fraud. But if the obligation is not yet forfeited, the sum in the condition is to be regarded as the true debt, and assets can be retained only to that amount; for the executor, by payment of this sum, may save the penalty; and if he does not, it will be a *devastavit*.[1] In these cases, when the defendant seeks to retain the assets in his hands to meet debts of a higher nature, whether by bond or judgment, though the plea, in point of form, contains an averment of the precise value of the goods in his hands, yet the substance of the issue is, that the value of the goods, whatever it be, is not greater than the amount actually due on the bond or judgment.[2] And where an outstanding judgment is pleaded, with a replication of *per fraudem*, the judgment creditor is not a competent witness for the defendant, to disprove the fraud.[3] If several judgments or debts are pleaded, and the plea is falsified as to any of them, the plaintiff will be entitled to recover.[4]

§ 352. Where there are *several* executors or administrators, an *admission by one of them* that the debt is still due, is held not sufficient to entitle the plaintiff to recover against the

[1] United States *v.* Hoar, 2 Mason, R. 311; Bull. N. P. 141; 1 Saund. 333, n. (7), (8), by Williams; Ib. 334, n. (9); Parker *v.* Atfield, 1 Salk. 311. If a bond creditor, after forfeiture, would have taken less than the penalty, and the executor had assets to the amount required, which he did not pay, it is evidence of fraud. Ibid. And if a judgment is confessed for more than is actually due, this is *primâ facie* evidence of fraud; but the defendant may rebut it by proof that it was done by mistake. Pease *v.* Naylor, 5 T. R. 80.

[2] Moon *v.* Andrews, Hob. 133; 1 Saund. 333, n. (7), by Williams.

[3] Campion *v.* Bentley, 1 Esp. R. 343.

[4] Ibid.; Bull. N. P. 142; Parker *v.* Atfield, 1 Salk. 311; 1 Ld. Raym. 678. But see 1 Saund. 337, n. (1), by Williams.

others; though it may be properly admissible, as a link in the chain of testimony against them.[1] Nor is such admission by one, sufficient to take the case out of the statute of limitations as to all.[2]

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[1] James *v.* Hackley, 15 Johns. 277; Forsyth *v.* Ganson, 5 Wend. 558; Hammon *v.* Huntley, 4 Cowen, 493.

[2] Tullock *v.* Dunn, Ry. & M. 416; Ante, Vol. 1, § 176. But see Hammon *v.* Huntley, 4 Cowen, 493.

HEIR.

§ 353. The rules of evidence, applicable to the proof of *pedigree* in general, having been considered in the preceding volume,[1] the present title will be confined to the evidence of heirship, where this fact is particularly put in issue, as the foundation of a claim of right, or of liability.

§ 354. Where A. claims as the heir of B., it will be necessary to establish, first, affirmatively, their relationship through a common ancestor; and secondly, negatively, that no other descendant from the same ancestor exists, to impede the descent to A. Thus, in ejectment, where it was incumbent on the lessor of the plaintiff to prove that a younger brother of the person last seised, from whom he deduced his title, was dead, without issue, the testimony of an elderly lady, a member of the family, that the younger brother had many years before gone abroad when a young man, and according to repute in the family had died abroad, and that she never had heard in the family of his having been married; this was held *primâ facie* evidence of his having died without issue.[2] But where the death only is proved in such case, without some negative proof of the existence of issue, it is not sufficient; the plaintiff being bound to remove every possibility of title in another, before he can recover against the person in possession.[3] Thus also, if it were requisite to establish the title of A., as heir at law to his cousin-german, B., it would be necessary to prove the marriage and death

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 103 – 107, 131 – 134.

[2] Doe *v.* Griffin, 15 East, 293.

[3] Richards *v.* Richards, 15 East, 293, n.

of their common grandparents, and of their respective parents, through whom the title was deduced; that these were the legitimate children of the common ancestor, and that A. and B. were also the lawful issue of their parents; with evidence to show that no other issue existed, who would take the preference to A. But in charging one as heir, general evidence of heirship will be sufficient to be adduced on the part of the plaintiff, it being a matter more peculiarly within the defendant's own knowledge.[1] Thus, if he is in possession of the property of the deceased, or has received rents from his tenants, it is to be presumed that he claims them as heir.[2]

§ 355. After a *long lapse of time* since the death of one who might have been entitled, without any adverse claim, it may be presumed that he died without issue.[3] The fact of the death of a party, but not the time of it, will be presumed after the expiration of *seven years* from the time when he was last known to be living.[4] And it may be inferred from the grant of *letters of administration* on his estate, in the absence of any controlling circumstances; since it is not the course to grant administration, without some evidence of the death.[5]

§ 356. The *liability* of *an heir* generally arises upon the obligation of the ancestor by deed, in which the heir is expressly bound. He is liable at Common Law, to an action of debt on the bond of his ancestor, if specially named;[6] and

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 79.

[2] Derisley *v.* Custance, 4 T. R. 75.

[3] Doe *v.* Wolley, 8 B. & C. 22; 3 C. & P. 402, S. C.

[4] Doe *v.* Jesson, 6 East 85, per Ld. Ellenborough; Ante, Vol. 1, § 41. The time of the death is to be inferred from the circumstances. Doe *v.* Nepean, 5 B. & Ad. 86; Rust *v.* Baker, 8 Sim. 443.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 550; Succession of Hamblin, 3 Rob. Louis. R. 130.

[6] Co. Lit. 209 *a*.

in England, by statute, to an action of covenant. The like remedies have also been given against devisees, by statutes. But the remedy, in effect, is rather against the lands of the obligor, in the hands of the heir, than against the person of the heir; and it cannot be extended beyond the value of the assets descended, unless the heir, by neglecting to show the certainty of them, should render himself personally liable.[1] For if he should plead that he has nothing by descent, and the Jury should find that he has anything, however small in amount, the plea will be falsified, and the plaintiff will be entitled to a general judgment for his entire debt; whereas if he should confess the debt, and show the amount of the assets in his hands, he will be answerable only to this amount.[2]

§ 357. In the *United States*, the entire property of the deceased, real as well as personal, constitutes a *trust fund* for the payment of his debts. The modes in which this trust is carried into effect, are various, and are usually prescribed by statutes; but in some States, the forms of remedy are left at Common Law. The general feature, that the personalty must first be resorted to, is uniformly preserved; and in several of the States, the executor or administrator is empowered by license from the Courts, after exhausting the personal assets, to enter upon and sell the real estate, whether devised or not, to an amount sufficient to discharge the debts. Ordinarily, therefore, in the first instance, the creditor must resort to the personal representative, and not to the heir, for the payment of the debt; unless the cause of action, as in the case of a covenant of warranty, not previously broken, did not accrue, until all remedy against the executor or administrator was barred by the statute of limitations.[3]

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[1] 2 Saund. 7, n. (4), by Williams.

[2] Ibid. Plowd. 440; 2 Roll. Abr. 71; Buckley *v.* Nightingale, 1 Stra. 665. The plea of *non est factum*, if found against the heir, is not such a false plea as will render him liable *de bonis propriis*. 2 Saund. 7, n. (4); Jackson *v.* Rosevelt, 13 Johns. 97.

[3] 4 Kent, Comm. 421, 422; Hutchinson *v.* Stiles, 3 N. Hamp. 404;

§ 358. Wherever the executor or administrator, by the statutes alluded to, is authorized to apply to the Courts for leave to sell the land of the deceased, for the payment of his debts, the heir takes the land subject to that right and contingency; and when the land is thus sold, the title of the heir is defeated, and he has nothing by descent, and may well plead this plea in bar of an action, brought against him by a creditor, upon the bond of his ancestor.[1]

§ 359. The plea of *riens per descent* admits the obligation; but the proof of assets is incumbent on the plaintiff. And the substance of this issue is, whether the defendant had assets or not. The place, therefore, is not material to be proved; nor is it material whether the land was devised by the ancestor, or not, nor whether it was charged with the payment of debts or legacies, or not, provided the heir takes the same estate which would have descended to him without the will, its nature and quality not being altered by the devise.[2] But it is material for the plaintiff, where he declares against the defendant as the immediate heir of the obligor, to show that the assets came to the defendant as heir of the obligor, and not of another person. For where the obligor died seised of the lands, leaving issue, and the issue died without issue, whereupon the lands descended to the defendant as heir, not of the obligor, but of the obligor's son, the plea of *riens per descent* directly from the obligor, was held maintained.[3] And where the ancestor of the obligor died seised of a reversion expectant on a lease for years, leaving the obligor his heir, but no rent was paid to the obligor, the lands being supposed to have passed to a stranger by devise

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Webber *v.* Webber, 6 Greenl. 127; Royce *v.* Burrell, 12 Mass. 395; Hall *v.* Bumstead, 20 Pick. 2.

[1] Covell *v.* Weston, 20 Johns. 414. And see Gibson *v.* Farley, 16 Mass. 280.

[2] Bull. N. P. 175; Allam *v.* Heber, 2 Stra. 1270.

[3] Jenks's case, Cro. Car. 151; Kellow *v.* Rowden, 3 Mod. 253; Chappel *v.* Lee, 3 Mod. 256; Duke *v.* Spring, 2 Roll. Abr. 709, pl. 62.

from the ancestor; yet it was held, that the possession of the tenant was in law the possession of the heir, and so the obligor was seised in fact, and the land became assets in the hands of his heir, whose plea of *riens per descent* from the obligor was therefore falsified.[1] But if the intermediate heir was never seised, his successor in the same line of descent would take as heir to the obligor, who was last seised, and be liable accordingly.[2] Under this plea, by the Common Law, the heir might show that, prior to the commencement of the suit, he had in good faith aliened the lands; but this has been changed by statute.[3]

§ 360. In *proof of assets* it will be sufficient for the plaintiff to show that the defendant is entitled, as heir, to a reversion in fee after a mortgage or lease for years; or, to a reversion expectant upon an estate tail, provided the limitation in tail has expired, and the reversion has vested in possession, in the heir. But a reversion after a mortgage in fee is not assets at law, though it is in Equity.[4] A reversion expectant upon an estate for life is also assets; but it must be pleaded specially.[5] Whether lands lying in a *foreign State* or country, can be considered as assets, is a point not perfectly clear.[6]

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[1] Bushby *v.* Dixon, 3 B. & C. 298.

[2] Kellow *v.* Rowden, 3 Mod. 253; 1 Show. 244, S. C.

[3] 2 Saund. 7, n. (4), by Williams; Bull. N. P. 175.

[4] 2 Saund. 7, n. (4), by Williams; Plunkett *v.* Penson, 2 Atk. 294; Bushby *v.* Dixon, 3 B. & C. 298.

[5] Bull. N. P. 176; Kellow *v.* Rowden, 3 Mod. 253; Carth. 126, S. C.; Anon. Dyer, 373 b.

[6] See Austin *v.* Gage, 9 Mass. 395, Per Curiam, that they are not; but no reasons given. But where the judgment against the heir is *de bonis propriis*, of what consequence is it where the assets lie? See the able argument of Professor Stearns, in the case cited. See also Dowdale's case, 6 Co. 46; Covell *v.* Weston, 20 Johns. 414.

INFANCY.

§ 362. Infancy is a personal privilege or exception, to be taken advantage of only by the person himself; and the *burden of proof* rests on him alone, even though the issue is upon a ratification of his contract, after he came of age.[1] The trial, by the Common Law, is either upon inspection by the Court, or, in the ordinary manner of other facts, by the Jury; but in the United States the latter course only is practised.[2]

§ 363. The *fact of the party's age* may be proved by the testimony of persons acquainted with him from his birth; or, by proof of his own *admissions;* for these are receivable, even in criminal cases, the infant being regarded as competent to confess the truth in fact, though he may lack sufficient discretion to make a valid contract.[3] An entry of his *baptism* in the Register, is not of itself proof of his *age;* but if it is shown to have been made on the information of the parents, or others similarly interested, it may be admitted as a declaration by them; and in the Ecclesiastical Courts, it is strong adminicular evidence of minority.[4] If the action

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[1] Borthwick *v.* Carruthers, 1 T. R. 648; Leader *v.* Barry, 1 Esp. 353; Jeune *v.* Ward, 2 Stark. R. 326.

[2] Sliver *v.* Shelback, 1 Dall. 165.

[3] Haile *v.* Lillie, 3 Hill, N. Y. Rep. 149; McCoon *v.* Smith, Ibid. 147; Mather *v.* Clark, 2 Aiken, R. 209. But his admissions should be weighed cautiously, with reference to his age and understanding. The State *v.* Guild, 5 Halst. 163, 189, 190.

[4] Wihen *v.* Law, 3 Stark. R. 63; Burghart *v.* Angerstein, 6 C. & P. 690; Agg *v.* Davies, 2 Phill. 345; Jeune *v.* Ward, 2 Stark. R. 326; Rex *v.* Clapham, 4 C. & P. 29. In the United States, where births are required by law to be recorded, a copy of the record is usually received as sufficient evidence of the facts it recites, which it was the officer's duty to record.

is against the acceptor of a bill, the defendant, upon the issue of infancy, must distinctly prove not only his real age, but also the day on which he accepted the bill; unless he is proved to have been under age at the commencement of the action; for otherwise, it does not appear that he was an infant at the time he entered into the contract, the date of the bill not being even presumptive evidence of the time of acceptance.[1]

§ 364. The defence of *infancy*, to an action of assumpsit, is *avoided* by showing either, (1.) that the consideration of the promise was *necessaries* furnished to him; or, (2.) a ratification of the contract, by a *new promise* after he came of age. Upon the issue of necessaries or not, when specially pleaded, no evidence of minority is requisite, it being admitted by the course of pleading. The burden of proving the issue of necessaries is on the plaintiff.

§ 365. *Necessaries* are such things as are useful and suitable to the party's state and condition in life, and not merely such as are requisite for bare subsistence.[2] And of this the Jury are to judge, under the advice and control of the Court.[3] Money lent to an infant, to supply himself with necessaries, is not recoverable;[4] though if the necessaries were previously

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[1] Israel *v.* Argent, 1 Chitty's Prec. 314, note (b); Blyth *v.* Archbold, Ibid.

[2] Peters *v.* Fleming, 6 M. & W. 42; Burghart *v.* Angerstein, 6 C. & P. 690.

[3] Ibid.; Harrison *v.* Fane, 4 Jur. 508; 1 Scott, N. R. 287; 1 M. & G. 550, S. C.; Brayshaw *v.* Eaton, 5 Bing. N. C. 231; Peters *v.* Fleming, 6 M. & W. 42; Stanton *v.* Willson, 3 Day, 57; Beeler *v.* Young, 1 Bibb, 519. If, upon the trial of this issue, any part of the articles are proved to be necessaries, the evidence ought to be left to the Jury. Maddox *v.* Miller, 1 M. & S. 738.

[4] Probart *v.* Knouth, 2 Esp. 472, n.; Bull. N. P. 154. An infant is liable for such goods furnished to him to trade with, as were consumed as necessaries in his own family. Turberville *v.* Whitehouse, 1 C. & P. 94.

specified and were actually purchased, it seems that an action for the goods, as furnished by the plaintiff through the agency of the infant himself, might be maintained.[1] And payments of wages to an infant, in order to purchase necessaries, have been held valid payments.[2] Regimentals for an infant member of a volunteer military company ;[3] and a livery for a minor captain's servant ;[4] and a horse, for an infant nearly of age, advised by his physician to take exercise on horseback ; have been held necessary.[5] A chronometer, ordered by a lieutenant in the navy, has been held otherwise.[6]

§ 366. The evidence of necessaries may be *rebutted* by proof that the party lived under the roof of his parent, who provided him with such things as in his judgment appeared proper ;[7] or, that he had already supplied himself with the like necessaries, from another quarter ;[8] or, that a competent allowance was made to him by his guardian, for his support ;[9] or, that he was properly supplied by his friends.[10] It is ordinarily incumbent on the tradesman, before he trusts an infant for goods apparently necessary for him, to inquire whether competent provision has not already been made for him by

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[1] Ellis *v.* Ellis, 1 Ld. Raym. 344 ; 3 Salk. 197. pl. 11 ; 12 Mod. 197 ; Marlow *v.* Pitfield, 1 P. Wms. 558 ; Earle *v.* Peale, 1 Salk. 386 ; Crantz *v.* Gill, 2 Esp. 472, note (1), by Mr. Day. Money advanced to procure his liberation from lawful arrest on civil process, is necessary. Clarke *v.* Leslie, 5 Esp. 38.

[2] Hedgley *v.* Holt, 4 C. & P. 104.

[3] Coates *v.* Wilson, 5 Esp. 152.

[4] Hands *v.* Slaney, 8 T. R. 578.

[5] Hart *v.* Prater, 1 Jur. 623. But generally a horse is not necessary. Rainwater *v.* Durham, 2 Nott & McC. 524.

[6] Berolles *v.* Ramsay, Holt's Cas. 77. And see Charters *v.* Bayntun, 7 C. & P. 52.

[7] Borrinsale *v.* Greville, 1 Selw. N. P. 128 ; Bainbridge *v.* Pickering, 2 W. Bl. 1325 ; Cook *v.* Deaton, 3 C. & P. 114.

[8] Burghart *v.* Angerstein, 6 C. & P. 690.

[9] Mortara *v.* Hall, 6 Sim. 465 ; Burghart *v.* Hall, 4 M. & W. 727.

[10] Story *v.* Pery, 4 C. & P. 526 ; Angell *v.* McLellan, 16 Mass. 31 ; Wailing *v.* Toll, 9 Johns. 141.

others ;[1] but there is no inflexible rule of law, rendering inquiries into the infant's situation and resources absolutely indispensable, as a condition precedent to the right to recover.[2] And the necessity for any inquiry, where otherwise it would be incumbent on the tradesman, may be done away by the conduct of the other parties; as, for example, if the goods were delivered with the knowledge of the parent, and without objection from him.[3]

§ 367. Upon the issue of a subsequent ratification of the contract by a *new promise*, the burden of proof is on the plaintiff, the fact of infancy being admitted by the pleadings. But proof of the promise is sufficient, without proof that the party was then of full age.[4] The contracts and acts of an infant are in general voidable, and capable of confirmation when he comes of age; those alone being treated as absolutely void, which are certainly and in their nature prejudicial to his interest. Thus, his negotiable promissory note, though formerly considered void, is now held voidable only ;[5] and his statement of an account, is also now held capable of ratification after he comes of age.[6] There is, however, a distinction between those acts and words which are necessary to ratify an executory contract, and those which are sufficient to ratify an executed contract. In the latter case, any act, amounting to an explicit acknowledgment of liability, will operate as a ratification ; as, in the case of a purchase of land

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[1] Ford *v.* Fothergill, Peake's Cas. 229 ; 1 Esp. 211, S. C. ; Cook *v.* Deaton, 3 C. & P. 114.

[2] Brayshaw *v.* Eaton, 5 Bing. N. C. 231 ; 7 Scott, 183, S. C. ; 3 Jur. 222.

[3] Dalton *v.* Gib, 5 Bing. N. C. 198 ; 7 Scott, 117, S. C. ; 3 Jur. 43.

[4] Hartley *v.* Wharton, 11 Ad. & El. 934 ; 3 P. & D. 539, S. C. ; Borthwick *v.* Carruthers, 1 T. R. 648.

[5] Goodsell *v.* Myers, 3 Wend. 479 ; Reed *v.* Batchelder, 1 Met. 559 ; Lawson *v.* Lovejoy, 8 Greenl. 405 ; Fisher *v.* Jewett, 1 Berton's R. (New Bruns.) p. 35 ; Story on Contr. § 38.

[6] Williams *v.* Moor, 11 M. & W. 256, 265. An infant's bond has been held voidable only, and not void. Hunter *v.* Smith, 1 Fox & Smith, R. 15.

or goods, if, after coming of age, he continues to hold the property and treat it as his own.[1] But in order to ratify an executory agreement made during infancy, there must be not only an acknowledgment of liability, but an express confirmation, or new promise, voluntarily and deliberately made by the infant, upon his coming of age, and with the knowledge that he is not legally liable. An explicit acknowledgment of indebtment, whether in terms, or by a partial payment, is not alone sufficient; for he may refuse to pay a debt which he admits to be due. But an express confirmation of the agreement, as still obligatory, is sufficient.[2] And if the promise be express, to pay when he is able, the plaintiff must prove the defendant's ability to pay, or, at least, that ostensibly he is so; but he is not bound to prove that the payment can be made without inconvenience.[3] The new promise must, in all cases, be shown to have been made prior to the commencement of the action.[4]

§ 368. Infancy is no defence to an action *ex delicto;* but an action in that form cannot be maintained, where the foundation of it appears to have been a contract, which the infant has tortiously violated. Thus, if he hired a horse, which he injured by treating negligently, or by riding immoderately, the plaintiff cannot charge the infant in tort, by a mere change

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[1] Hubbard *v.* Cummings, 1 Greenl. 11; Lawson *v.* Lovejoy, 8 Greenl. 405; Dana *v.* Coombs, 6 Greenl. 89; Chitty on Contracts, p. 125, a; 1 Roll. Abr. 731, l. 45; Evelyn *v.* Chichester, 3 Burr. 1719; Tucker *v.* Moreland, 10 Peters, R. 75, 76; Jackson *v.* Carpenter, 11 Johns. 542; Boston Bank *v.* Chamberlin, 15 Mass. 220; Van Dorens *v.* Everett, 2 South. 460.

[2] Story on Contracts, § 49; Chitty on Contr. 124 (4th Am. ed.), and cases there cited; Smith *v.* Mayo, 9 Mass. 62; Ford *v.* Phillips, 1 Pick. 202; Whitney *v.* Dutch, 14 Mass. 457, 461; Thrupp *v.* Fielder, 2 Esp. 628; Harmer *v.* Killing, 5 Esp. 102. By stat. 9 Geo. 4, ch. 14, § 5, it is now necessary, in England, that the new promise or ratification be in writing, and signed by the party to be charged.

[3] Thomson *v.* Lay, 4 Pick. 48; Cole *v.* Saxby, 3 Esp. 160. And see Davies *v.* Smith, 4 Esp. 36; Besford *v.* Saunders, 2 H. Bl. 116.

[4] Thornton *v.* Illingworth, 2 B. & C. 824; 4 D. & R. 525, S. C.

of the form of action, where he would not have been chargeable in *assumpsit*. To such an action, the plea of infancy in bar is held good.[1] But if the contract was wholly abandoned by the infant, as if he hire a horse to go to a certain place, and goes to a different place, or wantonly beats the animal to death, he is liable in trover or trespass.[2] On the other hand, if the action is brought in *assumpsit*, but the foundation is in tort, as, for money which he has fraudulently embezzled, the plea of infancy is not a good bar.[3]

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[1] Jennings *v.* Rundall, 8 T. R. 337.

[2] Vasse v. Smith, 6 Cranch, 226; Campbell *v.* Stakes, 2 Wend. 137.

[3] Bristow *v.* Eastman, 1 Esp. 172; Vasse *v.* Smith, 6 Cranch, 226. See Story on Contracts, § 45.

INSANITY.

§ 369. WHETHER lunacy, or insanity of mind, is in all cases a valid bar, *per se*, to an action on the contract of the party, has been much controverted, both in England and America. The rule, that a man shall not be permitted to stultify himself, is now entirely exploded; and the question is reduced to this, namely, whether a person *non compos mentis* can make any contract which shall bind him. This has led to a distinction, taken between contracts executed and contracts executory; and it seems now to be generally agreed, that the *executed contract* of such person is to be regarded very much like that of an infant; and that therefore, when goods have been supplied to him which were necessaries, or were suitable to his station and employment, and which were furnished under circumstances, evincing that no advantage of his mental infirmity was attempted to be taken, and which have been actually enjoyed by him, he is liable, in law as well as equity, for the value of the goods.[1] Thus, a person of unsound mind has been held liable in *assumpsit* for work and labor,[2] and for carriages, suitable to his rank and condition.[3]

§ 370. On the other hand, insanity of mind is generally admitted, as a valid bar to an action upon an *executory contract* of the party;[4] though in England it has in some cases

[1] Chitty on Contr. 108 – 112; Story on Contr. § 23, 24, 25; Stock on Non Compotes Mentis, p. 25 – 30, and cases there cited; Thompson *v.* Leach, 3 Mod. 310; Seaver *v.* Phelps, 11 Pick. 304; Neill *v.* Morley, 9 Ves. 478; Stiles *v.* West, cited 1 Sid. 112.

[2] Brown *v.* Joddrell, 3 C. & P. 30.

[3] Baxter *v.* Earl of Portsmouth, 5 B. & C. 170; 7 D. & R. 614, S. C.; 2 C. & P. 178, S. C.

[4] Sentance *v.* Poole, 3 C. & P. 1; Stock on Non Compotes Mentis, p. 30; Mitchell *v.* Kingman, 5 Pick. 431; Seaver *v.* Phelps, 11 Pick. 304; Chitty on Contracts, p. 112; Story on Contr. § 23, 24, 25.

been held insufficient as a defence, *per se*, but admissible evidence to support a defence grounded upon undue advantage taken, or fraud practised upon the party, by reason of his want of common discernment.[1]

§ 371. The state and condition of mind of the party is proved, like other facts, to the Jury; and evidence of the state of his mind both before and after the act done, is admissible.[2] An *inquisition*, taken under a commission of lunacy, is admissible evidence, but not conclusive in the party's own favor.[3] It has, however, been held conclusive against other persons, subsequently dealing with the lunatic, instead of dealing with his guardian, who seek collaterally to avoid the guardian's authority, by showing that the lunatic has been restored to his reason.[4] Insanity, once proved to have existed, is presumed to continue, unless it was accidental and temporary in its nature; as, where it was occasioned by the violence of disease.[5]

§ 372. In *criminal cases*, in order to absolve the party from guilt, a higher degree of insanity must be shown, than would be sufficient to discharge him from the obligations of his contracts. In these cases, the rule of law is understood to be this; that "a man is not to be excused from responsibility, if he has capacity and reason sufficient to enable him to distinguish between right and wrong, as to the particular act he is then doing; a knowledge and consciousness that the act he is doing is wrong and criminal, and will subject him to punishment. In order to be responsible, he must have sufficient power of memory to recollect the relation in which

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[1] Ibid.; Dane *v.* Kirkwall, 8 C. & P. 679.

[2] Grant *v.* Thompson, 4 Conn. R. 203.

[3] Faulder *v* Silk, 3 Campb. 126; Dane *v.* Kirkwall, 8 C. & P. 679.

[4] Leonard *v.* Leonard, 14 Pick. 280; Ante, Vol. 1, § 551, 556.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 42; Hix *v.* Whittemore, 4 Metc. 545; 1 Collinson on Lunacy, 55; Shelford on Lunatics, 275; Swinburne on Wills, Part II. § iii. 5, 6, 7; 1 Hal. P. C. 30.

he stands to others, and in which others stand to him; that the act he is doing is contrary to the plain dictates of justice and right, injurious to others, and a violation of the dictates of duty. On the contrary, although he may be laboring under partial insanity, if he still understands the nature and character of his act and its consequences, if he has a knowledge that it is wrong and criminal, and a mental power sufficient to apply that knowledge to his own case, and to know that if he does the act he will do wrong and receive punishment, such partial insanity is not sufficient to exempt him from responsibility for criminal acts. If then it is proved to the satisfaction of the Jury, that the mind of the accused was in a diseased and unsound state, the question will be, whether the disease existed to so high a degree, that, for the time being, it overwhelmed the reason, conscience and judgment, and whether the prisoner, in committing the homicide, acted from an irresistible and uncontrollable impulse; if so, then the act was not the act of a voluntary agent, but the involuntary act of the body without the concurrence of a mind directing it." [1]

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[1] See The Trial of Abner Rogers, p. 276, 277, per Shaw, C. J. The whole of this lucid exposition of the Criminal Law of Insanity, by the learned Chief Justice, was as follows: — "The great object of punishment by law is to afford security to the community against crimes, by punishing those who violate the laws; and this object is accomplished by holding out the fear of punishment, as the certain consequence of such violation. Its effect is to present to the minds of those who are tempted to commit crime, in order to some present gratification, a strong counteracting motive, in the fear of punishment.

"But this object can only be accomplished when such motive acts on an intelligent being, capable of remembering that the act about to be committed is wrong, contrary to duty, and such as in any well-ordered society would subject the offender to punishment. It might, in some respects, be more accurate to say, that the party thus acting under a temptation, must have memory and intelligence, to recollect and know that the act he is about to commit is a violation of the law of the land. But this mode of stating the rule might lead to a mistake of another kind, inasmuch as it would seem to hold up the idea, that before a man can be justly punished, it must appear that he knew that the act was contrary to the law of the

§ 373. In all such cases, the Jury are to be told that every man is to be presumed to be sane, and to possess a sufficient degree of reason to be responsible for his crimes, until the contrary be proved to their satisfaction; and that, to establish

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land. But the law assumes that every man has knowledge of the laws prohibiting crimes; an assumption not strictly true in fact, but necessary to the security of society, and sufficiently near the truth for practical purposes. It is expressed by the well known maxim, *ignorantia legis neminem excusat*, — ignorance of the law cannot be pleaded as an excuse for crime. The law assumes the existence of the power of conscience in all persons of ordinary intelligence; a capacity to distinguish between right and wrong, in reference to particular actions; a sense of duty and of right. It may also be safely assumed, that every man of ordinary intelligence knows that the laws of society are so framed and administered, as to prohibit and punish wrong acts, violations of duty towards others, by penalties in some measure adapted to the nature and aggravation of the wrong and injurious acts thus done. If therefore it happens to be true in any particular case, that a person, tempted to commit a crime, does not know that the particular act is contrary to positive law, or what precise punishment the municipal law annexes to such act; yet if the act is palpably wrong in itself, if it be manifestly injurious to the rights of another, as by destroying his life, maiming his person, taking away his property, breaking into or burning his dwelling-house, and the like, there is no injustice in assuming that every man knows that such acts are wrong, and must subject him to punishment by law; and therefore it may be assumed, for all practical purposes, and without injustice, that he knows the act is contrary to law. This is the ground upon which the rule has been usually laid down by Judges, when the question is, whether a person has sufficient mental capacity to be amenable for the commission of a crime; that he must have sufficient mental capacity to distinguish between right and wrong, as applied to the act he is about to commit, and to be conscious that the act is wrong; instead of saying that he must have sufficient capacity to know that it is contrary to the law of the land; because this power to distinguish between right and wrong, as applied to the particular act, — a power which every human being, who is at the same time a moral agent, and a subject of civil government, is assumed to possess,—is the medium by which the law assumes that he knows that the same act which is a violation of high moral duty, is also a violation of the law of the land. Whereas, if it were stated that a person must have sufficient mental capacity to know and understand that the act he is about committing is a violation of the law of the land, it might lead to a wrong conclusion, and raise a doubt in regard to persons ignorant of the law. There is no doubt that many a man is held responsible for crime, and

a defence on the ground of insanity, it must be clearly proved, that, at the time of committing the act, the party accused was laboring under such a defect of reason from disease of the mind, as not to know the nature and quality of the act he

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that rightfully, who might not know that the act he was about committing was contrary to the law of the land, otherwise than as a moral being he knows that it is wrong, a violation of the dictates of his own natural sense of right and wrong.

"To recur, then, to what has been already stated: In order that punishment may operate by way of example, to deter others from committing criminal acts, when under temptation to do so, by presenting a strong counteracting motive, the person tempted must have memory and intelligence, to know that the act he is about to commit is wrong, to remember and understand, that if he commits the act, he will be subject to the punishment, and reason and will, to enable him to compare and choose between the supposed advantage or gratification to be obtained by the criminal act, and the immunity from punishment which he will secure by abstaining from it.

"A person, therefore, in order to be punishable by law, or in order that his punishment by law may operate as an example to deter others from committing criminal acts, under like circumstances, must have sufficient memory, intelligence, reason and will, to enable him to distinguish between right and wrong, in regard to the particular act about to be done, to know and understand that it will be wrong, and that he will deserve punishment by committing it.

"This is necessary on two grounds:

"1st. To render it *just* and reasonable to inflict the punishment on the accused individual; and

"2d. To render his punishment, by way of example, of any utility to deter others in like situation from doing similar acts, by holding up a counteracting motive in the dread of punishment, which they can feel and comprehend."

With more immediate reference to the case, the Chief Justice proceeded as follows:

"In order to constitute a crime, a man must have intelligence and capacity enough to have a criminal intent and purpose; and if his reason and mental powers are either so deficient that he has no will, no conscience or controlling mental power, or if, through the overwhelming violence of mental disease, his intellectual power is for the time obliterated, he is not a responsible moral agent, and is not punishable for criminal acts.

"But these are extremes easily distinguished, and not to be mistaken. The difficulty lies between these extremes, in the cases of partial insanity,

was doing, or, if he did know it, that he did not know he was doing what was wrong. The mode of putting the latter part of the question to the Jury on these occasions has generally been, whether the accused, at the time of doing the act, knew the difference between right and wrong; which mode, though rarely, if ever, leading to any mistake with the Jury, is not deemed so accurate when put generally and in the abstract, as when put with reference to the party's know-

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where the mind may be clouded and weakened, but not incapable of remembering, reasoning, and judging, or so perverted by insane delusion as to act under false impressions and influences. In these cases, the rule of law, as we understand it, is this; — [Here follows the passage already quoted in the text.]

"The character of the mental disease relied upon to excuse the accused in this case, is partial insanity, consisting of *melancholy*, accompanied by delusion. The conduct may be in many respects regular, the mind acute, and the conduct apparently governed by rules of propriety, and at the same time there may be insane delusion by which the mind is perverted. The most common of these cases is that of monomania, when the mind broods over *one idea* and cannot be reasoned out of it. This may operate as an excuse for a criminal act in one or two modes — Either the delusion is such that the person under its influence has a real and firm belief of some fact, not true in itself, but which if it were true, would excuse his act; as where the belief is, that the party killed had an immediate design upon his life, and under that belief the insane man killed him in supposed self-defence. A common instance is where he fully believes that the act he is doing is done by the immediate command of God, and he acts under the delusive but sincere belief that what he is doing is by the command of a superior power, which supersedes all human laws, and the laws of nature: or

"2d. This state of delusion indicates to an experienced person that the mind is in a diseased state, that the known tendency of that diseased state of the mind, is to break out into sudden paroxysms of violence, venting itself in acts of homicide, or other violent acts towards friend or foe indiscriminately, so that although there were no previous indications of violence, yet the subsequent act, connecting itself with the previous symptoms and indications, will enable an experienced person to say, that the outbreak was of such a character, that for the time being it must have overborne memory and reason; that the act was the result of the disease, and not of a mind capable of choosing; in short, that it was the result of uncontrollable impulse, and not of a person acted upon by motives and governed by the will." Ibid. p. 273 – 279.

ledge of right and wrong in respect to the very act with which he is charged.[1]

§ 374. In regard to *drunkenness*, it is now settled, that incapacity from that cause is a valid defence to an action upon

[1] Per Tindal, C.J. in McNaghten's case, 10 Clark & Fin. 210. In that case, the following questions were propounded to the learned Judges, by the House of Lords: —

"1st. What is the law respecting alleged crimes, committed by persons afflicted with insane delusion in respect of one or more particular subjects or persons; as, for instance, where, at the time of the commission of the alleged crime, the accused knew he was acting contrary to law, but did the act complained of with a view, under the influence of insane delusion, of redressing or avenging some supposed grievance or injury, or of producing some supposed public benefit?

"2d. What are the proper questions to be submitted to the jury, when a person, alleged to be afflicted with insane delusion respecting one or more particular subjects or persons, is charged with the commission of a crime (murder for example), and insanity is set up as a defence?

"3d. In what terms ought the questions to be left to the jury, as to the prisoner's state of mind at the time when the act was committed?

"4th. If a person, under an insane delusion as to existing facts, commits an offence in consequence thereof, is he thereby excused?

"5th. Can a medical man, conversant with the disease of insanity, who never saw the prisoner previous to the trial, but who was present during the whole trial and the examination of all the witnesses, be asked his opinion as to the state of the prisoner's mind at the time of the commission of the alleged crime, or his opinion whether the prisoner was conscious, at the time of doing the act, that he was acting contrary to law; or whether he was laboring under any and what delusion at the time?"

The joint opinion of all the Judges, except Mr Justice Maule, was delivered by Ld. Chief Justice Tindal, as follows: — "My Lords, her Majesty's Judges, with the exception of Mr. Justice Maule, who has stated his opinion to your Lordships, in answering the questions proposed to them by your Lordships' House, think it right in the first place to state that they have forborne entering into any particular discussion upon these questions, from the extreme and almost insuperable difficulty of applying those answers to cases in which the facts are not brought judicially before them. The facts of each particular case must of necessity present themselves with endless variety, and with every shade of difference in each case, and it is their duty to declare the law upon each particular case on facts proved before

the contract of the party, made while under its influence, as well where it was voluntary and by the fault of the defendant, as where it was caused by the fraud or procurement of

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them, and after hearing argument of counsel thereon. They deem it at once impracticable, and at the same time dangerous to the administration of justice if it were practicable, to attempt to make minute applications of the principles involved in the answers given them by your Lordships' questions; they have therefore confined their answers to the statements of that which they hold to be the law upon the abstract questions proposed by your Lordships; and as they deem it unnecessary in this particular case to deliver their opinions *seriatim*, and as all concur in the same opinion, they desire me to express such their unanimous opinion to your Lordships. In answer to the first question, assuming that your Lordships' inquiries are confined to those persons who labor under such partial delusions only, and are not in other respects insane, we are of opinion, that, notwithstanding the party accused did the act complained of, with a view, under the influence of insane delusion, of redressing or avenging some supposed grievance or injury, or of producing some public benefit, he is nevertheless punishable, according to the nature of the crime committed, if he knew at the time of committing such crime that he was acting contrary to law, — by which expression we understand your Lordships to mean the law of the land. As the third and fourth questions appear to us to be more conveniently answered together, we have to submit our opinion to be, that the jury ought to be told, in all cases, that every man is to be presumed to be sane, and to possess a sufficient degree of reason to be responsible for his crimes, until the contrary be proved to their satisfaction; and that, to establish a defence on the ground of insanity, it must be clearly proved, that, at the time of committing the act, the party accused was laboring under such a defect of reason, from disease of the mind, as not to know the nature and quality of the act he was doing; or, if he did know it, that he did not know he was doing what was wrong. The mode of putting the latter part of the question to the Jury on these occasions, has generally been, whether the accused, at the time of doing the act, knew the difference between right and wrong; which mode, though rarely if ever leading to any mistake with the Jury, is not, as we conceive, so accurate when put generally and in the abstract, as when put with reference to the party's knowledge of right and wrong in respect to the very act with which he is charged. If the question were to be put as to the knowledge of the accused solely and exclusively with reference to the law of the land, it might tend to confound the Jury, by inducing them to believe that an actual knowledge of the law of the land was essential in order to lead to a conviction; whereas the law is administered upon

the plaintiff.[1] In criminal cases, though *insanity*, as we have just seen, is *ordinarily an excuse*, yet an *exception* to this rule, is when the crime is committed by a party while in a fit of intoxication; the law not permitting a man to avail himself of the excuse of his own gross vice and misconduct, to shelter himself from the legal consequences of such crime. But the crime, to be within the exception, and therefore punishable, must take place and be the *immediate result* of the fit of intoxication, and *while it lasts*, and not the result of insanity, remotely occasioned by previous habits of gross indulgence

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the principle, that every one must be taken conclusively to know it, without proof that he does know it. If the accused were conscious that the act was one which he ought not to do, and if that act was at the same time contrary to the law of the land, he is punishable; and the usual course, therefore, has been, to leave the question to the Jury, whether the party accused had a sufficient degree of reason to know that he was doing an act that was wrong; and this course we think is correct, accompanied with such observations and explanations as the circumstances of each particular case may require. The answer to the fourth question must of course depend on the nature of the delusion; but making the same assumption as we did before, namely, that he labors under such partial delusion only, and is not in other respects insane, we think he must be considered in the same situation, as to responsibility, as if the facts with respect to which the delusion exists were real. For example, if, under the influence of delusion, he supposes another man to be in the act of attempting to take away his life, and he kills that man, as he supposes, in self-defence, he would be exempt from punishment. If his delusion was, that the deceased had inflicted a serious injury to his character and fortune, and he killed him in revenge for such supposed injury, he would be liable to punishment. In answer to the last question, we state to your Lordships, that we think the medical man, under the circumstances supposed, cannot in strictness be asked his opinion in the terms above stated, because each of those questions involves the determination of the truth of the facts deposed to, which it is for the Jury to decide; and the questions are not mere questions upon a matter of science, in which case such evidence is admissible. But where the facts are admitted, or not disputed, and the question becomes substantially one of science only, it may be convenient to allow the question to be put in that general form, though the same cannot be insisted on as a matter of right." Ibid. p. 200–212.

[1] Chitty on Contracts, p. 112 (4th Am. ed); Story on Contracts, § 27, and cases there cited.

in spirituous liquors. The law looks to the immediate and not the remote cause; to the actual state of the party, and not to the causes which remotely produced it.[1]

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[1] United States *v.* Drew, 5 Mason, R. 28, per Story, J.; 1 Russell on Crimes, p. 7, 8, (3d ed.) See Ray on the Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity, ch. 24. In the Jurisprudence of Continental Europe, drunkenness is generally distinguished into three kinds, — (1.) *Intentional*, voluntarily induced in order to the commission of a crime while in that state; — (2.) *Culpable*, by drinking without any intention to become drunken, but where the party might easily have foreseen that he would naturally become so; — (3.) *Inculpable*, where such consequence could not easily have been foreseen, or, where the party took due precautions against any injurious effects, as, by directing his servants to confine him if he should become drunk, or, where the drunkenness was justly attributable to others, or, was the result of disease. In the first case, it is no excuse; in the second, it reduces the degree of criminality and mitigates the punishment; in the third, the liability to punishment ceases. See Professor Mittermaier's learned Treatise on the Effect of Drunkenness upon Criminal Responsibility, § vi. vii. viii. ix.

INSURANCE.

§ 375. The ordinary subjects of the contract of Insurance, are, (1.) Marine Risks; (2.) Losses by Fire; (3.) Lives; all which will be considered in their order.

§ 376. In an action on a policy of Insurance, whatever may be the subject, the declaration[1] contains the following

[1] The following forms of counts, in the simplest cases arising upon marine policies, established in Massachusetts, are well adapted to the brevity of modern practice at Common Law in any of the United States:

1. On a SHIP, for a TOTAL LOSS. "In a plea of the case, for that on ———, the plaintiff was owner of the ship John, then lying in the harbor of ——— aforesaid; and the said ——— Company, in consideration of a premium therefor paid to them by the plaintiff, made a policy of insurance upon the said ship for a voyage from said ——— to Cadiz in Spain, and at and from said Cadiz to her port of discharge in the United States; and thereby promised to insure for the plaintiff ten thousand dollars upon the said ship for the said voyage, against the perils of the seas, and other perils in the said policy mentioned; (*a*) and the plaintiff avers that the said ship did on ——— sail from said ——— on the voyage described in said policy, and whilst proceeding therein, was, by the perils of the seas, wrecked and totally lost; of which the said Insurance Company, on ———, had notice, and were bound to pay the same on demand; (or in sixty days); yet they have never paid the said sum of ten thousand dollars, though requested, (or though sixty days have elapsed). To the damage, &c."

2. Count for a PARTIAL LOSS, and for CONTRIBUTION TO A GENERAL AVERAGE. [State the plaintiff's interest, the voyage, and the insurance, as in the last precedent, to (*a*), and proceed as follows.]

"——— and the said Company did, in and by the same policy, further promise that in case of any loss or misfortune to the said ship, it should be lawful for the plaintiff and his agents to labor for and in the defence and recovery of the said ship, and that the said Company would contribute to the charges thereof in proportion as the said sum assured by them should be to the whole sum at risk; and the plaintiff avers, that the said ship did, on ———, sail from said ——— on the voyage aforesaid; and whilst proceeding therein was, by the perils of the seas, dismasted, and otherwise damaged in her hull, rigging, and appurtenances; insomuch that it was

allegations, which must be proved by the plaintiff, if not admitted by the pleadings;—(1.) the Policy; (2.) the plaintiff's Interest in the subject insured, and the payment of the premium; (3.) the Inception of the Risk; (4.) the Perform-

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necessary, for the preservation of the said ship and her cargo, to throw over a part of the said cargo; and the same was accordingly thrown over for that purpose; by means of all which, the plaintiff was obliged to expend two thousand dollars in repairing the said ship at ———, and also (*or*, and is also liable to pay) the sum of five hundred dollars as a contribution to and for the loss occasioned by the said throwing over of a part of the said cargo; and the said ship also suffered much damage that was not repaired in said Cadiz; of all which the said Company, on ———, had notice, and became bound to pay the same in sixty days; yet, though said sixty days have elapsed, they have never paid the said sum of ten thousand dollars, nor any part thereof. To the damage, &c."

3. Count for a TOTAL LOSS OF A CARGO, BY FIRE. "In a plea of the case, for that on ———, a certain brigantine, called the William, was lying at ———, and the plaintiff was the owner of the cargo, (or of certain goods) then laden or about to be laden on board of the said vessel; and the said C. D., in consideration of a certain premium therefor, paid to him by the plaintiff, made a certain policy of insurance in writing upon the said cargo, (or goods) at and from said ——— to Hamburg, or any other port or ports in the north of Europe, and at and from thence to said ———, or her port of discharge in the United States; and the said C. D. by said policy promised to insure for the plaintiff ——— dollars on the said cargo (*or*, goods) for the voyage aforesaid, against the perils of fire, and other perils in the said policy specified; and the plaintiff avers, that the said vessel, with the said cargo (*or*, goods) on board, did on ——— sail from said ——— on the voyage aforesaid; and afterwards, during the said voyage, whilst the said vessel, with the said cargo on board, was lying at the port of Altona, in the north of Europe, the said cargo (or goods) was burnt, and wholly destroyed by fire; of which the said C. D. on ——— had notice, and became bound to pay the same in sixty days; yet he has not paid the said sum of ——— dollars, nor any part thereof. To the damage, &c."

4. Count for a TOTAL LOSS OF FREIGHT, BY RESTRAINT, DETAINMENT, &c. "——— for that on ——— the plaintiff was interested in the freight of a vessel called the George, then bound on a voyage hereinafter described; and the said Insurance Company, in consideration of a premium therefor, paid to them by the plaintiff, made a policy of insurance upon the said freight for the voyage from ——— to one or more ports beyond the Cape of Good Hope, one or more times, for the purpose of disposing of her outward, and procuring a return cargo, and at and from thence to ———, and thereby

ance of any precedent Condition, or Warranty, contained in the policy; and (5.) the Loss, within the terms and meaning of the policy.

§ 377. And FIRST, as to MARINE INSURANCE. In an action by the assured, the *first* step in the trial is the *proof of the policy.* The instrument itself, being the best evidence, must be produced and proved; or its loss must be accounted for, and its contents proved by secondary evidence.[1] If it was signed by another person, as the agent of the defendant, his agency must be proved.[2] And proof of the signature by an agent will satisfy an allegation of signature by the defendant himself.[3] Parol evidence of what passed at the time of making the policy, is, as we have heretofore shown, inadmissible to affect the written agreement.[4] But the general usage of merchants may be shown, to explain ambiguities or define the terms of the policy, though not to contradict its plain language.[5] The general usage of trade, in the city where the

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promised to insure for the plaintiff three thousand dollars upon the said freight, for the voyage aforesaid, against the perils of enemies, pirates, assailing thieves, restraints and detainments of all kings, princes or people, of what nation or quality soever, and against other perils in the said policy mentioned; and the plaintiff avers, that the said vessel did on ——— sail from said ——— on the voyage aforesaid, and afterwards, during said voyage, was forcibly taken on the high seas (*or*, at the Island of Sumatra, in the Indian Ocean) by certain persons to the plaintiff unknown, and detained and prevented from performing the said voyage, and thereby the said freight was wholly lost to the plaintiff; of all which the said Insurance Company, &c."

[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 557, 558.

[2] For the proof of agency, see Ante, tit. AGENCY, § 59 – 67. See also Ante, Vol. 1, § 416, 417; Brockelbank *v.* Sugrue, 5 C. & P. 21. Proof of a general agency is sufficient proof of authority to effect insurance on behalf of the assured. Barlow *v.* Leckie, 4 J. B. Moore, 8.

[3] See Ante, tit. BILLS OF EXCHANGE, § 158; Nicholson *v.* Croft, 2 Burr. 1188.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 275 – 305.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 292 – 294; Robertson *v.* Money, Ry. & M. 75; Uhde *v.* Walters, 3 Campb. 16.

insurance is effected, may also be proved for this purpose; but not the usage or practice in a particular office, or among a particular class of underwriters, where or to whom the party was not in the habit of resorting to effect insurance,[1] and which, therefore, cannot be presumed to have been known and referred to by both parties, as the basis of the contract; for it is on this ground only that evidence of usage is admitted.[2]

§ 378. *Secondly*, as to the *proof of Interest.* The plaintiff's interest in a *ship* may be shown, *primâ facie*, by proof of possession, and acts of ownership; which may be made by the captain or other officer, or by any person having competent knowledge of the facts, without the production of any documentary evidence.[3] But whenever the title to a ship comes strictly in question, no claim can be received in opposition to the modes of conveyance required by the statutes.[4] Thus, where the plaintiff claimed for a total loss, as sole owner of a ship, whose *register* stood in the names of himself and another, parol evidence, offered to show that she was in fact purchased by himself, as sole owner, was held inadmissible.[5] Where the interest is derived from a *bill of sale*, this document must be produced and proved as in other cases;[6] accompanied by evidence of the registry, where this is required by statute, in order to render the other evidence admissible.[7] But the certificate of registry is not alone sufficient to prove the plaintiff's interest in the ship, without

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[1] Gabay *v.* Lloyd, 3 B. & C. 793; Astor *v.* Union Ins. Co. 7 Cowen, R. 202; Coit *v.* Commercial Ins. Co., 7 Johns. 385.

[2] Eager *v.* Atlas Ins. Co. 14 Pick. 141.

[3] Robertson *v.* French, 4 East, 130; Sutton *v.* Buck, 2 Taunt. 302; Wendover *v.* Hogeboom, 7 Johns. 308; Amery *v.* Rogers, 1 Esp. 207; Thomas *v.* Foyle, 5 Esp. 88.

[4] Abbott on Shipping, p. 78, by Shee.

[5] Ohl *v.* The Eagle Ins. Co., 4 Mason, 172.

[6] Woodward *v.* Larkin, 3 Esp. 287.

[7] 4 Taunt. 657, per Gibbs, J.

proof of some correspondent act of ownership.[1] Whether it is conclusive against the legal ownership of persons claiming title, but whose names are not found therein, seems to depend on the registry acts. In England it has been held conclusive; but in the United States, an insurable interest has been held sufficiently proved by evidence of a title at Common Law, in a plaintiff whose name did not appear in the register.[2] This document, however, is not of itself evidence to charge a defendant as owner of the ship, without proof that he sanctioned and adopted it.[3] Where the registry of a ship is required by law to be recorded in the custom-house, a certified copy of the record is, as we have seen, admissible in evidence.[4]

§ 379. It is not material, whether the interest of the assured be *legal* or *equitable*. The interest of a trustee, *cestui que trust*, mortgagor, mortgagee, and of the owner of a qualified property, or of a lien, is sufficient for this purpose. So, of a lender on bottomry; or of the borrower, so far as regards the surplus value; or, of a captor; or, of one entitled to freight, or commissions; or, of the owner, notwithstanding the charterer has covenanted either to return the ship, or pay her value.[5] And under a general averment of interest, the

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[1] Pirie *v.* Anderson, 4 Taunt. 652; 2 Phillips on Ins. p. 487; Flower *v.* Young, 3 Campb. 240.

[2] Camden *v.* Anderson, 5 T. R. 709; Abbott on Shipping, p. 63, n. (1), by Story, J.; Ibid. p. 34, n. (2); Bixby *v.* The Franklin Ins. Co. 8 Pick. 86; Lamb *v.* Durant, 12 Mass. 54; Taggard *v.* Loring, 16 Mass. 336; 2 Phillips on Ins. p. 488; Sharp *v.* United States Ins. Co. 14 Johns. 201.

[3] Abbott on Shipping, p. 63, Story's ed.; Frazer *v.* Hopkins, 2 Taunt. 5; Smith *v.* Fuge, 3 Campb. 456; Sharp *v.* United Ins. Co. 14 Johns. 201.

[4] Ante, Vol. 1, § 484.

[5] Marshall on Ins. p. 101 – 116; 719 – 721 (3d ed.); Higginson *v.* Dall, 13 Mass. 96; Oliver *v.* Greene, 3 Mass. 133; Gordon *v.* Mass. Ins. Co. 2 Pick. 249, 259; Rider *v.* Ocean Ins. Co. 20 Pick. 259; Bartlett *v.* Walter, 13 Mass. 267; Kenny *v.* Clarkson, 1 Johns. 385; Locke *v.* N. Amer. Ins. Co. 13 Mass. 61; Strong *v.* Manuf. Ins. Co. 10 Pick. 40; Holbrook

assured may prove any species of interest, either in the whole or in any part, and recover accordingly.[1]

§ 380. The interest of the assured in the *goods*, may be proved by any of the usual mercantile documents of title, such as bills of sale; or of parcels; bills of lading, whether the holder be the shipper or the indorsee; invoices, with proof that the goods were on board; bills of charges of outfit, clearances, and the like.[2] Evidence of possession, also, and of other acts of ownership, may be received in proof of interest in the goods on board, as well as of interest in the ship.[3] And it is sufficient that the plaintiff was interested when the risk commenced, though he had no interest when the policy was effected.[4] If the defendant *pays money into Court*, this is a conclusive admission of the contract, and of the plaintiff's interest as alleged.[5]

§ 381. Where the insurance is effected by an *open policy*, the value of the plaintiff's interest must be proved *aliundè;* but if it be a *valued policy*, the policy alone is *primâ facie*

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v. Brown, 2 Mass. 280; Smith *v.* Williams, 2 Caines, Cas. 110. The interest of a *respondentia* or bottomry creditor must be specially insured as such. Glover *v.* Black, 3 Burr. 1394.

[1] Marshall on Ins. p. 719, (3d ed.) See also Crowley *v.* Cohen, 3 B. & Ad. 478.

[2] Marshall on Ins. p. 718, 724, (3d ed.); Russell *v.* Boehm, 2 Str. 1127; Dickson *v.* Lodge, 1 Stark. R. 226; McAndrew *v.* Bell, 1 Esp. 373; 2 Phillips on Ins. 489, 490, 491. See, as to the indorsee of a bill of lading, Newsom *v.* Thornton, 6 East, 41, per Ld. Ellenborough. But a bill of lading of the outward cargo is not sufficient proof of interest in the return cargo. Beal *v.* Pettit, 1 Wash. C. C. R. 241. Nor is a bill of lading, "contents unknown," any evidence of the quantity of goods or of property in the consignee. Haddow *v.* Parry, 3 Taunt. 303. An authenticated copy of an official report of the cargo of a ship, made pursuant to law, by an officer of the customs, is evidence of the shipment. Flint *v.* Flemyng, 1 B. & Ad. 45, 48; Johnson *v.* Ward, 6 Esp. 47.

[3] Ante, § 378; 2 Phillips on Ins. 489.

[4] Rhind *v.* Wilkinson, 2 Taunt. 237.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 205; Bell *v.* Ansley, 16 East, 141, 146.

evidence of the value of the property insured.[1] The usual recital in the policy, of payment of the premium, is also sufficient proof of that fact; but in the absence of such recital, the plaintiff must prove it by other evidence.[2]

§ 382. *Thirdly*, as to the *Inception of the Risk.* This applies to insurance upon a voyage named, and is proved by any competent evidence, that the *ship* actually sailed, within a reasonable time, upon the voyage intended.[3] If the insurance is for one voyage, but the ship actually sails upon another, the course of both voyages being the same to a certain point, the policy is discharged, though the loss happened before the ship reached the dividing point.[4] But if the ship sails on the voyage insured, a deviation meditated, but not carried into effect, will not vitiate the policy.[5] And the sailing must be voluntary; for if the ship, before the lading is completed, be driven from her moorings by a storm, and be lost, the averment of sailing is not considered as proved.[6] The risk on *goods* does not commence until goods are put on board, at the place named;[7] but the risk on *freight* may be shown to have commenced, by evidence of a contract to put the goods on board, the performance of which was prevented by some of the perils insured against.[8] If the risk never commenced, the plaintiff, in an action upon the policy, and in

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[1] Marshall on Ins. 719, (3d ed.); 2 Phillips on Ins. 206 – 223, 491; Lewis *v.* Rucker, 2 Burr. 1171; Alsop *v.* Commercial Ins. Co. 1 Sumner, R. 451.

[2] De Gaminde *v.* Pigou, 4 Taunt. 246; Dalzell *v.* Mair, 1 Campb. 532.

[3] Koster *v.* Innes, Ry. & M. 336; Cohen *v.* Hinckley, 2 Campb. 51.

[4] Wooldridge *v.* Boydell, 1 Doug. 16; Marsden *v.* Reid, 3 East, 572; 2 Phillips on Ins. 148; Seamans *v.* Loring, 1 Mason, R. 127.

[5] Foster *v.* Wilmer, 2 Stra. 1249; Hare *v.* Travis, 7 B. & C. 14. See 2 Phillips on Ins. ch. xi. xii.; Marshall on Ins. 260, 278, (3d ed.); Lee *v.* Gray, 7 Mass. 349; Coffin *v.* Newburyport Ins. Co. 9 Mass. 436; Hobart *v.* Norton, 8 Pick. 159.

[6] Abitbol *v.* Bristow, 6 Taunt. 464.

[7] Marshall on Ins. 244, 245, 278, 724, (3d ed.)

[8] Flint *v.* Flemyng, 1 B. & Ad. 45; Davidson *v.* Willasey, 1 M. & S. 313.

the absence of fraud, may recover back the premium, upon the common counts.[1]

§ 383. *Fourthly*, as to the performance of *precedent Conditions* and compliance with *Warranties*. All express warranties, and all affirmative averments, are in the nature of conditions precedent to the plaintiff's right to recover; and therefore must be strictly proved. Such are, warranties that the property is neutral; that the ship sailed at the time specified; that she departed with convoy; that she was of the force named; and the like. The first of these, namely, the *neutral character* of the property, being partly negative in its nature, is proved, *primâ facie*, by general evidence, leaving the contrary to be shown by the defendant.[2] The acts of the captain, in carrying neutral colors, and in addressing himself to the neutral consul while in port, and the like, are also admissible for the shipper, as *primâ facie* evidence of the neutral character of the ship.[3] If the warranty is that the ship shall *sail on or before a certain day*, stress of weather, or, an embargo by the order of government, is no excuse for non-compliance with the engagement.[4] It must also appear that the ship actually set forward on the voyage, in complete readiness for sea. Therefore, an attempt to sail, and proceeding a mile or two and then putting back, by reason of unfavorable weather; or, proceeding with only part of the crew, the remainder being engaged and ready to sail; or,

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[1] Penson *v.* Lee, 2 B. & P. 330; Penniman *v.* Tucker, 11 Mass. 66; Foster *v.* United States Ins. Co. 11 Pick. 85.

[2] Marshall on Ins. 722, 723, (3d ed.); 2 Phillips on Ins. 498 – 502.

[3] Archangelo *v.* Thompson, 2 Campb. 620. And see Bernardi *v.* Motteaux, 2 Doug. 575.

[4] Nelson *v.* Salvador, 1 M. & Malk. 309; Sanderson *v.* Busher, 4 Campb. 54, n.; Hore *v.* Whitmore, Cowp. 784. If the averment is that the ship sailed after making the policy, and the proof is that she sailed before, the variance is not material, provided the averment does not arise out of the contract. Peppin *v.* Solomons, 5 T. R. 496. An embargo at the place of rendezvous of a convoy, after the ship has actually sailed from her port, saves the warranty. Earle *v.* Harris, 1 Doug. 357.

dropping a few miles down the river; is no compliance with this warranty.[1]

§ 384. Compliance with a warranty to *sail with convoy*, may be proved by the official letters of the commander of the convoy; or, by the log-book of the convoying ship of war.[2] And where the non-performance of this warranty would have involved a breach of law, it will be *presumed* that the law has been obeyed, until the contrary has been shown.[3] *Sailing orders* are generally necessary to the performance of this warranty, if, by due diligence on the part of the master, they could have been obtained.[4] But the state of the weather is not a sufficient excuse for not joining the convoy.[5]

§ 385. *Fifthly*, as to the *Loss*. The plaintiff must also prove, that the property insured was lost, and that the loss was not remotely but *immediately caused* by one of the *perils insured against*. Whether the loss, which is proved, will satisfy the averment, is a question for the Court; but the averment itself must be proved.[6] The certificate of a Vice-Consul abroad is no evidence of the amount of the loss;[7] nor is the protest of the captain admissible as original evidence of the fact of loss, though it may be read to contradict his testimony.[8] If there is no proof of the amount of the loss, the plaintiff will be entitled to nominal damages only.[9]

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[1] Moir *v.* Royal Ex. Ass. Co. 4 Campb. 84; 6 Taunt. 241; Graham *v.* Barras, 3 N. & M. 125; 5 B. & Ad. 1011; Pettigrew *v.* Pringle, 3 B. & Ad. 514; Bowen *v.* The Hope Ins. Co. 20 Pick. 275; Robinson *v.* Manufacturing Ins. Co. 1 Met. 143.

[2] Watson *v.* King, 4 Campb. 275; D'Israeli *v.* Jowett, 1 Esp. 427.

[3] Thornton *v.* Lance, 4 Campb. 231.

[4] Webb *v.* Thompson, 1 B. & P. 5; Hibbert *v.* Pigou, 3 Doug. 224; Anderson *v.* Pitcher, 2 B. & P. 164; Sanderson *v.* Busher, 4 Campb. 54, n.

[5] Sanderson *v.* Busher, 4 Campb. 54, n.

[6] Abitbol *v.* Bristow, 6 Taunt. 464.

[7] Waldron *v.* Coombe, 3 Taunt. 162.

[8] Senat *v.* Porter, 7 T. R. 158; Christian *v.* Coombe, 2 Esp. 489.

[9] Tanner *v.* Bennett, Ry. & M. 182.

§ 386. The loss of a ship may be shown not only by direct proof, but by evidence of any circumstances inconsistent with the hypothesis of her safety; such as that, having sailed upon the voyage insured,[1] no intelligence has been received concerning her, either at her port of departure, or at her port of destination, both of which should be resorted to,[2] although a reasonable time has elapsed; in which case the Jury will be advised to presume that she foundered at sea.[3] If it has been reported, that she foundered, but that the crew were saved, yet it will not be necessary to call any of the crew.[4]

§ 387. It must be shown, that the peril insured against was the *immediate*, and not the remote *cause of the loss. Causa proxima, non remota, spectetur.* The loss must directly arise from, and not remotely be occasioned or brought about by, the peril.[5] Thus, where a peril of the sea occasioned damage to the ship, which rendered repairs necessary, and funds to provide these repairs, and in order to raise funds, the master, having no other resource, sold part of the goods on board, it was held that the underwriter on the goods was not liable as for a loss by a peril of the sea; the want of funds, and not the peril of the sea, being the immediate cause of the loss.[6] On the other hand, underwriters against perils of the sea are liable for any loss immediately arising from those perils, such as shipwreck, or collision, though it were re-

[1] Koster *v.* Jones, Ry. & M. 333; Cohen *v.* Hinckley, 2 Campb. 51.

[2] Twemlow *v.* Oswin, 2 Campb. 85. But see Marshall on Ins. 725, (3d ed.)

[3] Newby *v.* Read, Park on Ins. 106; Houstman *v.* Thornton, Holt's Cas. 242; Paddock *v.* Franklin Ins. Co. 11 Pick. 227.

[4] Koster *v.* Reed, 6 B. & C. 19.

[5] Marshall on Ins. 491, (3d ed.); 1 Phillips on Ins. 283 - 290; 2 Phillips on Ins. 194, 195; Peters *v.* The Warren Ins. Co. 14 Peters, R. 99; Columbian Ins. Co. *v.* Lawrence, 10 Peters, R. 507.

[6] Powell *v.* Gudgeon, 5 M. & S. 431, 437. So the extraordinary expense of provisions, occasioned by delay during the making of repairs, or during an embargo, is not recoverable against underwriters on the ship only. Marshall on Ins. 730, (3d ed.); Robertson *v.* Ewer, 1 T. R. 127. Yet a direct loss of provisions would be covered by a policy on the ship, of which they are ordinarily deemed a part. Marshall on Ins. 731; 1 Phillips on Ins. 71; 2 Phillips on Ins. 218.

motely occasioned by the mismanagement, negligence, or barratry of the master or mariners.[1] And if a ship, by stress of weather, be driven ashore upon an enemy's coast, and there captured, it is a loss by capture, as the immediate cause, and not by perils of the sea.[2]

§ 388. A loss by *capture* is proved by first showing a capture in fact, and then producing the sentence of condemnation; the latter generally not being admissible until the former is proved.[3] And if it appear, that the capture was by collusion between the master of the ship and the enemy, so that a charge of barratry might be supported, yet it is still also a loss by capture.[4] An averment of loss by capture by enemies unknown, is not supported by proof of seizure for breach of the revenue laws of a foreign government.[5] But a general averment of loss by seizure and confiscation by a foreign government, is proved by evidence of the seizure by the officers of the government, without putting in the sentence of condemnation.[6] And in the case of seizure of the goods by a foreign government for a cause not affecting the ship, the incidental and consequent detention of the ship is not provable against the underwriters on the ship only, as a loss by capture and detention.[7]

§ 389. If the voyage was legalized or protected by a

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[1] Walker *v.* Maitland. 5 B. & Ald. 171; Smith *v.* Scott, 4 Taunt. 126; Bishop *v.* Pentland, 7 B. & C. 214; Heyman *v.* Parish, 2 Campb. 149; Columbian Ins. Co. *v.* Lawrence, 10 Peters, R. 507; Patapsco Ins. Co. *v.* Coulter, 3 Peters, R. 222. As to what constitutes a loss by perils of the sea, see Marshall on Ins. 487 – 494, (3d ed.); 1 Phillips on Ins. 245 – 256; 2 Phillips on Ins. 189 – 191.

[2] Green *v.* Elmslie, Peake's Cas. 212.

[3] Marshall *v.* Parker, 2 Campb. 69; Visger *v.* Prescott, 2 Esp. 184. Lloyd's books are evidence of a capture, though not alone proof of notice to the assured. Abel *v.* Potts, 3 Esp. 242.

[4] Archangelo *v.* Thompson, 2 Campb. 620. See also Goldschmidt *v.* Whitmore, 3 Taunt. 508.

[5] Matthie *v.* Potts, 3 B. & P. 23.

[6] Carruthers *v.* Gray, 3 Campb. 142.

[7] Bradford *v.* Levy, 2 C. & P. 137; Ry. & M. 331.

license, the license, if existing, must be produced and proved, and shown to apply to the voyage in question.[1] If this document is lost, it may be proved by secondary evidence, as in other cases.[2] If it was granted upon condition, the plaintiff must show, that the condition has been performed.[3] And if it was a foreign license, it is a necessary part of the secondary evidence not only to show, that the party had a paper, purporting to be such a document, but to give some circumstantial proof that it was genuine; such as, that it was received from the hands of a proper officer, or, that it had been seen and respected by the officers of the government which issued it.[4]

§ 390. A loss by *barratry* is proved by evidence of any species of fraud, knavery or criminal conduct, or wilful breach of duty, in the master or mariners, by which the freighters or owners are injured.[5] If the master should proceed on his voyage in the face of inevitable danger of capture, it is barratry.[6] It is sufficient for the plaintiff, in proof of barratry by the master, to prove that the misconduct was that of the person, who acted as master, and was in fact treated as such, without either showing negatively, that he was not the owner, or affirmatively, that some other person was the owner.[7] But it must appear, that the act was done from a fraudulent motive, or with a criminal intent, or in known violation of duty; for if it was well intended, though injudicious and

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[1] Barlow *v.* McIntosh, 12 East, 311.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 84, 509, 560, 575; Rhind *v.* Wilkinson, 2 Taunt. 237; Kensington *v.* Inglis, 8 East, 273; Eyre *v.* Palsgrave, 2 Campb. 605.

[3] Camelo *v.* Britten, 4 B. & Ald. 184.

[4] Everth *v.* Tunno, 1 Stark. R. 508.

[5] Vallejo *v.* Wheeler, Cowp. 156, per Aston. J.; Lockyer *v.* Offley, 1 T. R. 259, per Willes, J.; Marshall on Ins. ch. 12, § 6; 1 Phillips on Ins. 258; Stone *v.* National Ins. Co. 19 Pick. 34, 36, 37, per Putnam, J.; Wiggin *v.* Amory, 14 Mass. 1; American Ins. Co. *v.* Dunham, 15 Wend. 9. Barratry may be committed by the general owner, as against the freighter. Vallejo *v.* Wheeler, *supra*.

[6] Earle *v.* Rowcroft, 8 East, 126; Richardson *v.* Maine F. & M. Ins. Co. 6 Mass. 102, 117.

[7] Ross *v.* Hunter, 4 T. R. 33.

disastrous in its results, it is not barratry.[1] If the property was barratrously carried into an enemy's blockaded port, and lawfully condemned as enemy's property, it does not disprove the allegation, that the loss was occasioned by the barratry of the master, in carrying the property to places unknown, whereby it was confiscated.[2]

§ 391. A loss by *stranding* is proved by evidence, that the ship has been forced on shore, or on rocks or piles, by some unforeseen acccident, and not in the ordinary course of navigation, and there rested, or was fixed, so that the voyage was interrupted. A mere temporary touching of the ground in passing over it, or grounding in a tide harbor in the place intended, is not a stranding, even though damage ensues, from some hard substance on the bottom.[3] And where a ship was run aground by collision with two others, in the Thames, this is said to have been held no stranding.[4] If the stranding is complete, the degree of damage, and the duration of the time of the vessel's remaining on shore, are not material.[5]

§ 392. The *amount of the loss*, if it is total, may be shown, as we have already seen, by the policy, with proof of *some* interest, if it is a valued policy; or by any other competent evidence, if it is not.[6] *Shipwreck* is often, but not necessarily, evidence of a total loss of the ship. It depends upon the nature and extent of the injury or damage thereby

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[1] Marshall on Ins. 521, (3d ed.); Phyn *v.* Royal Exch. Ass. Co. 7 T. R. 505. Gross malversation is evidence of fraud. Ibid.; Heyman *v.* Parish, 2 Campb. 150; Earle *v.* Rowcroft, 8 East, 126. See also Hucks *v.* Thornton Holt's Cas. 30; Wiggin *v.* Amory, 14 Mass. 1.

[2] Goldschmidt *v.* Whitmore, 3 Taunt. 508.

[3] Harman *v.* Vaux, 3 Campb. 429; McDougle *v.* Royal Exch. Ass. Co. 4 M. & S. 503; Kingsford *v.* Marshall, 8 Bing. 458; Wells *v.* Hopwood, 3 B. & Ad. 20; Bishop *v.* Pentland, 7 B. & C. 224; 2 Phillips on Ins. 330 – 335; Marshall on Ins. 232, 233, (3d ed.)

[4] Baring *v.* Henkle, Marshall on Ins. 232, (3d ed.) *Sed quære.*

[5] Harman *v.* Vaux, 3 Campb. 430; Baker *v.* Towry, 1 Stark. R. 436.

[6] See Ante, § 381; 3 Mason, R. 71. The value of goods, in an open policy, is made up of the invoice price, together with the premium and commissions. Marshall on Ins. 629, (3d ed.)

occasioned. If the loss is not actually total, but the enterprise or voyage insured is defeated, or if the property insured specifically remains, but is damaged to a fatal extent, as, for example, to more than one half of its value, this, though in fact it may be but a partial loss, may be made constructively total, by an *abandonment* of the property by the assured, to the underwriter.[1] When, therefore, the assured goes for a constructively total loss, he must prove, first, the extent of the loss in fact, as exceeding half the value, or as being destructive of the enterprise ; and secondly, his abandonment of the property to the underwriters. But if the abandon-

[1] Marshall on Ins. 566, 567, 592, (3d ed.) ; 1 Phillips on Ins. 382 – 388, 401 – 406, 441 – 449 ; 3 Kent, Comm. 318 – 335 ; Bradlie *v.* The Maryland Insurance Co. 12 Peters, R. 378. The law of abandonment was fully discussed, and all the cases reviewed by Mr. Justice Story, in his learned opinion in Peele *v.* Merchants Ins. Co. 3 Mason, R. 27 – 65. The general principle, extracted from all the cases, in regard to ships, he thus states : — "The right of abandonment has been admitted to exist, where there is a forcible dispossession or ouster of the owner of the ship, as in cases of capture ; where there is a moral restraint or detention, which deprives the owner of the free use of the ship, as in case of embargoes, blockades, and arrests by sovereign authority ; where there is a present total loss of the physical possession and use of the ship, as in case of submersion ; where there is a total loss of the ship for the voyage, as in case of shipwreck, so that the ship cannot be repaired for the voyage in the port where the disaster happens ; and, lastly, where the injury is so extensive, that by reason of it the ship is useless, and yet the necessary repairs would exceed her present value. None of these cases will, I imagine, be disputed. If there be any general principle that pervades and governs them, it seems to be this, that the right to abandon exists, whenever from the circumstances of the case, the ship, for all the useful purposes of a ship for the voyage, is, for the present, gone from the control of the owner, and the time when she will be restored to him in a state to resume the voyage is uncertain, or unreasonably distant, or the risk and expense are disproportioned to the expected benefit and objects of the voyage. In such a case, the law deems the ship, though having a physical existence, as ceasing to exist for purposes of utility, and therefore subjects her to be treated as lost." See 3 Mason, R. 65. See also Am. Ins. Co. *v.* Ogden, 15 Wend. 532. Whether an abandonment is necessary, where the ship or goods have been necessarily sold by the master, *quære;* and see Roux *v.* Salvador, 1 Bing. N. C. 526, that it is ; and Gordon *v.* Massachusetts F. & M. Ins. Co. 2 Pick. 249, 261, 267, and cases there cited ; approved in 5 Peters, R. 623 ; that it is not.

ment has been accepted, this supersedes the necessity of proof of the loss;[1] and long acquiescence without objection, under circumstances calling for some action on the part of the underwriters, is evidence from which an acceptance may be inferred by the Jury.[2]

§ 393. The amount of a loss may be proved by an *adjustment*, signed by the underwriters, which is usually indorsed on the back of the policy. But the form of it is not material; for the acceptance of an abandonment is an admission of the loss as total.[3] In whatever form the adjustment may be, it is an admission of all the facts, necessary to be proved by the assured, to entitle him to recover in an action on the policy. It is not, however, conclusive; but, like other *primâ facie* evidence, it throws the burden of proof on the other party, to impeach it; which he may do by showing that it was made under a mistake of fact, or procured by fraud in the assured or his agent.[4] In cases proper for general average, it is the duty of the master, on his arrival at the foreign port of destination, to have the loss adjusted by a competent person, according to the usage and law of the port; and being thus fairly made, it is conclusive and binding upon all the parties concerned.[5]

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[1] 1 Phillips on Ins. 449, 450; Smith *v.* Robertson, 2 Dow, 474; Brotherston *v.* Barber, 5 M. & S. 418.

[2] Hudson *v.* Harrison, 3 B. & B. 97; 3 Moore, 288, S. C.; Smith *v.* Robertson, 2 Dow, 474. The observation of Story, J. in Peele *v.* Merchants Ins. Co. 3 Mason, R. 81, that the silence of the underwriter is not, *per se*, proof of his acceptance, is not conceived to impugn the rule in the text. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 197; Peele *v.* Suffolk Ins. Co. 7 Pick. 254; Reynolds *v.* Ocean Ins. Co. 22 Pick. 191; 1 Met. 160.

[3] Bell *v.* Smith, 2 Johns. 98. An award of arbitrators is an adjustment. Newburyport Ins. Co. *v.* Oliver, 8 Mass. 402.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 209, 212; 3 Kent, Comm. 339; 1 Phillips on Ins. 500–502; Marshall on Ins. 642–647, (3d ed.), and cases there cited; Dow *v.* Smith, 1 Caines, R. 32; Bilbie *v.* Lumley, 2 East, 469; Faugier *v.* Hallet, 2 Johns. Cas. 233; Haigh *v.* De La Cour, 3 Campb. 319. An agent who has authority to subscribe a policy, has also authority to sign an adjustment of loss. Richardson *v.* Anderson, 1 Campb. 43, n.; The Chesapeake Ins. Co. *v.* Stark, 6 Cranch, 268.

[5] Strong *v.* New York Firem. Ins. Co. 11 Johns. 323; Simonds *v.* White,

§ 394. The clause usually inserted in policies, that the money is to be paid in a certain number of days *after preliminary proof of loss*, is liberally expounded, requiring only the best evidence of the fact in possession of the party at the time. Proof, in the strict and legal sense, is not required. Thus, the protest of the master,[1] or a copy of a letter from him to the correspondents of the owner, transmitted by them to the owner, and stating the loss,[2] or, the report by a pilot of the capture of the ship,[3] have been held sufficient, that being the best evidence the party possessed.[4] Under a policy containing this clause, proof of the loss alone has been held sufficient, without any proof of interest;[5] but if evidence of interest is required, the production of the usual mercantile documents, such as the bill of lading, invoice, bill of parcels, and the like, is sufficient.[6] And whatever be the nature of the preliminary proof, if the underwriter does not object to its sufficiency at the time it is exhibited, but refuses to pay the loss on some other specified ground, the objection of insufficiency in the proof is waived.[7]

§ 395. The specific *defences* usually made to an action on a marine policy, are of two classes; namely, —(1.) Misrepresentation or Concealment of material facts, by the assured, during the time of treating for the policy; —(2.) Breach of Warranty.

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2 B. & C. 805; 4 Dowl. & Ry. 375; Dalglish *v.* Davidson, 5 Dowl. & Ry. 6; Loring *v.* Neptune Ins. Co. 20 Pick. 411. But it does not bar the ship-owner from claiming of the underwriter a loss not included in the foreign adjustment. Thornton *v.* U. States Ins. Co. 3 Fairf. 150; 3 Kent, Comm. 224.

[1] Lenox *v.* United Ins. Co. 3 Johns. Cas. 224.

[2] Lawrence *v.* United Ins. Co. 11 Johns. 241.

[3] Munson *v.* New Eng. Ins. Co. 4 Mass. 88.

[4] Ibid. See also Barker *v.* Phenix Ins. Co. 8 Johns. 307; Lovering *v.* Mercantile Ins. Co. 12 Pick. 348.

[5] Talcott *v.* Marine Ins. Co. 2 Johns. 130.

[6] Johnston *v.* Columbian Ins. Co. 7 Johns. 315.

[7] Voss *v.* Robinson, 9 Johns. 192; Martin *v.* Fishing Ins. Co. 20 Pick. 389.

§ 396. And First, as to *Misrepresentation* and *Concealment.* As this contract requires the highest degree of good faith, and the most delicate integrity, the assured is held bound to communicate to the underwriter, at the time of the treaty, every fact, which is in truth material to the risk, and within his knowledge, whether he deems it material to the risk, or not; and all the information he possesses, in regard to material facts, though he does not know or believe it to be true, and it proves to be false.[1] And where there are successive underwriters on the same policy, a misrepresentation to the first has been held a misrepresentation to all.[2] Nor does innocency of intention, or mistake, on the part of the assured, make any difference; for the underwriter is equally injured, whether he was misled through ignorance or fraud, and the policy, in either case, is void.[3] But a representation, though untrue, will not avoid the policy, if the underwriter is not deceived by it; as, where a ship is cleared for one port, with liberty to touch at an intermediate port, but intending to go direct to the port of ultimate destination, such being the known and uniform course of trade at the time, for the sake of avoiding the operation of certain foreign regulations.[4] And it is in all cases sufficient if the representation be true in substance. If it is made by an agent, he also is bound to communicate all material facts within his own knowledge, and all the information he has received, in the same manner as if

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[1] Lynch *v.* Hamilton, 3 Taunt. 37; Marshall on Ins. 449–478, (3d ed.); 1 Phillips on Ins. ch. vii.; Alston *v.* Mechanics Ins. Co. 4 Hill, N. Y. Rep. 329; Bryant *v.* Ocean Ins. Co. 22 Pick. 200; Curry *v.* Com'th Ins. Co. 10 Pick. 535; Seton *v.* Low, 1 Johns. Cas. 1.

[2] Barber *v.* Fletcher, 1 Doug. 305; Marsden *v.* Reid, 3 East, 573; 1 Phillips on Ins. 84; Pawson *v.* Watson, Cowp. 787; Marshall on Ins. 454, (3d ed.) But not as to an underwriter on a different policy, though on the same risk. Elting *v.* Scott, 2 Johns. 157. The doctrine of the text, however, has been questioned. See Forrester *v.* Pigou, 1 M. & S. 9; Brine *v.* Featherstone, 4 Taunt. 871.

[3] Bryant *v.* Ocean Ins. Co. 22 Pick. 200.

[4] Planche *v.* Fletcher, 1 Doug. 251.

he were the principal; and this, whether the principal had knowledge or information of the facts, or not.[1]

§ 397. On the other hand, the assured is *not bound* to state his *opinions* or belief or conclusions, respecting the facts communicated; nor to communicate matters, which lessen the risk; or which are known, or ought to be known to the underwriter; or which are equally open to both parties; or which are general topics of speculation; or are subjects of warranty.[2] And mere silence concerning a material fact, known to the underwriter, is not a culpable concealment, if no inquiry is made on the subject.[3] The question, whether the facts not disclosed were material to the risk, is for the Jury to determine;[4] and to this point, the opinions of others, however experienced in sea risks, are not admissible,[5] unless, perhaps, where the materiality is purely a question of science.[6]

§ 398. The defence of concealment being nearly allied to the charge of fraud, the *burden of proof* is upon the underwriters, to establish both the existence of the fact concealed, and its materiality to the risk; but the latter may be inferred from the nature of the fact itself.[7] If the fact concealed was a matter of general notoriety in the place of residence of the

[1] Marshall on Ins. 464, (3d ed.) The representation by a broker, made at the time of treating for the policy, is binding on the assured, unless it is withdrawn or qualified before the execution of the policy. Edwards *v.* Footner, 1 Campb. 530.

[2] Marshall on Ins. 453–460, 472, 473, (3d ed.); Walden *v.* New York Ins. Co. 12 Johns. 128; Bell *v.* Bell, 2 Campb. 475, 479; 1 Phillips on Ins. 103.

[3] Green *v.* Merchants Ins. Co. 10 Pick. 402. And see Laidlaw *v.* Organ, 2 Wheat. 178, 195.

[4] Littledale *v.* Dixon, 1 New Rep. 151; (4 B. &. P. 151;) McDowell *v.* Fraser, 1 Doug. 260; New York Ins. Co. *v.* Walden, 12 Johns. 513.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 441.

[6] Berthon *v.* Loughman, 2 Stark. R. 258; 2 Stark. Evid. 649.

[7] Tidmarsh *v.* Washington Ins. Co. 4 Mason, R. 439, 441, per Story, J.; Fiske *v.* New Eng. Ins. Co. 15 Pick. 310, 316; 2 Phillips on Ins. 504; Ante, Vol. 1, § 34, 35, 80.

assured, this may be shown to the Jury, as tending to prove that the assured had knowledge of the fact.[1]

§ 399. Secondly, as to *Breach of warranty.* Besides the *express warranties*, frequently inserted in policies of insurance, such as, that the ship was *safe*, or *sailed*, or was *to sail* on a given day, or should sail with *convoy*, or that the property was *neutral;* there are certain *warranties implied* by law in every contract of this sort, namely, that the ship shall be *seaworthy* when she sails; that she shall be *documented* and *navigated* in conformity with her national character, and with *reasonable skill* and care; that the *voyage is lawful* and shall be *lawfully performed;* and that it shall be pursued in the usual course, without wilful *deviation.* A breach, in any of these, is a valid defence to an action on the policy.[2]

§ 400. The warranty of *seaworthiness* imports that the ship is stanch and sound, of sufficient materials and construction, with sufficient sails, tackle, rigging, cables, anchors, stores and supplies, a captain of competent skill and capacity, a competent and sufficient crew, a pilot, when necessary, and, generally, that she is in every respect fit for the voyage insured.[3] And neither the innocence nor ignorance of the insured, nor the knowledge of the underwriter, will excuse a breach of this warranty.[4] The beginning of the risk is the period to which this warranty relates. If the vessel subsequently becomes unseaworthy, the warranty is not broken, if the assured uses his best endeavor to remedy the defect; and of a neglect to do this, the underwriter can avail himself only when a loss has occurred in consequence thereof.[5]

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[1] 2 Phillips on Ins. 505; Livingston *v.* Delafield, 3 Caines, R. 51, 52, 53; Brander *v.* Ferriday, 16 Louis. R. 296; Ante, Vol. 1, § 138.

[2] Marshall on Ins. 353, 354, (3d ed.); 1 Phillips on Ins. 112, 113; Paddock *v.* Franklin Ins. Co. 11 Pick. 227; Stocker *v.* Merrimack Ins. Co. 6 Mass. 220; Cleaveland *v.* Union Ins. Co. 8 Mass. 308.

[3] 1 Phillips on Ins. ch. 7, sec. 1, 2; Marshall on Ins. 146 – 160, (3d ed.)

[4] Marshall on Ins. 152 – 157, (3d ed.); Park on Ins. 343.

[5] 1 Phillips on Ins. 117, 118; Deblois *v.* Ocean Ins. Co. 16 Pick. 303;

§ 401. Where unseaworthiness of the ship is relied on, as a non-compliance with an implied warranty, the ship will be *presumed seaworthy*, and to continue so, until the contrary is proved by the underwriter, or shown from the evidence adduced on the other side.[1] And this may not only be shown by any competent direct evidence, but may be proved, inferentially, by evidence of the bad condition of the ship soon after sailing, without the occurrence of any new and sufficient cause.[2] After proof of her actual condition, experienced shipwrights, who never saw her, may be asked their opinion, whether, upon the facts sworn to, she was seaworthy or not.[3] But a sentence of condemnation for unseaworthiness, in a foreign Vice-Admiralty Court, after a survey, though conclusive to prove the fact of condemnation, has been held inadmissible as evidence of the fact recited in it, that, from prior defects, unseaworthiness might be presumed; nor are the reports of surveyors abroad, admissible evidence of the facts contained in them.[4]

§ 402. If the defence rests on the *violation of law* by the assured, whether in the object or the conduct of the voyage, such as, non-compliance with the convoy-act, or destination

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Weir *v.* Aberdeen, 2 B. & Ald. 320; Starbuck *v.* New Eng. Ins. Co. 19 Pick. 198; Paddock *v.* Franklin Ins. Co. 11 Pick. 227; Copeland *v.* New Eng. Ins. Co. 2 Metc. 432; Watson *v.* Clark, 1 Dow, 344; Hollingsworth *v.* Brodrick, 7 Ad. & El. 40; 2 N. & P. 608; 1 Jur. 430.

[1] Parker *v.* Potts, 3 Dow, 23; Taylor *v.* Lowell, 3 Mass. 347; Barnewall *v.* Church, 1 Caines, R. 234, 246; Paddock *v.* Franklin Ins. Co. 11 Pick. 227, 236, 237; Martin *v.* Fishing Ins. Co. 20 Pick. 389; Talcot *v.* Commercial Ins. Co. 2 Johns. 124. But see Tidmarsh *v.* Washington Ins. Co. 4 Mason, R. 441, per Story, J.

[2] Marshall on Ins. 157; Watson *v.* Clark, 1 Dow, 344; Parker *v.* Potts, 3 Dow, 23; Douglas *v.* Scougall, 4 Dow, 269; Park on Ins. 333; 1 Phillips on Ins. 116.

[3] Beckwith *v.* Sydebotham, 1 Campb. 117; Thornton *v.* Royal Exch. Co. Peake's Cas. 25; Ante, Vol. 1, § 440.

[4] Marshall on Ins. 151, 152, (3d ed.); Wright *v.* Barnard, Ibid. p. 152; Dorr *v.* Pacific Ins. Co. 7 Wheat. 581; Watson *v.* North Amer. Ins. Co. 2 Wash. C. C. R. 152; Saltus *v.* Commercial Ins. Co. 10 Johns. 58.

to a hostile port; or, on any neglect of duty in the master; the burden of proof is on the underwriter; it being always presumed that the law has been observed, and that duty has been done, till the contrary is shown.[1] The want of *neutral character* is usually shown by a decree of condemnation for that cause; and to this point, the sentence of a foreign tribunal of competent jurisdiction, is, as we have seen, conclusive.[2] The fabrication and spoliation of documents and papers are also admissible evidence to the same point, though not conclusive in law.[3] If the defendant would impugn the plaintiff's right to recover for a loss by capture, on the ground that the sentence of condemnation, rendered in a foreign Court, appears to have been founded on the want of documents, not required by the law of nations, which the plaintiff ought to have provided; the burden of proof is on the defendant, to show the foreign law or treaty, which rendered it necessary for the plaintiff to provide such documents.[4]

§ 403. The defence of *deviation* is made out by proof that there has been a voluntary departure from, or delay in, the usual and regular course of the voyage insured, without necessity or reasonable cause. The ordinary cases of necessity, which justify a deviation, are, stress of weather; want of necessary repairs, or men; to join convoy; to succor ships in distress; to avoid capture, or detention; sickness of the captain or crew; mutiny; and the like.[5]

§ 404. In the SECOND PLACE, as to INSURANCE AGAINST FIRE. Here, the same general principles apply, as in the case

[1] Thornton *v.* Lance, 4 Campb. 231; Ante, Vol. 1, § 34, 35, 80, 81; 2 Phillips on Ins. 503, 504.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 541.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 37.

[4] Le Cheminant *v.* Pearson, 4 Taunt. 367.

[5] Marshall on Ins. 177–206, (3d ed.); 1 Phillips on Ins. 179–216; Coffin *v.* Newburyport Ins. Co. 9 Mass. 436; Stocker *v.* Harris, 3 Mass. 409. Putting into a port to put the vessel in good trim, if it could not be conveniently done at sea, is not a deviation. Chase *v.* Eagle Ins. Co. 5 Pick. 51.

of Marine Insurance. The declaration contains similar allegations as to the contract, the performance of conditions, and the loss; and the points to which the evidence is to be applied are generally the same, differing only so far as the subjects differ in their nature. The policy is to be produced and proved as in other cases, together with proof of the payment of the premium, and of the plaintiff's interest in the property, of his compliance with all the conditions precedent, and of the loss, by fire, within the period limited in the policy.[1]

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[1] See Ellis on Fire and Life Insurance, p. 24 – 58, 61 – 66, 93, 94, in the Law Library, Vol. 4; 3 Kent, Comm. 370 – 376; Lawrence *v.* Columbian Ins. Co. 2 Peters, R. 25; 10 Peters, R. 507.

The following is the usual form of a count upon a valued Fire-Policy: — — "for that the plaintiff, on ———, was interested in a certain dwelling house in ———, then occupied by him, to the value of ——— dollars, and so continued interested until the destruction of said house by fire, as hereinafter mentioned: — and the said (*defendants*), on the same day, in consideration of a premium in money then and there paid to them therefor by the plaintiff, made a policy of insurance upon the said dwelling-house, and thereby promised the plaintiff to insure ——— dollars thereon, from said ——— day of ——— until the ——— day of ———, against all such immediate loss or damage as should happen to said dwelling-house by fire, other than fire happening by means of any invasion, insurrection, riot or civil commotion, or of any military or usurped power, to the amount aforesaid, to be paid to the plaintiff in sixty days after notice and proof of the same; upon condition that the plaintiff, in case of such loss, should forthwith give notice thereof to said Company; and as soon thereafter as possible should deliver in a particular account thereof under his hand, and verified by his oath or affirmation; and if required should produce his books of account and other proper vouchers; and should declare on oath whether any and what other insurance was made upon said property; and should procure a certificate under the hand of a magistrate, notary public, or clergyman (most contiguous to the place of the fire, and not concerned in the loss, nor related to the plaintiff), that he was, at the time of certifying, acquainted with the character and circumstances of the plaintiff, and knew or verily believed that he really, and by misfortune, and without fraud or evil practice, had sustained by such fire loss and damage to the amount therein mentioned: — and the plaintiff avers that afterwards, and before the expiration of the time limited in said policy, to wit, on the ——— day of ———, the said dwelling-house was accidentally, and by misfortune, totally consumed by fire: — of which loss the plaintiff forthwith gave notice

§ 405. The proof of loss must show an *actual ignition* by fire; damage by heat alone, without actual ignition, not being covered by the policy.[1] And as to the plaintiff's interest, it is not necessary that it be absolute, unqualified, or immediate; a trustee, mortgagee, reversioner, factor, or other bailee, being at liberty to insure their respective interests, subject only to the rules adopted by the underwriters, which generally require that such interests be distinctly specified.[2] But a policy against fire is a personal contract only; and therefore if the assured parts with all his interest in the property, before a loss happens, the policy is at an end; though, if he retains a partial or qualified interest, it will still be protected.[3]

§ 406. Though the plaintiff must here also, as in other cases, show a compliance with all *precedent conditions* and

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to said (*defendants*), and as soon as possible thereafter, to wit, on ———, delivered to them a particular account thereof, under his hand, and verified by his oath, and did at the same time declare on his oath that no other insurance was made on said property; [except ———] and afterwards, on ———, did procure a certificate, under the hand of [A. B.] Esquire, a magistrate most contiguous to the place of said fire, not concerned in said loss, nor related to the plaintiff, that he was then acquainted with the character and circumstances of the plaintiff, and verily believed that he really, and by misfortune, had sustained, by said fire, loss and damage to the amount of the sum in said certificate mentioned, to wit, ———, and on the same day the plaintiff produced and delivered said certificate to the said (*defendants*). Yet, though requested, and though sixty days after such notice and proof of said loss have elapsed, the said (*defendants*) have never paid either of the sums aforesaid to the plaintiff," &c. See, as to stating the limitations and qualifications of the contract, 1 Chitty's Pl. 267 – 269, 316; Clarke *v.* Gray, 6 East, 564; Howell *v.* Richards, 11 East, 633; Hotham *v.* E. Ind. Co. 1 T. R. 638; Browne *v.* Knill, 2 B. & B. 395; Tempany *v.* Burnand, 4 Camp. 20; 6 Vin. Ab. 450, pl. 40; Anon. Th. Jones, 125; Butterworth *v.* Ld. Despencer, 3 M. & S. 150. And see *contra*, 8 Conn. 459.

[1] Austin *v.* Drew, 4 Campb. 360; 6 Taunt. 436. If the fire was caused by mere negligence of the assured, it is still covered by the policy. Shaw *v.* Robberds, 6 Ad. & El. 75; Waters *v.* Merchants Ins. Co. 11 Peters, 213; 3 Kent, Comm. 374.

[2] Ellis on Insurance, p. 22; Marshall on Ins. 789, (3d ed.); Lawrence *v.* Columbian Ins. Co. 2 Peters, R. 25, 49; 10 Peters, R. 507.

[3] Ætna Fire Ins. Co. *v.* Tyler, 16 Wend. 385; 2 Peters, R. 25; 10 Peters, R. 507.

warranties; yet if any mistake or misrepresentation, in this or any other case, has been occasioned by the insurers themselves or their agents, the assured is excused.[1] The usual stipulation in these policies, that the insured shall, upon any loss, forthwith deliver an account of it, and procure a certificate from the nearest clergyman or magistrate, stating his belief that the loss actually occurred, and without fraud, &c., is a condition precedent, the performance of which must be particularly alleged and strictly proved.[2] But slight proof that the certifying magistrate is the nearest one, is sufficient.[3] And it is sufficient if the condition be performed in reasonable time.[4]

§ 407. In the estimation of *damages*, the question for the Jury is, the actual loss of the plaintiff; which is to be ascertained by the expense of restoring the property as it was before, without any deduction for the difference of value between new and old materials, or any regard to the cost of the property. But if it is a *valued policy*, and the loss is total, the value stated is in the nature of liquidated damages.[5]

§ 408. Where the *defence* is, that the property was *wilfully burnt by the plaintiff* himself, the crime must be as fully and satisfactorily proved to the Jury, as would warrant them in finding him guilty on an indictment for the same offence.[6] If the defence is, that the *risk* has been *materially increased*, so as to render the policy void, the question, whether, upon the facts proved, the risk is increased, is for the Jury to determine.[7] But it is not necessary for the defendant to show that

[1] Newcastle Ins. Co. *v.* Macmorran, 3 Dow, 255. See, as to representations, 2 Phillips on Ins. 96 – 100, 136 – 142; 3 Kent, Comm. 372 – 375.

[2] Worsley *v.* Wood, 6 T. R. 710; 2 H. Bl. 574; Marshall on Ins. 807 – 811, (3d ed.)

[3] Cornell *v.* Le Roy, 9 Wend. 163.

[4] Lawrence *v.* Columbian Ins. Co. 10 Peters, R. 507.

[5] Vance *v.* Foster, 1 Irish Circuit Cases, 51, cited 3 Steph. N. P. 2084; Harris *v.* Eagle Fire Co. 5 Johns. 368, 373; 1 Phillips on Ins. 375.

[6] Thurtell *v.* Beaumont, 1 Bing. 339.

[7] Curry *v.* Commonwealth Ins. Co. 10 Pick. 585.

any loss has resulted therefrom; for it is the change of circumstances and consequent increase of peril, that absolves the underwriter; and not the actual loss.[1] Change of circumstances alone, without consequent increase of risk, is not sufficient to avoid the policy; and therefore the erection of a wooden building, in actual contact with the building insured, will not have this effect, unless the risk is thereby increased.[2] The change of use, too, must be habitual, or of a permanent character. Thus, where the policy was on premises "where no fire is kept, and where no hazardous goods are deposited," a loss occasioned by making a fire once on the premises, and heating tar, for the purpose of making repairs, was held covered by the policy.[3] And where a kiln, used for drying corn, was upon one occasion used for the more dangerous process of drying bark, whereby the building took fire and was consumed, the underwriters, on the same principle, were held liable.[4]

§ 409. In the THIRD PLACE, as to INSURANCE UPON LIVES. The same principles, course of proceeding, defences, and rules of evidence, are applicable here, as in policies on other subjects, which have been already considered.[5] But in regard to the *interest* of the plaintiff in the life in question, it is not necessary, that it be such as to constitute the basis of any direct claim in favor of the plaintiff upon the party whose life is insured; it is sufficient if an indirect advantage may result to the plaintiff from his life; and therefore the reciprocal interests of husband and wife, parent and child, and brother and sister, in the lives of each other, are sufficient to support this contract.[6]

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[1] Merriam *v.* Middlesex Ins. Co. 21 Pick. 162.

[2] Stetson *v.* Massachusetts Ins. Co. 4 Mass. 330.

[3] Dobson *v.* Sotheby, 1 M. & Malk. 90.

[4] Shaw *v.* Robberds, 6 Ad. & El. 75.

[5] See 3 Kent, Comm. 365 – 370; Ellis on Ins. p. 161 – 171; 2 Phillips on Ins. 100 – 103, 143 – 145, 199; Marshall on Ins. 770 – 784, (3d ed.); 3 Steph. N. P. 2068 – 2076

[6] Ibid.; Ellis on Ins. p. 122 – 128; Lord *v.* Dall, 12 Mass. 115.

LIBEL AND SLANDER.

§ 410. As the general principles and rules of proceeding are the same, whether the plaintiff has been slandered by words, or libelled by writing, signs, pictures, or other symbols, both these modes of injury will be treated together.[1] In

[1] The general form of a declaration for a *libel*, where no special inducement is requisite, is as follows: —

— "In a plea of tresspass on the case; for that the said [*defendant*] wickedly intending to injure the plaintiff, heretofore, to wit, on ——— did maliciously compose and publish, of and concerning the plaintiff, a certain false, scandalous, and defamatory libel, containing, among other things, the false, scandalous, and defamatory matters following, of and concerning the plaintiff, that is to say, [Here state the libellous matter, *in hæc verba*, with proper *innuendos*.] By means of the committing of which grievances by the said [*defendant*], the plaintiff has been brought into public scandal and disgrace, and greatly injured in his good name, and otherwise injured." [If special damage has been sustained, by words not actionable in themselves, it should be here particularly alleged.]

The usual introductory averment of the plaintiff's good name and reputation, &c., is altogether superfluous, his good character being presumed.

For *verbal slander*, charging an indictable offence, and not requiring a special inducement, the declaration is as follows: —

— "for that the said (*defendant*) wickedly intending to injure the plaintiff, heretofore, to wit, on ——— in a certain discourse which he then had of and concerning the plaintiff, did, in the presence and hearing of divers persons, maliciously and falsely speak and publish of and concerning the plaintiff, the following false, scandalous, and defamatory words, that is to say, [here state the words, with proper *innuendos*.] By means," &c., as before.

The following is an example of a count for words not in themselves actionable, with a special inducement: —

— "for that heretofore, and before the speaking of the words hereinafter mentioned, to wit, at the ——— Court, begun and holden at ———, in and for the county of ———, on ———, a certain action was pending between the plaintiff and the said (*defendant*), upon the trial whereof in said Court, and in the due course of legal proceedings therein, the plaintiff, being duly sworn before the said Court, made affidavit and testified touching the loss of a certain promissory note in controversy in said action, and material to the

either case, the plea of the general issue will require the plaintiff to prove, (1.) the special character and extrinsic facts, when they are essential to the action; (2.) the speaking of the words, or publication of the libel; (3.) the truth of the *colloquium* and *innuendos;* (4.) the defendant's malicious intention, where malice in fact is material; and (5.) the damage, where special damages are alleged, or more than nominal damages are expected.

§ 411. It was formerly held, that the question, whether the publication proved was or was not a libel, or slanderous, was a question of law; and the general dislike of this doctrine has occasioned the enactment of statutes[1] for the purpose of referring this question, at least in criminal cases, to the Jury. But such statutes are now understood to be merely declaratory of the true doctrine of the Common Law; and accordingly it is now held, that the Judge is not bound to state to the Jury, as a matter of law, whether the publication is a libel, or not; but that the proper course is for him to define what is a libel in point of law, and to leave it to the Jury to say, whether the publication falls within that definition, and, as incidental to that, whether it is calculated to injure the reputation of the plaintiff.[2]

§ 412. (1.) Where the plaintiff's *office or special character*

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issue joined therein; and the said (*defendant*), wickedly intending to injure the plaintiff, did afterwards, on ——— in a certain discourse which he then had of and concerning the plaintiff, in the presence and hearing of divers persons, maliciously and falsely speak and publish of and concerning the plaintiff, and of and concerning his affidavit aforesaid, the following false, scandalous and defamatory words, that is to say, 'He,' (meaning the plaintiff,) 'has forsworn himself,' thereby meaning that the plaintiff, in his affidavit, had committed the crime of perjury. By means," &c. as before.

[1] 32 Geo. 3, c. 60; Constitution of Maine, Art. 1, § 4; Const. of New York, Art. 7, § 9; Rev. Stat. New York, Part 1, ch. 4, § 21.

[2] Parmiter *v.* Coupland, 6 M. & W. 105, 108; Baylis *v.* Lawrence, 11 Ad. & El. 920. And see Tuson *v.* Evans, 12 Ad. & El. 733, where the same doctrine is substantially confirmed. See acc. Dalloway *v.* Turrill, 26 Wend. 383; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 306, n. (1), by Wendell.

is alleged in *general terms*, it is sufficient to prove, by general evidence, that he was in the actual possession and enjoyment of the office, or in the actual exercise of the calling, profession, or employment in question, without strict proof of any legal inception, investment or appointment.[1] Thus, the general allegation that the plaintiff was a magistrate, or peace officer, or an attorney of a particular Court, may be proved by general evidence, that he acted in such character.[2] So, it seems, if he alleges himself a *physician*;[3] though formerly some doubts have been entertained on this point; principally on the ground, that the statute prohibited the practice of that profession, without certain previous qualifications. But this objection proceeds on the presumption, that the law has not been complied with; which is contrary to the rule of presumption as now well settled.[4] If, however, the plaintiff *specially* alleges the mode of his appointment, or otherwise qualifies the allegation of his special character, as, by stating that he is "a physician, and has regularly taken his degree of doctor of physic," the special matter must be strictly proved by the best evidence of the fact.[5] But if the special matter does not amount to a qualification of that which might have been more generally alleged, but is merely cumulative and independent, it is conceived that general evidence would still be sufficient.[6] And where the slander or libel assumes, that the plaintiff possesses the character alleged, as, if he was slanderously spoken of in

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[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 5, by Wendell. And see Picton *v.* Jackson, 4 C. & P. 257.

[2] Berryman *v.* Wise, 4 T. R. 366; Ante, Vol. 1, § 83, 92; Jones *v.* Stevens, 11 Price, 235; Pearce *v.* Whale, 5 B. & C. 38. Where the words were charged as spoken of the plaintiff in his office of treasurer and collector, evidence that he was treasurer only, was held insufficient. Sellers *v.* Till, 4 B. & C. 655.

[3] McPherson *v.* Chedeall, 24 Wend. 24; Finch *v.* Gridley, 25 Wend. 469; 1 Stark. on Slander, p. 361, [405]; Brown *v.* Minns, 2 Rep. Const. Ct. 235.

[4] Smith *v.* Taylor, 1 New Rep. 196, [4 B. & P. 196]; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 9, [6].

[5] Moises *v.* Thornton, 8 T. R. 303; Ante, Vol. 1, § 58, 195, n. 1.

[6] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 11, note (*p*), [8].

that character, by his title of attorney,[1] clergyman,[2] or other functionary,[3] proof of the words is sufficient evidence that he held the office.

§ 413. In regard to the prefatory allegations of *other extrinsic facts*, these, where they are material, must be strictly proved as alleged; but if they are in their nature divisible and independent, this part of the declaration will be maintained by evidence of so much as, if alleged alone, would have been sufficient.[4]

§ 414. (2.) The plaintiff must also prove the *fact of the publication* of the words by the defendant. Words spoken may be proved by any person who heard them, though they are alleged to have been spoken in the hearing of A. B. and others.[5] And here also, if the words are in themselves actionable, and the slanders are several and independent, it is sufficient to prove some of them;[6] but if they constitute one general charge, they must all be proved.[7] And in all cases, the words must be proved strictly as they are alleged. But though it is not competent for the witness to state the impression produced on his mind by the whole of the conversation;[8] yet it has been held sufficient to prove the substance of the words, and the sense and manner of speaking them.[9] If they are alleged as spoken affirmatively, proof that they were spoken interrogatively will not support the count.[10] So, an

[1] Berryman *v.* Wise, 4 T. R. 366.

[2] Cummen *v.* Smith, 2 S. & R. 440.

[3] Yrisarri *v.* Clement, 3 Bing. 432. See also Rex *v.* Sutton, 4 M. & S. 548, 549, per Bayley, J.; Bagnall *v.* Underwood, 11 Price, 621; Gould *v.* Hulme, 3 C. & P. 625.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 58 – 63, 67; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 14, [12.]

[5] Bull. N. P. 5.

[6] 2 East, 434, per Lawrence, J.; Flower *v.* Pedley, 2 Esp. 491; Orpwood *v.* Barkes, 4 Bing. 461; Compagnon *v.* Martin, 2 W. Bl. 790.

[7] Flower *v.* Pedley, 2 Esp. 491.

[8] Harrison *v.* Bevington, 8 C. & P. 708.

[9] Miller *v.* Miller, 8 Johns. 74; Whiting *v.* Smith, 13 Pick. 364.

[10] Barnes *v.* Holloway, 8 T. R. 150. Proof of special damage must be

allegation of words in the second person, is not proved by evidence of words in the third person;[1] nor is an allegation of slanderous words, as founded on an asserted fact, supported by proof of the words as founded on the speaker's belief of such fact.[2] Nor will evidence of words spoken as the words of another, support an allegation in the common form as of words spoken by the defendant.[3] Words in a *foreign language*, whether spoken or written, must be proved to have been understood by those who heard or read them; and a libel by pictures or signs must also be shown to have been understood by the spectators.[4] If the libel is contained in a letter, addressed to the plaintiff, this is no evidence of a publication in a civil action, though it would be sufficient to support an indictment, on the ground of its tendency to provoke a breach of the peace. But if the letter, though addressed to the plaintiff, was forwarded during his known absence, and with intent that it should be opened and read by his family, clerks, or confidential agents, and it is so, it is a sufficient publication.[5] If it was not opened by others, even though it were not sealed, it is no publication.[6]

§ 415. The publication of a *libel* by the defendant may be proved by evidence, that he distributed it with his own

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confined to the evidence of persons who received the slanderous statements from the defendant himself. Rutherford *v.* Evans, 4 C. & P. 74; 6 Bing. 451, S. C.; Ward *v.* Weeks, 7 Bing. 211.

[1] Avarillo *v.* Rogers, Bull. N. P. 5; Whiting *v.* Smith, 13 Pick. 364; Miller *v.* Miller, 8 Johns. 74.

[2] Cook *v.* Stokes, 1 M. & Rob. 237. And see Brooks *v.* Blanshard, 1 Cr. & M. 779; Hancock *v.* Winter, 7 Taunt. 205; 2 Marsh. 502, S. C.

[3] McPherson *v.* Daniels, 10 B. & C. 274; Bell *v.* Byrne, 13 East 554. And see Walters v. Mace, 2 B. & Ald. 756; Zenobio *v.* Axtell, 6 T. R. 162.

[4] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 14, [13]; Du Bost *v.* Beresford, 2 Campb. 512.

[5] Delacroix *v.* Thevenot, 2 Stark. R. 63; Phillips *v.* Jansen, 2 Esp. 624; Ahern *v.* Maguire, 1 Armstr. & Macartn. 39.

[6] Clutterbuck *v.* Chaffers, 2 Stark. R. 471; Lyle *v.* Clason, 1 Caines, R. 581.

hand, or maliciously exposed its contents, or read or sang it in the presence of others; or, if it were a picture, or a sign, that he painted it; or, if it were done by any other symbol or parade, that he took part in it, for the purpose of exposing the plaintiff to contempt and ridicule.[1] But to show a copy of a caricature to an individual privately, and upon request, is not a publication.[2] Nor is the porter guilty of publishing, who delivers parcels containing libels, if he is ignorant of their contents.[3] So, if one sells a few copies of a periodical, in which, among other things, the libel is contained, it is still a question for the Jury, whether he knew what he was selling.[4]

§ 416. Evidence, that a libel is in the *defendant's hand-writing*, is not, of itself, proof of a publication by him; but it is admissible evidence, from which, if not explained, publication may be inferred by the Jury; the question of publication, where the facts are doubtful, being exclusively within their province.[5] The mode of proof of hand-writing has been already considered.[6] If the manuscript is in the defendant's hand-writing, and is also proved to have been printed and published, this is competent evidence of a publication by him.[7] Where the action for a libel is against the *printer* or *bookseller*, the fact of publication may be proved by evidence, that it was sold or issued by him, or in his shop, though it

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[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 16, 44, [49]; De libellis famosis, 5 Co. 125; Lambe's Case, 9 Co. 59. And see Johnson *v.* Hudson, 7 Ad. & El. 233. Lending a libellous paper, or sending it in manuscript to a printer, is publication, though it be returned to the party. Rex *v.* Pearce, Peake's Cas. 75; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 44 [49].

[2] Smith *v.* Wood, 3 Campb. 323.

[3] Day *v.* Bream, 2 M. & Rob. 54.

[4] Chubb *v.* Flannagan, 6 C. & P. 431.

[5] Rex *v.* Beare, 1 Ld. Raym. 417; Lambe's Case, 9 Co. 59; Baldwin *v.* Elphinston, 2 W. Bl. 1038. And see Rex *v.* Almon, 5 Burr. 2686. The seven Bishops' case, 4 St. Tr. 304; Rex *v.* Johnston, 7 East, 65, 68.

[6] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 576–581.

[7] Regina *v.* Lovett, 9 C. & P. 462; Bond *v.* Douglas, 7 C. & P. 626.

were only in the way of his trade; or by his agent or servant, in the ordinary course of their employment; and this, whether the master were in the same town at the time, or not; for the law presumes him to be privy to what is done by others in the usual course of his business, and the burden is on him to rebut this presumption, by evidence to the contrary; such as, that the libel was sold clandestinely, or contrary to his orders, or, that he was confined in prison, so that his servants had no access to him, or that some deceit or fraud was practised upon him, or the like.[1] If the defendant procure another to publish a libel, this is evidence of a publication by the defendant, whenever it takes place.[2] The sending of a letter by the post, is a publication in the place to which it is sent;[3] the date of the letter is *primâ facie* evidence that the letter was written at the place where it is dated;[4] and the post-mark is *primâ facie* evidence that the letter was put into the office at the place denoted by the mark,[5] and that it was received by the person to whom it was addressed.[6]

§ 417. (3.) The plaintiff must prove the *truth of the colloquium or innuendos*, or the application of the words to himself, and to the extrinsic matters alleged in the declaration, where these are material to his right to recover. The mean-

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[1] Rex *v.* Almon, 5 Burr. 2686; Rex *v.* Walter, 3 Esp. 21; Rex *v.* Gutch, 1 M. & Malk. 433; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 28–32, [30–34]. If the act of the servant was beyond the scope of his employment, it is no evidence of a publication by the master. Harding *v.* Greening, 1 Holt's Cas. 531; 1 J. B. Moore, 477, S. C.; Rex *v.* Woodfall, 1 Hawk. P. C. ch. 73, § 10, n. (by Leach.)

[2] Rex *v.* Johnson, 7 East, 65.

[3] Rex *v.* Watson, 1 Campb. 215. Whether it is also a publication, or even a misdemeanor, in the place *from* which it is sent, *quære;* and see Rex *v.* Burdett, 4 B. & Ald. 95.

[4] Rex *v.* Burdett, 4 B. & Ald. 95.

[5] Rex *v.* Johnson, 7 East, 65; Fletcher *v.* Braddyll, 3 Stark. R. 64. See 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 36, [38].

[6] Shipley *v.* Todhunter, 7 C. & P. 680; Warren *v.* Warren, 4 Tyrw. 850; Callan *v.* Gaylord, 3 Watts, 321.

ing of the defendant is a question of fact, to be found by the Jury.[1] It may be proved by the testimony of any persons, conversant with the parties and circumstances; and from the nature of the case, they must be permitted to some extent to state their opinion, conclusion and belief, leaving the grounds of it to be inquired into on a cross-examination.[2] If the words are ambiguous, and the hearers understood them in an actionable sense, it is sufficient; for it is this which caused the damage; and if a foreign language is employed, it must appear to have been understood by the hearers.[3] But where the words are spoken in relation to extrinsic facts, in respect of which alone they are actionable, as, where they are spoken of one in his office of attorney, it is not necessary to prove that the hearers knew the truth of the extrinsic facts at the time of speaking; for they may afterwards learn the truth of the facts, or may report them to others, who already know the truth of them.[4] Where the libellous words do themselves assume the existence of the extrinsic facts, there, as we have just seen, they need not be proved.[5]

§ 418. (4.) As to the proof of *malice* or *intention*. If the words are in themselves actionable, malicious intent in publishing them is an inference of law, and therefore needs no proof; though evidence of express malice may perhaps be shown, in proof of damages.[6] But if the circumstances of

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[1] Oldham *v.* Peake, 2 W. Bl. 959, 962; Cowp. 275, 278, S. C.; Van Vechten *v.* Hopkins, 5 Johns. 211; Roberts *v.* Camden, 9 East, 93, 96. If the inuendo does not refer to a preceding allegation, but introduces new matter, not essential to the action, it need not be proved. Ibid.

[2] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 46, [51]. Evidence that the plaintiff had been made the subject of laughter at a public meeting, is admissible for this purpose, as well as in proof of damages. Cook *v.* Ward, 6 Bing. 409.

[3] Ibid.; Fleetwood *v.* Curley, Hob. 268.

[4] Fleetwood *v.* Curley, Hob. 268.

[5] Jones *v.* Stevens, 11 Price, 235; Bagnall *v.* Underwood, Ibid. 621; Gould *v.* Hulme, 3 C. & P. 625; Yrisarri *v.* Clement, 3 Bing. 432.

[6] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 47, [53]. And see Bodwell *v.* Osgood, 3 Pick. 379, 384.

the speaking and publishing were such, as to repel that inference, and exclude any liability of the defendant, unless upon proof of actual malice, the plaintiff must furnish such proof. To this end, he may give in evidence any language of the defendant, whether oral or written, showing ill will to the plaintiff, and indicative of the temper and disposition with which he made the publication; and this, whether such language were used before or after the publication complained of.[1] But if such collateral evidence consists of matter actionable in itself, the Jury must be cautioned not to increase the damages on that account.[2]

§ 419. In ordinary cases, under the general issue, the plaintiff will not be permitted to prove the *falsity* of the charges made by the defendant, either to show malice, or to enhance the damages; for his innocence is presumed; unless the defendant seeks to protect himself under color of the circumstances and occasion of writing or speaking the words; in

[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 47 – 53 [53 – 60]. See Ante, § 271; Kean *v.* McLaughlin, 2 S. & R. 469; Pearson *v.* Le Maitre, 7 Jur. 748; Stuart *v.* Lovell, 2 Stark. R. 93; Chambers *v.* Robinson, 1 Str. 691; Wallis *v.* Mease, 3 Binn. 546; Macleod *v.* Wakley, 3 C. & P. 311; Plunkett *v.* Cobbett, 5 Esp. 136; Chubb *v.* Westley, 6 C. & P. 436. In some cases, the admissibility of other words or writings has been limited to those which were not in themselves actionable; Mead *v.* Daubigny, Peake's Cas. 125; Bodwell *v.* Swan, 3 Pick. 376; Defries *v.* Davis, 7 C. & P. 112; or for which damages had already been recovered. Symmons *v.* Blake, 1 M. & Rob. 477. In other cases, it has been restricted to words or writings relating to those which are alleged in the declaration. Finnerty *v.* Tipper, 2 Campb. 72; Delegal *v.* Highley, 8 C. & P. 444; Barwell *v.* Adkins, 1 M. & G. 807; Ahern *v.* Maguire, 1 Armstr. & Macartn. 39; Bodwell *v.* Swan, 3 Pick. 376. In others, the admissibility of subsequent words has been limited to cases where the intention was equivocal, or the words ambiguous. Stuart *v.* Lovell, 2 Stark. R. 93; Pearce *v.* Ornsby, 1. M. & Rob. 455.

[2] Rustell *v.* Macquister, 1 Campb. 49, n.; Pearson *v.* Le Maitre, 7 Jur. 748. And see Finnerty *v.* Tipper, 2 Campb. 74, 75; Tate *v.* Humphrey, Ibid. 73, n. If the plaintiff collaterally introduces other libels in evidence, the defendant may rebut them by evidence of their truth. Stuart *v.* Lovell, 2 Stark. R. 93; Warne *v.* Chadwell, Ibid. 457.

which case, it seems, that evidence that the charge was false, and that the defendant knew it to be so, is admissible to rebut the defence.[1] But where the action is for slander in giving a character to a former servant, or one who has been in the employment of the defendant, the plaintiff must prove that the character was given both falsely and maliciously.[2] Proof that the defendant was aware of its falsity, is sufficient proof of malice; and in proof of its falsity, general evidence of his good character is sufficient to throw the burden of proof upon the defendant.[3]

§ 420. (5.) As to the *damages*. Where special damage is essential to the action, the plaintiff must prove it, according to the allegation. We have already seen, that damages, which are the *necessary* results of the wrongful act complained of, need not be alleged; and that these are termed general damages; but that those which, though *natural*, are not *necessary results*, and which are termed special damages, must be specially alleged and proved; and that no damages can, in any case, be recovered, except those which are the natural and proximate consequences of the wrongful act complained of.[4] Even if the words are actionable in themselves, and *a fortiori* if they are not, no evidence of special damage is admissible, unless it is specially alleged in the declaration; and to such special allegation the evidence must be strictly confined.[5] Thus, if the loss of marriage is alleged as special

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[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 53, [59].

[2] Brommage *v.* Prosser, 4 B. & C. 256; Hargrave *v.* Le Breton, 4 Burr. 2425; Weatherstone *v.* Hawkins, 1 T. R. 110.

[3] Rogers *v.* Clifton, 3 B. & P. 587, 589; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 52, [58]; King *v.* Waring, 5 Esp. 13; Pattison *v.* Jones, 8 B. & C. 578.

[4] See Ante, tit. DAMAGES, § 254, 256, 267, 269, 271, 275. In a joint action by partners, for a libel in respect of their trade, damages cannot be given for any injury to their private feelings, but only for injury to their trade. Haythorn *v.* Lawson, 3 C. & P. 196.

[5] Ibid.; Herrick *v.* Lapham, 10 Johns. 281. Where the action was for alleging that the plaintiff's ship was unseaworthy, proof of special damage was held admissible, without any averment of special damage in the declar-

damage, the individual must be named with whom the marriage might have been had, and no evidence can be received of a loss of marriage with any other person.[1] But where the damage is in the prevention of the sale of an estate by auction, a general allegation is sufficient, and evidence that any person would have bid upon it, is proof of such prevention.[2] So, where the damage consists in the desertion of a chapel,[3] or of a theatre,[4] by those who used to resort to it, it seems that a general allegation and proof of the diminution of receipts is sufficient. If the defendant admits and justifies the fact of publication, without pleading the general issue, the plaintiff may show the manner of publication, as affecting the question of damages.[5]

§ 421. In the DEFENCE of this action, under the *general issue*, the defendant may give in evidence any matter, tending to deny or disprove any material allegation of the plaintiff; such as, the speaking and publishing of the words, the malicious intention, or the injurious consequences resulting from the act complained of. If the plaintiff, in proof of malice, relies upon the falsity of the charge, the defendant may rebut the inference by evidence of the truth of the charge, even under the general issue. And where the occasion and circumstances of the publication or speaking were such, as to require from the plaintiff some proof of actual malice, the

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ation; because, being a chattel, no action is maintainable without proof of some damage. Ingram *v.* Lawson, 9 C. & P. 326. *Sed quære.*

[1] 1 Saund. 243, n. 5, by Williams; Hunt *v.* Jones, Cro Jac. 499; Anon. 2 Ld. Raym. 1007; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 55, [62, 63]. So, of the loss of customers, and the like. Ibid.; Tilk *v.* Parsons, 2 C. & P. 201; Ashley *v.* Harrison, 1 Esp. 48, 50.

[2] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 56, [63].

[3] Hartley *v.* Herring, 8 T. R. 130.

[4] Ashley *v.* Harrison, 1 Esp. 48.

[5] Vines *v.* Serell, 7 C. & P. 163. But evidence of the defendant's procuring testimony to prove the truth of his charges, and then declining to plead in justification, is not admissible to affect the damages, though it might be properly referred to the Jury, upon the question of malice. Bodwell *v.* Osgood, 3 Pick. 379.

defendant may prove these circumstances under the general issue. Such is the case, where the alleged libel or slander consisted in communications, made to the *appointing power*, in relation to the conduct of the plaintiff as a *public officer;* or, to individuals or authorities, empowered by law to *redress grievances*, or supposed to possess influence and ability to procure the means of relief; or, where they were *confidential communications*, made in the ordinary course of lawful business, from good motives, and for justifiable ends. So, where the circumstances were such as to exclude the presumption of malice, as, if the words were spoken by the defendant in his office of *Judge*, *Juror*, *Attorney*, *Advocate*, *Witness* or *Party*, in the course of a judicial proceeding, or, as a *member of a legislative assembly*, in his place, these also may be shown under the general issue.[1] Under this plea, also, the defendant may prove that the publication was procured by the fraudulent contrivance of the plaintiff himself, with a view to an action; or, that the cause of action has been *discharged* by an accord and satisfaction, or by a release.[2]

§ 422. But in all cases, where the occasion itself affords *primâ facie* evidence to repel the inference of malice, the

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[1] Stark. on Slander, p. 401–406, by Wendell; Fairman *v.* Ives, 5 B. & Ald. 642; Bradley *v.* Heath, 12 Pick. 163; Hoar *v.* Wood, 3 Met. 193; Coffin *v.* Coffin, 4 Mass. 1; Remington *v.* Congdon, 2 Pick. 310. Confidential communications made in the usual course of business, or of domestic or friendly intercourse, should be viewed liberally by juries; and unless they see clearly that there was a malicious intention of defaming the plaintiff, they ought to find for the defendant. Todd *v.* Hawkins, 8 C. & P. 88, per Alderson, B. See to the same effect, Wright *v.* Woodgate, 2 C. M. & R. 573; 1 Tyrw. & G. 12; Toogood *v.* Spyring, 1 C. M. & R. 181; 4 Tyrw. 582; Shipley *v.* Todhunter, 7 C. & P. 680; Story *v.* Challands, 8 C. & P. 234, 236. Though the expressions were stronger than the circumstances required, it is still a question for the Jury, whether they were used with intent to defame, or in good faith to communicate facts, interesting to one of the parties. Dunman *v.* Bigg, 1 Campb. 269, n.; Ward *v.* Smith, 4 C. & P. 302; 6 Bing. 749, S. C.

[2] King *v.* Waring, 5 Esp. 13; Smith *v.* Wood, 3 Campb. 323; Lane *v.* Applegate, 1 Stark. R. 97.

plaintiff may rebut the defence, by showing that the object of the defendant was malignant, and that the occasion was laid hold of as a mere color and excuse for gratifying his private malice with impunity.[1]

§ 423. If, from the plaintiff's own showing, it appears that the words were not used in an actionable sense, he will be nonsuited.[2] But if the plaintiff once establishes a *primâ facie* case, by evidence of the publishing of language apparently injurious and actionable, the *burden of proof* is on the defendant, to explain it.[3] But the defendant is entitled to have the whole of the alleged libel read, and the whole conversation stated, in order that its true sense and meaning may appear. And if the libel is contained in a letter, or a newspaper, the whole writing or paper is admissible in evidence.[4] The defendant may also give in evidence a letter written to him, containing a statement of the facts upon which he founded his charges, to show the *bona fides* with which he acted.[5]

§ 424. It is perfectly well settled, that, under the *general issue*, the defendant cannot be admitted to prove the *truth* of the words, either in bar of the action, or in mitigation of damages. And whether, for the latter purpose, he may show that the plaintiff was *generally suspected*, and commonly reported to be guilty of the particular offence imputed to him, is, as we have seen,[6] not universally agreed. But the

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[1] 2 Stark. Evid. 464.

[2] Thompson *v.* Bernard, 1 Campb. 48.

[3] Penfold *v.* Westcote, 2 New Rep. 335; Christie *v.* Cowell, Peake's Cas. 4, and note by Day; Button *v.* Hayward, 1 Vin. Abr. 507, in marg.; 8 Mod. 24, S. C.

[4] Weaver *v.* Lloyd, 1 C. & P. 295; Thornton *v.* Stephen, 2 M. & Rob. 45; Cooke *v.* Hughes, Ry. & M. 112.

[5] Blackburn *v.* Blackburn, 3 C. & P. 146; 4 Bing. 395, S. C. See also Fairman *v.* Ives, 5 B. & Ald. 642; Blake *v.* Pilford, 1 M. & Rob. 198; Pattison *v.* Jones, 8 B. & C. 578.

[6] Ante, § 275; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 77 – 95, by Wendell. See also Waithman *v.* Weaver, 11 Price, 257, n.; Wolmer *v.* Latimer, 1 Jur. 119.

defendant may impeach the plaintiff's character, by general evidence, in order to reduce the amount of damages.[1] And if the plaintiff declares that he was never guilty, nor *suspected* to be guilty of the crime imputed to him, it has been held, that the defendant may disprove the latter allegation, by evidence showing that he was suspected.[2] The defendant may also show, upon the question of damages, under this issue, that the charge was occasioned by the misconduct of the plaintiff, either in attempting to commit the crime, or in leading the defendant to believe him guilty, or in contemporaneously assailing the defendant with opprobrious language; or, that it was made under a mistake, which was forthwith corrected;[3] or, that he had the libellous statement from a third person;[4] or, being the proprietor of a newspaper, that he merely copied the statement from another paper, giving his authority;[5] or, that he was insane, and known to be

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Where the defendant, at the time of speaking the words, referred to certain current reports against the plaintiff, which he had reason to believe to be true; he has been permitted, under the general issue, to cross-examine the plaintiff's witnesses to the fact of the existence of such reports, at the time of speaking the words. Richards *v.* Richards, 2 M. & Rob. 557.

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 55; Paddock *v.* Salisbury, 2 Cowen, 811. It must be *general* evidence. Ross *v.* Lapham, 14 Mass. 275.

[2] E. of Leicester *v.* Walter, 2 Campb. 251. But in an action for a libel, which was actionable only in respect of the plaintiff's office, where his due discharge of its duties was averred, the defendant was not permitted, under the general issue, to disprove this averment, by evidence of the plaintiff's negligence in discharging his official duties. Dance *v.* Robson, 1 M. & Malk. 294.

[3] Ante, § 275; Bradley *v.* Heath, 12 Pick. 173.

[4] Duncombe *v.* Daniell, 2 Jur. 32; Maitland *v.* Goldney, 2 East, 426; *Sed vid.* Mills *v.* Spencer, Holt's Cas. 513. Its effect will depend on the intent with which the name of the author was mentioned. Dole *v.* Lyon, 10 Johns. 447. The fact, that the defendant heard the words from another, whose name he mentioned at the time of speaking them, was formerly held a good *justification*, and therefore pleadable in bar. See 1 Stark. on Slander, ch. xiv.; Ibid. p. 301, note (1), by Wendell. But this doctrine has been solemnly denied in the United States; Ibid.; Dole *v.* Lyon, 10 Johns. 447; and has of late been repudiated in England. De Crespigny *v.* Wellesley, 5 Bing. 392.

[5] Saunders *v.* Mills, 6 Bing. 213; Creevy *v.* Carr, 7 C. & P. 64. See

so, at the time of speaking the words.[1] And in an action for a libel upon the plaintiff in his trade of bookseller, as the publisher of immoral and foolish books, it has been held, that the defendant, under this issue, may show that the supposed libel is nothing more than a fair stricture upon the general nature of the plaintiff's publications.[2]

§ 425. It is obvious, that evidence in mitigation of damages must be such as involves an admission of the falsity of the charge. If the defendant would prove that the charge is true, he can do this only under a special plea in justification; it is only evidence of facts, not sufficient to justify, that is admissible under the general issue, to reduce the damages.[3] And if such facts have been specially pleaded in justification, but the plea is withdrawn before the trial, and the plaintiff is therefore not prepared with evidence to disprove it, the defendant may, under circumstances, still be permitted to prove the facts under the general issue, to affect the amount of damages to be recovered.[4] It has also been held, that where the facts, offered in evidence in mitigation of damages, would be sufficient to justify *a part only* of the libel, they must be specially pleaded in justification of that part, and cannot otherwise be received.[5] But these rules, it is conceived, do not preclude the defendant from showing, under the general issue, all such facts and circumstances as belong to the *res gestæ*, and go to prove the intent with which the words were spoken, or the publication was made.[6] And if a justifi-

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also Mullett *v.* Hulton, 4 Esp. 248; Wyatt *v.* Gore, Holt's Cas. 303; East *v.* Chapman, 2 C. & P. 570; 1 M. & Malk. 46, S. C.

[1] Dickinson *v.* Barber, 9 Mass. 225.

[2] Tabart *v.* Tipper, 1 Campb. 350.

[3] Underwood *v.* Parkes, 2 Stra. 1200; Knobell *v.* Fuller, Peake's Add. Cas. 139; Andrews *v.* Vanduzer, 11 Johns. 38.

[4] East *v.* Chapman, 2 C. & P. 570; 1 M. & Malk. 46, S. C.

[5] Vessey *v.* Pike, 3 C. & P. 512.

[6] See 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 88, n. (1), by Wendell. In several of the United States, the course is to plead the general issue in all cases, with a brief statement of the special matter to be given in evidence under it. It

cation is pleaded, the defendant may still give *general evidence*, in mitigation of damages, under the general issue, though he will not be permitted, under a plea in justification, to give evidence of particular facts and circumstances respecting the charge, which go merely to the amount of damages.[1]

§ 426. To support a special plea in *justification*, where *crime* is imputed, the same evidence must be adduced as would be necessary to convict the plaintiff upon an indictment for the crime imputed to him; and it is conceived, that he would be entitled to the benefit of any reasonable doubts of his guilt, in the minds of the Jury, in the same manner as in a criminal trial. And if the evidence falls short of proving the commission of the crime, the Jury may still consider the circumstances, as tending to lessen the character of the plaintiff, and to reduce the amount of damages.[2] But wherever the truth of a charge of crime is pleaded in justification, the plaintiff may give his own character in evidence, to rebut the charge.[3]

§ 427. Where the libel is upon a lawyer, charging him with *divulging confidential communications* made to him by

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has been held, that where such statement, in an action of slander, is ruled out, as not amounting to a justification, the matter is not admissible in evidence in mitigation of damages; for the reason that, so far as it goes, it tends to prove the charge to be well founded. Cooper *v.* Barber, 24 Wend. 105. And see Turrill *v.* Dolloway, 17 Wend. 426. But the soundness of these decisions has been combatted with great force of reasoning, by Mr. Wendell, in the Introduction to his valuable edition of Starkie on Slander, p. 27 – 55.

[1] 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 83 – 94, and notes, by Wendell. See also Stone *v.* Varney, 7 Law Reporter, 533; Mullett *v.* Hulton; 4 Esp. 248; East *v.* Chapman, 2 C. & P. 570; 1 M. & Malk. 46, S. C.; Newton *v.* Rowe, 1 C. & K. 616. But see Larned *v.* Buffington, 3 Mass. 546.

[2] Chalmers *v.* Shackell, 6 C. & P. 475. A charge of polygamy, by marrying three persons, may be justified by proof of actual marriage to two wives, and cohabitation and reputation as to the third. Wilmett *v.* Harmer, 8 C. & P. 695.

[3] Harding *v.* Brooks, 5 Pick. 244.

his client, it is not necessary for the defendant, in support of a plea in justification, to prove that the communications were of such strictly privileged character, that the plaintiff could not have been compelled to disclose them, if called as a witness in a court of justice; but it will suffice to show, that the matters disclosed by the plaintiff were confidential communications, acquired by him professionally, in the more enlarged and popular sense of the word.[1]

§ 428. Where the matter is actionable only in respect of the special damage, the plaintiff must generally show express malice in the defendant. Such is the case in actions for *slander of title.* In these cases, the defendant, under the general issue and in disproof of malice, may give in evidence, that he spoke the words, claiming title in himself;[2] or, as the attorney of the claimant; or, that the words were true.[3]

§ 429. In actions of this nature, where the general issue is pleaded, with a justification, the usual course is for the plaintiff to prove the libel, and leave it to the defendant to make out his justification; after which the plaintiff offers all his evidence rebutting the defence. And if the plaintiff elects, in the opening of his case, to offer any evidence to repel the justification, he is ordinarily required to offer it all in that stage of the cause, and is not permitted to give further evidence in reply.[4] But this rule is not imperative, the subject resting in the discretion of the Judge, under the circumstances of the case.

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[1] Moore *v.* Terrell, 4 B. & Ad. 870. But see Riggs *v.* Denniston, 3 Johns. Cas. 198.

[2] Smith *v.* Spooner, 3 Taunt. 246.

[3] Watson *v.* Reynolds, 1 M. & Malk. 1; 2 Stark. on Slander, p. 98, 99, [103], [104]; Pitt *v.* Donovan, 1 M. & S. 639.

[4] Browne *v.* Murray, Ry. & M. 254; Ante, Vol. 1, § 431.

LIMITATIONS.

§ 430. The Statute of Limitations is set up in bar either of *rights of entry*, or of rights of action. In the former case, when the defendant claims title to land under a long possession, he must show that the possession was open and visible, notorious, exclusive, and adverse to the title of the plaintiff.[1] It must be such, that the owner may be presumed to know, that there is a possession adverse to his title ;[2] but his actual knowledge is not necessary, it being sufficient if, by ordinary observation, he might have known.[3] It must be knowingly and designedly taken and held ; an occupancy by accident and mistake, such as, through ignorance of the dividing line, or the like, is not sufficient.[4] And it must be with exclusive claim of title in the possessor ; and not in submission to the title of the true owner.[5]

§ 431. Where the Statute of Limitations is set up in bar of a *right of action*, by the plea of *actio non accrevit infra sex annos*, which is traversed, the burden of proof is on the plaintiff, to show both a cause of action, and the suing out

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[1] Taylor *v.* Horde, 1 Burr. 60 ; Cowp. 689 ; Jerritt *v.* Weare, 3 Price, R. 575 ; 4 Kent, Comm. 482 – 489 ; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416 ; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Laboree, 2 Greenl. 273 ; Little *v.* Libby, Ibid. 242 ; Little *v.* Megquier, Ibid. 176 ; Norcross *v.* Widgery, 2 Mass. 506.

[2] Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416 ; Coburn *v.* Hollis, 3 Met. 125 ; Bates *v.* Norcross, 14 Pick. 224 ; Prescott *v.* Nevers, 4 Mason, R. 326.

[3] Poignard *v.* Smith, 6 Pick. 172.

[4] Brown *v.* Gay, 3 Greenl. 126 ; Gates *v.* Butler, 3 Humphreys, R. 447 ; Ross *v.* Gould, 5 Greenl. 204.

[5] Small *v.* Proctor, 15 Mass. 495 ; Little *v.* Libby, 2 Greenl. 242 ; Peters *v.* Foss, 5 Greenl. 182 ; Teller *v.* Burtis, 6 Johns. 197.

of process within the period mentioned in the statute.[1] By suing out of process, in these cases, is meant any resort to legal means for obtaining payment of the debt from the defendant; such as, filing the claim in set-off, in a former action between the same parties, which was discontinued;[2] or, filing it with the commissioners on an insolvent estate.[3] And the suit is commenced by the first or incipient step taken in the course of legal proceedings, such as the actual filling up and completing the writ, or original summons, without showing it served;[4] the true time of doing which may be shown by extrinsic evidence, irrespective of the date of the process.[5] So, the true time of filing the declaration may be shown, without regard to the term of which it is intituled.[6] The issuing of a latitat is the true commencement of a suit by bill of Middlesex;[7] and so is the issuing of a capias, in the Common Pleas.[8] The filing of a bill in Chancery is also a good commencement

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[1] Hurst *v.* Parker, 1 B. &. Ald. 92; 2 Chitty, R. 249, S. C.; Wilby *v.* Henman, 6 Tyrw. 957; 2 Cr. & Mees. 658.

[2] Hunt *v.* Spaulding, 18 Pick. 521.

[3] Guild *v.* Hale, 15 Mass. 455.

[4] Gardiner *v.* Webber, 17 Pick. 407; Williams *v.* Roberts, 1 Cr. M. & R. 676; 5 Tyrw. 421; Burdick *v.* Green, 18 Johns. 14; Beekman *v.* Satterlee, 5 Cowen, 519. But see Bonnet *v.* Ramsay, 3 Martin, R. 776.

[5] Bilton *v.* Long, 2 Keb. 198, per Kelyng, C. J.; Johnson *v.* Smith, 2 Burr. 950, 959; Young *v.* Kenyon, 2 Day, 252.

[6] Granger *v.* George, 5 B. & C. 149; Snell *v.* Phillips, Peake's Cas. 209.

[7] Johnson *v.* Smith, 2 Burr. 950.

[8] Leader *v.* Moxon, 2 W. Bl. 925. Where the writ and declaration disagree, as, where the writ is in trespass, and the declaration is in assumpsit, as is practised in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, it must be shown, not only that the writ was seasonably issued, but that it was entered and continued, down to the time of filing the declaration; for otherwise it will not appear, that the writ was sued out for the present cause of action. But in the United States this is seldom necessary; and where the course of proceeding would seem to require it, the continuances are mere matters of form, and may be entered at any time. See Angell on Limitations, p. 315 - 320; Schlosser *v.* Lesher, 1 Dall. 311; Beekman *v.* Satterlee, 5 Cowen, 519; Soulden *v.* Van Rensselaer, 3 Wend. 472; Davis *v.* West, 5 Wend. 63.

of an action, unless the bill is dismissed on the ground that the subject is cognizable only at law.[1]

§ 432. If writ is *abated*, by the death of the plaintiff, or by her marriage, if a feme sole, the operation of the statute is prevented, by the commencement of a *new suit*, by the proper parties, within a *reasonable time;* and this, where it is not otherwise regulated by statute, is ordinarily understood to be one year, this period having been adopted from the analogy of the fourth section in the Statute of Limitations of James I., providing for the cases of judgments reversed or arrested.[2] But this rule does not apply to an action determined by voluntary abandonment by the plaintiff, as, in case of a *nonsuit*.[3]

§ 433. In cases of *tort*, and in actions on the case sounding in tort, a distinction is to be observed between acts wrongful in themselves, which directly affect the rights of the plaintiff, and for which, therefore, an action may be instantly maintained without proof of actual damages; and those cases where the injury is consequential, and the right of action is founded on the special damages suffered by the plaintiff. In the former class of cases, the statute period begins to run from the time when the act is done, without regard to any actual damages, or to any knowledge by the party injured. But in the latter cases, it runs from the time when the special damage accrued. Thus, in slander, where the words impute an indictable offence, the time runs from the speaking of them; but if they are actionable only in

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[1] Gray *v.* Berryman, 4 Munf. 181. See further, Angell on Limitations, p. 321 – 325

[2] Kinsey *v.* Heyward, 1 Ld. Raym. 434, per Treby, C. J.; Forbes *v.* Ld. Middleton, Willes, 259, note (*c*); Matthews *v.* Phillips, 2 Salk. 424, 425; Angell on Limitations, p. 325 – 330; Huntington *v.* Brinkerhoff, 10 Wend. 278.

[3] Richards *v.* Maryland Ins. Co. 8 Cranch, 84, 93; Harris *v.* Dennis, 1 S. & R. 236. But see Chretien *v.* Theard, 2 Martin, R. 747.

respect of the special damage, as, in slander of title, it runs from the time when this damage was sustained.[1] So, in *trover*, the time is computed from the act of conversion of the goods.[2] And in actions for official or *professional negligence*, the cause of action is founded on the *breach of duty*, which actually injured the plaintiff, and not on the consequential damage. Thus, in an action against an attorney, for neglect of professional duty, it has been held, that the Statute of Limitations begins to run from the time when the breach of duty was committed, and not from the time when the consequential damage accrued.[3] So, in an action against the sheriff, for an insufficient return upon a writ, by reason whereof the judgment was reversed, the statute begins to run from the time of the return, and not from the reversal of the judgment.[4] But in an action for taking insufficient bail, the injury did not arise to the plaintiff, until he had recovered judgment, and the principal had avoided, for until then, the bail might have surrendered the principal; and therefore the statute begins to run from the return of *non est inventus* on the execution.[5]

§ 434. The same distinction has been recognized, in expounding private and local statutes, which have limited the remedy to a certain period of time from the *act done*.[6] Where the act was in itself lawful, so far as the rights of the plaintiff

[1] Law *v.* Harwood, Cro. Car. 140; Saunders *v.* Edwards, 1 Sid. 95.

[2] Compton *v.* Chandless, 4 Esp. 20, per Ld. Kenyon; Granger *v.* George, 5 B. & C. 149; Denys *v.* Shuckburg, 4 Y. & C. 42.

[3] Howell *v.* Young, 2 C. & P. 238; 5 B. & C. 259, S. C.; Brown *v.* Howard, 4 J. B. Moore, 508; 2 B. & B. 73, S. C.; Short *v.* McCarthy, 3 B. & Ald. 626. See also Leonard *v.* Pitney, 5 Wend. 30; The Bank of Utica *v.* Childs, 5 Cowen, R. 238; Stafford *v.* Richardson, 15 Wend. 302.

[4] Miller *v.* Adams, 16 Mass. 456.

[5] Rice *v.* Hosmer, 12 Mass. 127, 130; Mather *v.* Green, 17 Mass. 60.

[6] Whether a mere non-feasance and omission can be regarded as an *act done*, so as to be within the protection of these statutes, has been much doubted. See Blakemore *v.* Glamorganshire Canal Co. 3 Y. & J. 60; Gaby *v.* Wilts & Berks Canal Co. 3 M. & S. 580; Umphelby *v.* McLean, 1 B. & Ald. 42; Smith *v.* Shaw, 10 B. & C. 277, per Bailey, J.

were concerned, but occasioned a subsequent and consequential damage to him, the time has been computed from the commencement of the damage, this being the act done, within the meaning of the law. But where the original act was in itself a direct invasion of the plaintiff's rights, the time has been computed from such original act. Thus, where a surveyor of highways, in the execution of his office, undermined a wall adjoining the highway, and several months afterwards it fell, the statute period limiting the remedy was computed from the falling of the wall, this alone being the specific wrong for which an action was maintainable.[1] And the same principle has been applied to similar acts, done by commissioners and others, acting under statutes.[2] On the other hand, where the action is for an illegal seizure of goods under the revenue laws, though they were originally stopped for examination only, and afterwards finally and absolutely detained, the time is computed from the original act of stopping the goods, and not from the commencement of special damages, or from the final detention, or from the re-delivery of the goods.[3] So where a trespass was committed by cutting down trees, which the defendant afterwards sold, it was held that the statute attached at the time of cutting the trees, and not at the time of sale.[4]

§ 435. In cases of *contract*, the general principle is, that the statute attaches as soon as the contract is broken; because the plaintiff may then commence his action. And though special damage has resulted, yet the limitation is computed from the time of the breach, and not from the time when the

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[1] Roberts *v.* Read, 16 East, 215; 6 Taunt. 40, n. (*b*); Wordsworth *v.* Harley, 1 B & Ad. 391.

[2] Gillon *v.* Boddington, 1 C. & P. 541; Lloyd *v.* Wigney, 6 Bing. 489; Sutton *v.* Clarke, 6 Taunt. 29. But see Smith *v.* Shaw, 10 B. & C. 277; Heard *v.* The Middlesex Canal, 5 Met. 81.

[3] Goodin *v.* Ferris, 2 H. B. 14; Saunders *v.* Saunders, 2 East, 254; Crook *v.* McTavish, 1 Bing. 167.

[4] Hughes *v.* Thomas, 13 East, 474, 485.

special damage arose.[1] If money is lent, and a bill of exchange is given for the payment at a future day, the latter period is the time when the limitation commences.[2] If a bill is payable at a certain time after sight,[3] or a note is payable at so many days after demand,[4] the statute attaches only upon the expiration of the time after presentment or demand. But where the right of action accrues after the death of the party entitled, the period of limitation does not commence until the grant of administration; for until then, there is no person capable of suing.[5] Where the action is against a factor, for not accounting and paying over, the statute begins to run from the time of demand; for until demand made, no action accrued against him.[6] And where a contract of service is entire, as, for a year, or, for a voyage, the limitation does not commence until the whole term of service is expired.[7]

§ 436. The bar of the Statute of Limitations may be avoided by showing, (1.) that the plaintiff was under any *disability* mentioned in the statute; or, (2.) that the claim has been recognized by the defendant as valid, by an *acknowledgment*, or a *new promise*, within the statute period; or, (3.) that the cause of action was *fraudulently concealed* by the defendant, until within that period.

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[1] Battely *v.* Faulkner, 3 B. & Ad. 290; Short *v.* McCarthy, Ibid. 626. If the right of action was in a trustee, it is barred by his neglect to sue, though the *cestui que trust* was under disability. Wych *v.* E. Ind. Co. 3 P. Wms. 309.

[2] Wittersheim *v.* Countess of Carlisle, 1 H. Bl. 631.

[3] Holmes *v.* Kerrison, 2 Taunt. 323.

[4] Thorpe *v.* Booth, Ry. & M. 388; Thorpe *v.* Combe, 8 D. & R. 347; Anon. 1 Mod. 89.

[5] Murray *v.* E. Ind. Co. 5 B. & Ald. 204. And see Cary *v.* Stephenson, 1 Salk. 421; Pratt *v.* Swaine, 8 B. & C. 285. In some of the United States, cases of this kind are specially provided for by statutes, extending the period of limitation for a further definite time.

[6] Topham *v.* Braddick, 1 Taunt. 572. And see Pecke *v.* Ambler, W. Jones, 329.

[7] Ewer *v.* Jones, 6 Mod. 26.

§ 437 (1.) The *disabilities* of *infancy*, *coverture*, and *insanity*, will be found treated under their appropriate heads. The disability arising from absence out of the country, is usually expressed by being *beyond sea;* but the principle on which this exception is founded, is, that no presumption can arise against a party for not suing in a foreign country, nor until there is somebody within the jurisdiction whom he can sue;[1] and therefore the words "beyond sea," in the statute of any State, are expounded as equivalent to being "out of the State," and receive the same construction.[2] And the latter form of words is held equivalent to being "out of the actual jurisdiction;" that is, beyond the reach of process; so that where a part of the territory of a State, in time of war, is actually and exclusively occupied by the enemy, a person within the enemy's lines is out of the State, within the meaning of the Statute of Limitations.[3] The rule, as applied to a defendant, has therefore been limited to the case where he was personally absent from the State, having no attachable property within it.[4] A foreigner, resident abroad, is not within the operation of the statute, even though he has an agent, resident in the country.[5]

§ 438. In the case of *partners*, the absence of one from the country does not prevent the statute from attaching, for the others might have sued for all.[6] Nor does the disability of one *coparcener*, or *tenant in common*, preserve the title of

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[1] Per Best, C. J. in Douglas *v.* Forrest, 4 Bing. 686.

[2] Faw *v.* Roberdeau, 3 Cranch, 177, per Marshall, C. J.; Murray *v.* Baker, 3 Wheat. 541; Angell on Limitations, p. 219–222. In some of the United States, the disability of the plaintiff is limited, by statute, to his absence from the United States; and that of the defendant, to his absence from the particular State in which he resided.

[3] Sleght *v.* Kane, 1 Johns. Cas. 76, 81.

[4] White *v.* Bailey, 3 Mass. 271; Little *v.* Blunt, 16 Pick. 359.

[5] Strithorst *v.* Græme, 2 W. Bl. 723; 3 Wils. 145, S. C.; Wilson *v.* Appleton, 17 Mass. 180.

[6] Perry *v.* Jackson, 4 T. R. 516, 519; Pendleton *v.* Phelps, 4 Day, 476.

the other; for each may sue for his part.[1] But in the case of *joint-tenants*, it is otherwise.[2]

§ 439. When the time mentioned in the statute has once begun to run, it is a settled rule of construction, that no disability, subsequently arising, will arrest its progress.[3] If, therefore, the party be out of the jurisdiction when the cause of action accrues, and afterwards returns within it, the statute attaches upon his return. But in the case of a defendant, his return must be open, and such as would enable the plaintiff, by using reasonable diligence, to serve process upon him. If it was only temporary and transient, in a remote part of the State, so that it could not have been seasonably known to the plaintiff; or if the defendant concealed himself, except on Sundays, so that he could not be arrested, it is not such a return as to bring the case within the operation of the statute.[4]

§ 440. (2.) Where the statute is pleaded in bar, and the plaintiff would avoid the bar by proof of an acknowledgment of the claim, this can be done only under a special replication of a *new promise*, within the period limited. It is to be observed, that the statute of limitations is regarded by the Courts as a wise and beneficial law, not designed merely to raise a presumption of payment of a just debt, from lapse of time, but to afford security against stale demands, after the true state of the transaction may have been forgotten, or be incapable of explanation, by reason of the death or removal

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[1] Roe *v.* Rowlston, 2 Taunt. 441; Doolittle *v.* Blakesley, 4 Day, 265.

[2] Marsteller *v.* McClean, 7 Cranch, 156.

[3] Doe *v.* Jones, 4 T. R. 300, 310; Angell on Limitations, p. 146, 147; Smith *v.* Hill, 1 Wils. 134. In some of the United States, the rule is differently established, by statutes. See Rev. Stat. of Mass. ch. 120, § 9; Rev. Stat. Maine, ch. 146, § 28.

[4] Fowler *v.* Hunt, 10 Johns. 464, 467; White *v.* Bailey, 3 Mass. 271, 273; Byrne *v.* Crowninshield, 1 Pick. 263; Little *v.* Blunt, 16 Pick. 359; Ruggles *v.* Keeler, 3 Johns. 264.

of witnesses.[1] Wherever, therefore, the bar of the statute is sought to be removed by proof of a new promise, the promise, as a new cause of action, ought to be proved in a clear and explicit manner, and be in its terms unequivocal and determinate.[2] In the absence of any express statute to the contrary, parol evidence of a new promise would be sufficient; but in England, and in several of the United States, no acknowledgment or promise is now sufficient to take any case out of the operation of this statute, unless such acknowledgment or promise is made or contained by or in some writing, signed by the party chargeable thereby.[3] It is not necessary, however, that the promise should be express; it may be raised, by implication of law, from the *acknowledgment* of the party.[4] But such acknowledgment ought to contain an unqualified and direct admission of a present subsisting debt, which the party is liable and willing to pay. If there be accompanying circumstances, which repel the presumption of a promise or intention to pay; or, if the expressions be equivocal, vague and indeterminate, leading to no certain conclusion, but at best to probable inferences, which may affect different minds in different ways; it has been held, that they ought not to go to a Jury, as evidence of a new promise, to revive the cause of action.[5] If the new promise was coupled with any condition, the plaintiff must show, that the con-

[1] Bell *v.* Morrison, 1 Peters, S. C. Rep. 360, per Story, J.; Mountstephen *v.* Brooke, 3 B. & Ald. 141, per Abbott, C. J.

[2] Bell *v.* Morrison, 1 Peters, S. C. Rep. 362; Cambridge *v.* Hobart, 10 Pick. 232; Gardiner *v.* Tudor, 8 Pick. 206; Bangs *v.* Hall, 2 Pick. 368.

[3] 9 Geo. 4, ch. 14; Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 120, § 13; Rev. Stat. Maine, ch. 146, § 19.

[4] Angell on Limitations, p. 228.

[5] Bell *v.* Morrison, 1 Peters, S. C. Rep. 362 - 365; Bell *v.* Rowland, Hardin, R. 301; Angell on Limitations, p. 247 - 250; Bangs *v.* Hall, 2 Pick. 368; Stanton *v.* Stanton, 2 N. Hamp. R. 426; Jones *v.* Moore, 5 Binn. 573; Perley *v.* Little, 3 Greenl. 97; Porter *v.* Hill, 4 Greenl. 41; Deshon *v.* Eaton, Ibid. 413; Miles *v.* Moodie, 3 S. & R. 211; Eckert *v.* Wilson, 12 S. & R. 397; Purdy *v.* Austin, 3 Wend. 187; Sumner *v.* Sumner, 1 Met. 394; Allcock *v.* Ewen, 2 Hill, S. Car. Rep. 326.

dition has been performed, or performance duly tendered.[1] And if it were a promise to pay when he is able, the plaintiff must show that he is able to pay.[2]

§ 441. Upon this general doctrine, which, after much conflict of opinion, is now well established, it has been held, that the acknowledgment must not only go to the original justice of the claim, but it must admit, that it is *still due*.[3] No set form of words is requisite; it may be inferred even from facts, without words.[4] It is sufficient, if made to a stranger,[5] or, in the case of a negotiable security, if made to a prior holder;[6] or, in any case, if made while the action is pending.[7] If it is made by the principal debtor, it binds the surety;[8] or, if by the guardian of a spendthrift, it binds the ward;[9] and if by one of several joint debtors, it binds them all.[10] And where the plaintiff proves a general acknowledgment of indebtment, the burden of proof is on the defendant, to show that it related to a different demand from the one in controversy.[11] Nor is it necessary, unless so required by

[1] Wetzell *v.* Bussard, 11 Wheat. 309.

[2] Davies *v.* Smith, 4 Esp. 36; Tanner *v.* Smart, 6 B. & C. 603; Scales *v.* Jacob, 3 Bing. 638; Ayton *v.* Bolt, 4 Bing. 105; Haydon *v.* Williams, 7 Bing. 163; Edmunds *v.* Downes, 2 C. & M. 459; Robbins *v.* Otis, 1 Pick. 368; 3 Pick. 4; Gould *v.* Shirley, 2 M. & P. 581.

[3] Clementson *v.* Williams, 8 Cranch, 72.

[4] Whitney *v.* Bigelow, 4 Pick. 110; East Ind. Co. *v.* Prince, Ry. & M. 407.

[5] Ibid.; Halliday *v.* Ward, 3 Campb. 32; Mountstephen *v.* Brooke, 3 B. & Ald. 141; Sluby *v.* Champlin, 4 Johns. 461. It seems that, in England, since the statute of 9 Geo. 4, c. 14, an acknowledgment made to a stranger would not be sufficient. Grenfell *v.* Girdlestone, 2 Y. & C. 662.

[6] Little *v.* Blunt, 9 Pick. 488.

[7] Yea *v.* Fouraker, 2 Burr. 1099; Danforth *v.* Culver, 11 Johns. 146.

[8] Frye *v.* Barker, 4 Pick. 382.

[9] Manson *v.* Felton, 13 Pick. 206.

[10] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 174, 176; Patterson *v.* Patterson, 7 Wend. 441. But where one party was a feme covert at the time of the new promise by the other, it was held not sufficient to charge her and her husband. Pittam *v.* Foster, 1 B. & C. 248.

[11] Whitney *v.* Bigelow, 4 Pick. 110; Frost *v.* Bengough, 1 Bing. 266; Baillie *v.* Ld. Inchiquin, 1 Esp. 435. But see Sands *v.* Gelston, 15 Johns. 511; Clarke *v.* Dutcher, 9 Cowen, 674.

express statute, that the acknowledgment should be in writing, even though the original contract is one, which was required to be in writing by the statute of frauds; for it was the original contract in writing, which fixed the defendant's liability, and the verbal acknowledgment within six years only went to show, that this liability had not been discharged.[1]

§ 442. It has already been observed, that an acknowledgment, in order to remove the bar of the statute, must be such as raises an implication of a promise to pay. It must be a distinct admission of present indebtment. If, therefore, the party, at the time of the conversation, or in the writing, should state that he *had a receipt*, or other written discharge of the claim, which he would or could produce, this does not take the case out of the statute, even though he should fail to produce the discharge.[2] So, if he admits that the claim has been previously made, but denies that he is bound to pay it, whether because of its want of legal formality, as, for example, a stamp,[3] or of its want of consideration,[4] or the like. If the language is ambiguous, it is for the Jury to determine, whether it amounts to an explicit acknowledgment of the debt, or not.[5] But if it is in writing, and is clear, either as an acknowledgment, or otherwise, the Judge will be justified in so instructing the Jury.[6]

§ 443. The terms of the acknowledgment, moreover, must all be *taken together*, so that it may be seen, whether, upon the whole, the party intended distinctly to admit a *present debt* or duty. If, in affirming that the debt, once due, has

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[1] Gibbons *v.* McCasland, 1 B. & Ad. 690.

[2] Brydges *v.* Plumtree, 9 D. & R. 746; Birk *v.* Guy, 4 Esp. 184.

[3] A'Court *v.* Cross, 3 Bing. 329.

[4] Easterby *v.* Pullen, 3 Stark. R. 186; De la Torre *v.* Barclay, 1 Stark. R. 7; Miller *v.* Lancaster, 4 Greenl. 159; Sands *v.* Gelston, 15 Johns. 511.

[5] Lloyd *v.* Maund, 2 T. R. 760; East Ind. Co. *v.* Prince, Ry. & M. 407.

[6] College *v.* Horn, 3 Bing. 119; Brigstocke *v.* Smith, 1 C. & M. 483; 2 Tyrw. 445.

been discharged, he claims it to have been *discharged by a writing*, to which he particularly refers with such precision, as to exclude every other mode, and the writing, being produced or proved, does not in law afford him a legal discharge, his acknowledgment will stand unqualified, and will bind him.[1] So, if the defendant challenges the plaintiff to produce a particular mode of proof of his liability, such as, to prove the genuineness of the signature, or the like, and he does so, the implied acknowledgment will be sufficient to take the case out of the statute.[2] But if the acknowledgment is accompanied with circumstances or declarations, showing an intention to *insist on the benefit of the statute*, it is now held, that no promise to pay can be implied.[3] And if the cause of action arose from the doing or omitting to do some *specific act* at a particular time, an acknowledgment, within six years, that the contract has been broken, is held insufficient to raise the presumption of a new promise to perform the duty.[4]

§ 444. The *payment of a part* of a debt is also held, at Common Law, to be a sufficient acknowledgment, that the whole debt is still due, to authorize the presumption of a promise to pay the remainder. But it is the payment itself, and not the indorsement of it on the back of the security,

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[1] Partington *v.* Butcher, 6 Esp. 66. This is doubtless the case alluded to by Gibbs, C. J. in Hellings *v.* Shaw, 1 J. B. Moore, 340, 344; where he is made to confine his observation to the case of a discharge by a *written* instrument. His remarks, as reported in the same case, in 7 Taunt. 612, are general, and applicable to any other mode of discharge; but to this unlimited extent their soundness is questioned by Bayley, J., in Beal *v.* Nind, 4 B. & Ald. 568, 571. And see Dean *v.* Pitts, 10 Johns. 35.

[2] Hellings *v.* Shaw, 7 Taunt. 612, per Gibbs, C. J.; Seaward *v.* Lord, 1 Greenl. 163; Robbins *v.* Otis, 1 Pick. 370; 3 Pick. 4.

[3] Coltman *v.* Marsh, 3 Taunt. 380; Rowcroft *v.* Lomas, 4 M. & S. 457; Bangs *v.* Hall, 2 Pick. 368; Knott *v.* Farren, 4 D. & R. 179; Danforth *v.* Culver, 11 Johns. 146.

[4] Boydell *v.* Drummond, 2 Campb. 157; Whitehead *v.* Howard, 2 B. & B. 372; Wetzell *v.* Bussard, 11 Wheat. 309.

that has this effect; though where the indorsement is proved to have been actually made before the cause of action was barred by the statute, and consequently against the interest of the party making it, the course is, to admit it to be considered by the Jury among the circumstances, showing an actual payment.[1] And if such payment be made by one of several *joint debtors*, who is not otherwise discharged from the obligation, it is evidence against them all.[2] But as this rule is founded on the community of interest among the debtors, and the presumption, that no one of them would make an admission against his own interest, it results, that, where the the party making the payment is no longer responsible, as, for example, where it is received under a dividend in bankruptcy, it raises no presumption against the others.[3]

§ 445. The existence of *mutual accounts* between the parties, if there are items on *both sides* within the period of limitation, is such evidence of a mutual acknowledgment of indebtment, as to take the case out of the operation of the statute.[4] And if the defendant's account contains an item within that period, this has been held sufficient to save the

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 121, 122; Whitney *v.* Bigelow, 4 Pick. 110; Hancock *v.* Cook, 18 Pick, 30, 33; Rose *v.* Bryant, 2 Campb. 321. This subject is now regulated by statutes, in England, and in several of the United States, by which the indorsement, if made by the creditor or in his behalf, without the concurrence of the debtor, is of no avail to take the case out of the statute. Stat. 9 Geo. 4, ch. 14; Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 120, § 17; Rev. Stat. Maine, ch. 146, § 23.

[2] See Ante, § 441, Vol. 1, § 174. But the effect of such payment is now restricted by statutes, in some of the United States, and in England, to the party paying. Stat. 9 Geo. 4, ch. 14; Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 120, § 14, 18; Rev. Stat. Maine, ch. 146, § 20, 24.

[3] Brandram *v.* Wharton, 1 B. & Ald. 463; Ante, Vol. 1, § 174, n. (3).

[4] Cogswell *v.* Dolliver, 2 Mass. 217; Bull. N. P. 149; Chamberlain *v.* Cuyler, 9 Wend. 126; Tucker *v.* Ives, 6 Cowen, 193; Fitch *v.* Hilleary, 1 Hill, S. Car. Rep. 292. See also Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 120, § 5. A similar effect has been attributed to continuity of service of a domestic, until a short time previous to the suit. Viens *v.* Brickle, 1 Martin, R. 611.

account of the plaintiff;[1] but if the items in the defendant's account are all of an earlier date, though some of those in the plaintiff's account may be within the statute period, the statute will bar all the claim, except the last mentioned items.[2] If the account has been stated between the parties, the statute period commences at the time of stating it;[3] but a mere cessation of dealings, or any act of the creditor alone, or even the death of one of the parties, is not, in effect, a statement of the account.[4]

§ 446. It may here be further observed, that, where the cause of action arises *ex delicto*, as in trespass and trover; or is given by positive statute, irrespective of any promise or neglect of duty by the party, as in the case of actions against executors and administrators upon the contracts of their testators or intestates; if the action is once barred by lapse of time, no admission or acknowledgment, however unequivocal and positive, will take it out of the operation of the statute.[5]

§ 447. The Statute of Limitations of 21 *Jac.* 1, *c.* 16, which has been copied nearly *verbatim*, in its principal features, in most of the United States, contains an exception of "such *accounts* as concern the *trade of merchandise* between *merchant and merchant*, their factors or servants." To bring

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[1] Davis *v.* Smith, 4 Greenl. 337; Sickles *v.* Mather, 20 Wend. 72.

[2] Gold *v.* Whitcomb, 14 Pick. 188; Bull. N. P. 149. In England, since Ld. Tenterden's Act (9 Geo. 4, ch. 14), the existence of items within six years, in an open account, will not operate to take the previous portion of the account out of the Statute of Limitations. Cottam *v.* Partridge, 4 M. & G. 271.

[3] Farrington *v.* Lee, 1 Mod. 269; 2 Mod. 311; Cranch *v.* Kirkman, Peake's Cas. 121, and note (1), by Day; Union Bank *v.* Knapp, 3 Pick. 96.

[4] Trueman *v.* Hurst, 1 T. R. 40; Mandeville *v.* Wilson, 5 Cranch, 15; Bass *v.* Bass, 5 Pick. 187; McLellan *v.* Crofton, 6 Greenl. 307.

[5] Hurst *v.* Parker, 1 B. & Ald. 92; 2 Chitty, R. 249; Oothout *v.* Thompson, 20 Johns. 277; Brown *v.* Anderson, 13 Mass. 201; Thompson *v.* Brown, 16 Mass. 172; Dawes *v.* Shed, 15 Mass. 6; Ex parte Allen, Ib. 58; Parkman *v.* Osgood, 3 Greenl. 17.

a case within this exception, it must be alleged in the replication, and shown by proof, to conform to the statute in each of those particulars; every part of the exception being equally material. The exception is not of actions, nor of special contracts, nor of any other transactions between merchants, but is restricted to that which is properly *matter of account*, or consists of debits and credits properly arising in account.[1] It has therefore been held, that such claims as bills of exchange,[2] or a contract to receive half the profits of a voyage in lieu of freight,[3] were not merchants' accounts, within this exception. And as the exception was intended to be carved out of cases for which an action of account lies, and as this action does not lie where an account has already been stated between the parties, it has been held, that a *stated account* is not within the exception in the statute.[4] But an account *closed*, by a mere cessation of dealings, we have just seen, is not deemed an account stated. Whether any but *current accounts*, that is, those which contain items within the statute period, are within this exception, is a point upon which the authorities, both in England and America, are not uniform. On the one hand, it is maintained, upon the language of the statute, that if the accounts come within its terms, it is sufficient to save them, though there have been no dealings within the six years.[5] On the other hand, it has been held, that where

[1] Spring *v.* Gray, 5 Mason, R. 525, per Story, J.; 6 Peters, R. 155, S. C.; Cottam *v.* Partridge, 4 M. & G. 271; 4 Scott, N. R. 819. A mere open account, without any agreement that the goods delivered on one side shall go in payment of those delivered on the other, is not *therefore* an account of merchandise, between merchants. Ibid. It has recently been held in England, that the exception as to merchants' accounts does not apply to an action of *indebitatus assumpsit*, but only to the action of account, or perhaps to an action on the case for not accounting. Inglis *v.* Haigh, 5 Jur. 704; 8 M. & W. 769.

[2] Chievly *v.* Bond 4 Mod. 105; Carth. 226; 1 Show. 341, S. C.

[3] Spring *v.* Gray, 5 Mason, R. 505; 6 Peters, R. 155, S. C.

[4] Webber *v.* Tivill, 2 Saund. 124, 127, note (6), (7), by Williams; 5 Mason, R. 526, 527.

[5] Mandeville *v.* Wilson, 15 Cranch, 15; Bass *v.* Bass, 6 Pick. 362, con-

all accounts have ceased for more than six years, the statute is a bar; and that the exception applies only to accounts running within the six years; in which last case, the whole account is saved as to the antecedent items.[1] The accounts also, to be within the exception, must be such as concern the *trade of merchandise;* that is, such as concern traffic in merchandise, where there is a buying and selling of goods, and an account properly arising therefrom.[2] The existence of mutual debits and credits, there being no agreement that the articles delivered on one side shall go in payment for those delivered on the other, has been held insufficient to constitute the accounts, intended in this exception.[3] And it is necessary, moreover, that the parties to the account be *merchants*, or persons who traffic in merchandise, their factors, or servants.[4]

§ 448. The bar of this statute may also be avoided by proof of *fraud* in the defendant, committed under such circumstances as to *conceal* from the plaintiff all knowledge of the fraud, and thus prevent him from asserting his right, until a period beyond the time limited by the statute. But such fraudulent concealment can be shown only under a proper replication of the fact. And it must be alleged and proved, not only that the plaintiff did not know of the existence of the cause of action, but, that the defendant had practised

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firmed in 8 Pick. 187, 192; McLellan *v.* Crofton, 6 Greenl. 307. Such is now the rule in England. See Robinson *v.* Alexander, 8 Bligh, N. S. 352; Inglis *v.* Haigh, 5 Jur. 704; 8 M. & W. 769, S. C.

[1] Welford *v.* Liddel, 2 Vez. 400; Coster *v.* Murray, 5 Johns. Ch. 522; Spring *v.* Gray, 5 Mason, R. 505, 528; 6 Peters, R. 155. See Angell on Limitations, p. 206 – 215; Ramchander *v.* Hammond, 2 Johns. 200.

[2] Spring *v.* Gray, 5 Mason, R. 529, per Story, J.; 6 Peters, R. 155. And see Sturt *v.* Mellish, 2 Atk. 612; Bridges *v.* Mitchell, Bunb. 217; Gilb. Eq. R. 224.

[3] Cottam *v.* Partridge, 4 M. & G. 271; 4 Scott, N. R. 819, S. C.

[4] 5 Mason, R. 530, per Story, J., and authorities there cited; 5 Com. Dig. 52, tit. Merchant, A.; 2 Salk. 445; Hancock *v.* Cook, 18 Pick. 32; Wilkinson on Limitations, p. 21 – 30.

fraud, in order to prevent the plaintiff from obtaining that knowledge at an earlier period.[1]

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[1] Angell on Limitations, p. 190 - 196 ; Bree *v.* Holbeck, 2 Doug. 654 ; confirmed in Brown *v.* Howard, 2 B. & B. 73, 75 ; 4 J. B. Moore, 508, S. C. ; and in Clark *v.* Hougham, 2 B. & C. 149, 153 ; Short *v.* McCarthy, 3 B. & Ald. 626 ; Granger *v.* George, 5 B. & C. 149. And see Macdonald *v.* Macdonald, 1 Bligh, 315. See also Sherwood *v.* Sutton, 5 Mason, R. 143, where all the authorities are reviewed by Story, J. First Mass. Turnp. Co. *v.* Field, 3 Mass. 201 ; Homer *v.* Fish, 1 Pick. 435 ; Welles *v.* Fish, 3 Pick. 74 ; Farnham *v.* Brooks, 9 Pick. 212 ; Jones *v.* Conoway, 4 Yeates, 109 ; Bishop *v.* Little, 3 Greenl. 405 ; Walley *v.* Walley, 3 Bligh, 12. In New York, fraudulent concealment of the cause of action, will not prevent the operation of the statute. Troup *v.* Smith, 20 Johns. 40 ; Allen *v.* Mille, 17 Wend. 202.

MALICIOUS PROSECUTION.

§ 449. To maintain an action for this injury, the plaintiff must prove — (1.) That he has been prosecuted by the defendant, either criminally, or in a civil suit; and that the prosecution is at an end; — (2.) That it was instituted maliciously, and without probable cause; — (3.) That he has thereby sustained damage. It is not necessary, that the whole proceedings be utterly groundless; for if groundless charges are maliciously and without probable cause coupled with others, which are well founded, they are not on that account the less injurious, and therefore constitute a valid cause of action.[1] Nor is the form of the prosecution material; the *gravamen* being, that the plaintiff has improperly been made the subject of legal process, to his damage. If, therefore, a commission of bankruptcy has been sued out against him, though it was afterwards superseded;[2] or his house has been searched under a warrant for smuggled or stolen goods;[3] or, if a commission of lunacy has been taken out against him;[4] or, if special damage has resulted from a false claim of goods;[5] or, if goods have been extorted from him by duress of imprisonment, or abuse of legal process;[6] or, if he has been arrested and held to bail for a debt not due, or for more than was due;[7] and it was

[1] Reed *v.* Taylor, 4 Taunt. 616; Wood *v.* Buckley, 4 Co. 14; Pierce *v.* Thompson, 6 Pick. 193; Stone *v.* Crocker, 24 Pick. 81.

[2] Brown *v.* Chapman, 3 Burr. 1418; Chapman *v.* Pickersgill, 2 Wils. 145.

[3] Boot *v.* Cooper, 1 T. R. 535.

[4] Turner *v.* Turner, Gow, R. 20.

[5] Green *v.* Button, 2 C. M. & R. 707; 1 Tyr. & Gr. 118.

[6] Grainger *v.* Hill, 4 Bing. N. C. 212; 3 Scott, 561; Plummer *v.* Dennett, 6 Greenl. 421.

[7] Savage *v.* Brewer, 15 Pick. 453; Wentworth *v.* Bullen, 9 B. & C. 840; Ray *v.* Law, 1 Peters, C. C. Rep. 210; Somner *v.* Wilt, 4 S. R. 19.

done maliciously, and without probable cause; he may have this remedy for the injury. The action, moreover, is to be brought against the party who actually caused the injury, and not against one who was only a nominal party. And therefore, if one commence a suit in the name of another, without his authority, and attach the goods of the defendant, with malicious intent to vex and harass him, this action lies, though the suit was for a just cause of action.[1] But where the suit was commenced by the attorney of the party, in the course of his general employment, though without the knowledge or assent of his client, it seems, that the party himself is liable.[2] The attorney is not liable, unless he acted wholly without authority, or conspired with his client to oppress and harass the plaintiff.[3] Nor is it material, that the plaintiff was prosecuted by an insufficient process, or before a Court not having jurisdiction of the matter; for a bad indictment may serve all the purposes of malice, as well as a good one; and the injury to the party is not on that account less, than if the process had been regular, and before a competent tribunal.[4]

§ 450. (1.) The fact of the *prosecution* will be proved by duly authenticated copies of the record and proceedings.[5] Some evidence must also be given, that the defendant was the prosecutor. To this end, a copy of the indictment, with the defendant's name indorsed as a witness, is admissible as evidence, that he was sworn to the bill; but this fact may also be proved by one of the grand jury, or other competent

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[1] Pierce *v.* Thompson, 6 Pick. 193.

[2] Jones *v.* Nichols, 3 M. & P. 12.

[3] Bicknell *v.* Dorion, 16 Pick. 468.

[4] Chambers *v.* Robinson, 1 Stra. 691; Anon. 2 Mod. 306; Saville *v.* Roberts, 1 Ld. Raym. 374, 381; Jones *v.* Givin, Gilb. Cas. 185, 201-206, 221; Pippet *v.* Hearn, 5 B. & Ald. 634.

[5] For the law respecting *variance* between the allegation and the proof, see *ante*, Vol. 1, § 63, 64, 65. If the prosecution was in a foreign country, a copy of the record is not indispensably necessary, but other evidence of the facts may be received. Young *v.* Gregory, 3 Call, R. 446.

testimony.[1] It may also be shown, that the defendant employed counsel or other persons, to assist in the prosecution; or, that he gave instructions, paid expenses, procured witnesses, or was otherwise active in forwarding it.

§ 451. Where the suit is for causing the plaintiff to be maliciously arrested and detained until he gave bail, it is sufficient for him to show a detention, without proving that he put in bail; for the detention is the principal *gravamen;* and is in itself *primâ facie* evidence of an arrest,[2] though the mere giving of bail is not.[3] But if the declaration is framed upon the fact of maliciously causing the plaintiff to be held to bail, no evidence of a previous arrest is necessary.[4]

§ 452. It must also appear, that the *prosecution is at an end.*[5] If it was a *civil suit,* its termination may be shown by proof of a rule to discontinue on payment of costs, and that the costs were taxed and paid; without proof of judgment or production of the record;[6] but an order to stay proceedings, is not alone sufficient.[7] If it was terminated by a judgment, this is proved by the record. But where the action is for abusing the process of law, in order illegally to compel a party to do a collateral thing, such as, to give up his property, it is not necessary to aver and prove, that the

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[1] Rex *v.* Commerell, 4 M. & S. 203; Rex *v.* Smith, 1 Burr. 54; Rex *v.* Kettleworth, 5 T. R. 33; Johnson *v.* Browning, 6 Mod. 216. See, as to the competency of grand jurors, *ante,* Vol. 1, § 252.

[2] Bristow *v.* Heywood, 1 Stark. R. 48; 4 Campb. 213, S. C.; Whalley *v.* Pepper, 7 C. & P. 506.

[3] Berry *v.* Adamson, 6 B. & C. 528; 2 C & P. 503, S. C.

[4] Ibid.; Small *v.* Gray, 2 C. & P. 605.

[5] Arundell *v.* Tregono, Yelv. 116; Hunter *v.* French, Willes, 517; Lewis *v.* Farrell, 1 Stra. 114.

[6] Bristow *v.* Haywood, 4 Campb. 213; French *v.* Kirk, 1 Esp. 80; Brook *v.* Carpenter, 3 Bing. 297; Watkins *v.* Lee, 5 M. & W. 270.

[7] Wilkinson *v.* Howell, 1 M. & Malk. 495. Nor is an order to supersede the commission sufficient, in a case of bankruptcy. Poynton *v.* Forster, 3 Campb. 60.

process improperly employed is at an end, nor, that it was sued out without reasonable or probable cause.[1] So, if it was a *criminal prosecution*, the like evidence must be given of its termination. And it must appear, that the plaintiff was *acquitted* of the charge; it is not enough, that the indictment was ended by the entry of a *nolle prosequi;* though if the party pleaded not guilty, and the Attorney General confessed the plea, this would suffice.[2] So, if he was acquitted because of a defect in the indictment, it is sufficient.[3] If the party has been arrested and bound over, on a criminal charge, but the grand jury did not find a bill against him, proof of this fact is not enough, without also showing, that he has been regularly discharged, by order of Court; for the Court may have power to detain him, for good cause, until a further charge is preferred for the same offence.[4] But in other cases, the return of *ignoramus* on a bill, by the grand jury, has been deemed sufficient.[5]

§ 453. (2.) The plaintiff must also show, that the prosecution was instituted *maliciously, and without probable cause;* and both these must concur.[6] If it were malicious, and unfounded, but there was probable cause for the prosecution, this action cannot be maintained.[7] The question of *malice* is for the Jury; and to sustain this averment, the charge must be shown to have been wilfully false.[8] In a legal sense, any

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[1] Grainger *v.* Hill, 4 Bing. N. C. 212; 3 Scott, 561, S. C.

[2] Goddard *v.* Smith, 1 Salk. 21; 6 Mod. 261, S. C.; Smith *v.* Shackelford, 1 Nott & M'C. 36; Fisher *v.* Bristow, 1 Doug. 215; Morgan *v.* Hughes, 2 T. R. 225.

[3] Wicks *v.* Fentham, 4 T. R. 247.

[4] Thomas *v.* De Graffenried, 2 Nott & M'C. 143.

[5] Morgan *v.* Hughes, 2 T. R. 225; Anon. Sty. 10, 372; Atwood *v.* Monger, Sty. 378; Jones *v.* Givin, Gilb. Cas. 185, 220.

[6] Farmer *v.* Darling, 4 Burr. 1971; Stone *v.* Crocker, 24 Pick. 81, 83; Bell *v.* Graham, 1 Nott & M'C. 278.

[7] Arbuckle *v.* Taylor, 3 Dowl. 160; Turner *v.* Turner, Gow, R. 20.

[8] Cohen *v.* Morgan, 6 D. & R. 8; Johnstone *v.* Sutton, 1 T. R. 540;

unlawful act, done wilfully and purposely to the injury of another, is, as against that person, malicious.[1] And if the immediate act be done unwillingly and by coercion, as, where the party preferred an indictment because he was bound over so to do, yet, if he was himself the cause of the coercion, as, by originally making a malicious charge before the magistrate, this will sustain the averment of malice.[2] The proof of malice need not be direct; it may be inferred from circumstances; but it is not to be inferred from the mere fact of the

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Jackson *v.* Burleigh, 3 Esp. 34; Austin *v.* Debnam, 3 B. & C. 139; Burley *v.* Bethune, 5 Taunt. 580; Grant *v.* Duel, 3 Rob. Louis. R. 17.

[1] Commonwealth *v.* Snelling, 15 Pick. 321, 350; Stokley *v.* Harnidge, 8 C. & P. 11. The law, as to malice, was clearly illustrated by Parke, J. in Mitchell *v.* Jenkins, 5 B. & Ad. 588, 594, in the following terms; — "I have always understood, since the case of Johnstone *v.* Sutton, 1 T. R. 510, which was decided long before I was in the profession, that no point of law was more clearly settled than that, in every action for a malicious prosecution or arrest, the plaintiff must prove what is averred in the declaration, viz. that the prosecution or arrest was malicious, and without reasonable or probable cause; if there be reasonable or probable cause, no malice, however distinctly proved, will make the defendant liable; but when there is no reasonable or probable cause, it is for the Jury to infer malice from the facts proved. That is a question in all cases for their consideration, and it having in this instance been withdrawn from them, it is impossible to say, whether they might or might not have come to the conclusion, that the arrest was malicious. It was for them to decide it, and not for the Judge. I can conceive a case, where there are mutual accounts between parties, and where an arrest for the whole sum claimed by the plaintiff would not be malicious; for example, the plaintiff might know that the set-off was open to dispute, and that there was reasonable ground for disputing it. In that case, though it might afterwards appear, that the set-off did exist, the arrest would not be malicious. The term 'malice,' in this form of action, is not to be considered in the sense of spite or hatred against an individual, but of *malus animus*, and as denoting that the party is actuated by improper and indirect motives. That would not be the case where, there being an unsettled account, with items on both sides, one of the parties, believing *bona fide* that a certain sum was due to him, arrested his debtor for that sum, though it afterwards appeared that a less sum was due; nor where a party made such an arrest, acting *bona fide* under a wrong notion of the law, and pursuant to legal advice."

[2] Dubois *v.* Keates, 4 Jur. 148; 3 P. & D. 306, S. C.

plaintiff's acquittal for want of the prosecutor's appearance when called;[1] nor, in the case of a civil suit, from the party's suing out the writ, or neglecting to countermand it, after payment of the debt.[2] But it may be inferred by the Jury, from the want of probable cause.[3] Malice may also be proved by evidence of the defendant's conduct and declarations, and his forwardness and activity in exposing the plaintiff, by a publication of the proceedings against him, or by any other publications by the defendant, on the subject of the charge.[4] And if the prosecution was against the plaintiff jointly with another, evidence of the defendant's malice against the other party is admissible, as tending to show his bad motives against both.[5]

§ 454. The want of *probable cause* is a material averment, and, though negative in its form and character, it must be proved by the plaintiff, by some affirmative evidence;[6] unless the defendant dispenses with this proof, by pleading singly the truth of the facts involved in the prosecution.[7] It is in-

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[1] Purcell *v.* Macnamara, 9 East, 361; 1 Campb. 199, S. C.; Sykes *v.* Dunbar, Ib. 202, n.

[2] Gibson *v.* Chaters, 2 B. & P. 129; Scheibel *v.* Fairbain, 1 B. & P. 388; Page *v.* Wiple, 3 East, 314. Nor from the action being non-prossed, or discontinued; Sinclair *v.* Eldred, 4 Taunt. 7; unless coupled with other circumstances. Bristow *v.* Heywood, 1 Stark. R. 48; Nicholson *v.* Coghill, 4 B. & C. 21; 6 D. & R. 12.

[3] Murray *v.* Long, 1 Wend. 140; Crozer *v.* Pilling, 4 B. & C. 26; Mitchell *v.* Jenkins, 5 B. & Ad. 588; 2 Nev. & M. 301; Turner *v.* Turner, Gow, R. 20; Merriam *v.* Mitchell, 1 Shepl. 439. *Crassa ignorantia* has been held to amount to malice. Brookes *v.* Warwick, 2 Stark. R. 389.

[4] Chambers *v.* Robinson, 1 Stra. 691.

[5] Caddy *v.* Barlow, 1 M. & Ry. 275.

[6] *Ante*, Vol. 1, § 78; Purcell *v.* Macnamara, 1 Campb. 199; 9 East, 361; McCormick *v.* Sisson, 7 Cowen, 715; Murray *v.* Long, 1 Wend. 140; Gorton *v.* De Angelis, 6 Wend. 418; Incledon *v.* Berry, 1 Campb. 203, n.; Taylor *v.* Williams, 2 B. & Ad. 845; 6 Bing. 183.

[7] Morris *v.* Corson, 7 Cowen, 281. See also Sterling *v.* Adams, 3 Day, 411.

dependent of malicious motive, and cannot be inferred, as a necessary consequence, from any degree of malice which may be shown.[1] Probable cause for a criminal prosecution is understood to be such conduct on the part of the accused, as may induce the Court to infer that the prosecution was undertaken from public motives.[2] In the case of a private suit, it may consist of such facts and circumstances as lead to the inference, that the party was actuated by an honest and reasonable conviction of the justice of the suit. The question of probable cause is composed of law and fact; it being the province of the Jury to determine, whether the circumstances alleged are true or not; and of the Court to determine, whether they amount to probable cause.[3] But if the matter of fact and matter of law, of which the probable cause consists, are intimately blended together, the Judge will be warranted in leaving the question to the Jury.[4] If the Judge, upon the plaintiff's evidence, is of opinion that there was not probable cause for the prosecution, but upon proof of an additional fact by the defendant, by a witness who is not impeached nor contradicted, he is of opinion that there was probable cause, he is not bound to submit the evidence to the Jury, but may well nonsuit the plaintiff.[5] But where the prosecution was founded on a charge of menaces of the

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[1] 1 Campb. 206, n. (*a*); Sykes *v.* Dunbar, Ibid. 502, n. (*a*).

[2] Ulmer *v.* Leland, 1 Greenl. 135. Or, such a suspicion as would induce a reasonable man to commence a prosecution. Cabaness *v.* Martin, 3 Dev. 454. Or, a reasonable ground of suspicion, supported by circumstances sufficient to warrant a cautious man in believing that the party is guilty of the offence. Munns *v.* Dupont, 3 Wash. C. C. R. 31.

[3] Johnstone *v.* Sutton, 1 T. R. 545; 1 Bro. P. C. 76, S. C.; Blachford *v.* Dod, 2 B. & Ad. 184; Ulmer *v.* Leland, 1 Greenl. 135; Stone *v.* Crocker, 24 Pick. 81; Panton *v.* Williams, 1 G. & D. 504.

[4] McDonald *v.* Rooke, 2 Bing. N. C. 217; 2 Scott, 359, S. C.; *Ante*, Vol. 1, § 49.

[5] Davis *v.* Hardy, 6 B. &. C. 225. In considering whether there was probable cause for an arrest, the Judge will not regard any expressions of general malice on the part of the defendant. Whalley *v.* Pepper, 7 C. & P. 506.

prosecutor's life, it is not for the Judge alone to determine, whether the menaces justified the charge, but it is for the Jury first to determine, whether the defendant believed them; for his disbelief is material to the question of fact, as it goes directly to the motive of the prosecution.[1]

§ 455. What will or will not amount to probable cause, will depend on the circumstances of each particular case. If express malice is proved, and the cause of the former proceedings was peculiarly within the knowledge of the defendant, slight evidence on the part of the plaintiff of the absence of probable cause will be deemed sufficient.[2] The discharge of the plaintiff, by the examining magistrate, is *primâ facie* evidence of the want of probable cause, sufficient to throw upon the defendant the burden of proving the contrary.[3] But in ordinary cases, it will not be sufficient to show, that the plaintiff was acquitted of an indictment by reason of the non-appearance of the defendant, who was the prosecutor;[4] nor, that the defendant, after instituting a prosecution, did not proceed with it;[5] nor, that the grand jury returned the bill "not found."[6] Nor will the mere possession of goods, supposed to have been stolen, afford sufficient probable cause for prosecuting the possessor, if no inquiry was made of him, nor any opportunity given him to explain, how his possession was acquired. And, on the other hand, the fact that the party's goods have not been stolen, but were acci-

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[1] Venafra *v.* Johnson, 10 Bing. 301; 6 C. &. P. 50, S. C.; Broad *v.* Ham, 5 Bing. N. C. 722.

[2] Incledon *v.* Berry, 1 Campb. 203, n. (*a*); Bull. N. P. 14; Nicholson *v.* Coghill, 4 B. & C. 21.

[3] Secor *v.* Babcock, 2 Johns. 203; Johnston *v.* Martin, 2 Murphey, R. 248; Bostick *v.* Rutherford, 4 Hawks, R. 83.

[4] Purcell *v.* Macnamara, 1 Campb. 199; 9 East, 361, S. C.

[5] Wallis *v.* Alpine, 1 Campb. 204, n.

[6] Byne *v.* Moore, 5 Taunt. 187; Freeman *v.* Arkell, 2 B. & C. 494; 3 D. & R. 669, S. C. But the prosecutor may still be liable for slander. Bull. N. P. 13.

dentally mislaid, will not alone establish the want of probable cause for prosecuting one as having stolen them.[1] Probable cause does not depend on the actual state of the case, in point of fact, but upon the honest and reasonable belief of the party prosecuting.[2] Yet if this belief, however confident and strong, was induced by the prosecutor's own error, mistake, or negligence, without any occasion for suspicion given by the party prosecuted, it will not amount to probable cause.[3]

§ 456. (3.) As to the *damages*. Whether the plaintiff has been prosecuted by indictment, or by civil proceedings, the principle of awarding damages is the same; and he is entitled to indemnity for the peril occasioned to him in regard to his life or liberty, for the injury to his reputation, his feelings, and his person, and for all the expenses to which he necessarily has been subjected.[4] And if no evidence is given of particular damages, yet the Jury are not therefore obliged to find nominal damages only.[5] Where the prosecution was by suit at Common Law, no damages will be given for the ordinary taxable costs, if they were recovered in that action; but if there was a malicious arrest, or the suit was malicious, and without probable cause, the extraordinary costs, as between attorney and client, as well as all other expenses necessarily incurred in defence, are to be taken into the estimate of damages.[6] Whatever was admissible in evidence to defeat

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[1] Swaim *v.* Stafford, 4 Iredell, R. 392, 398.

[2] James *v.* Phelps, 11 Ad. & El. 489; Delegal *v.* Highley, 3 Bing. N. C. 950; Seibert *v.* Price, 5 Watts & Serg. 438; Swaim *v.* Stafford, 4 Iredell, R. 389; Plummer *v.* Gheen, 3 Hawks, R. 66.

[3] Merriam *v.* Mitchell, 1 Shepl. 439.

[4] Bull. N. P. 13, 14; Tompson *v.* Mussey, 3 Greenl. 305.

[5] Tripp *v.* Thomas, 3 B. & C. 427.

[6] Sandback *v.* Thomas, 1 Stark. R 306; Gould *v.* Barratt, 2 M. & Rob. 171. And see Doe *v.* Davis, 1 Esp. 358; Nowel *v.* Roake, 7 B. & C. 404. In Sinclair *v.* Eldred, 4 Taunt. 7, it was decided that the extra costs of defence could not be recovered, unless there had been a malicious arrest of the person; and Best, C. J., in Webber *v.* Nicholas, Ry. & M. 417, felt

the original malicious suit, is admissible for the plaintiff in this action, to maintain his right to recover for the injury sustained.[1]

§ 457. The *defence* of this action usually consists in disproving the charge of malice, or in showing the existence of probable cause for the prosecution. And in proof of probable cause for a criminal prosecution, it seems that the testimony of the defendant himself, to facts peculiarly within his own knowledge, given upon the trial, *diverso intuitu*, is admissible in the action against him for causing that prosecution.[2] But the testimony of other witnesses, given on that occasion, cannot be proved but by the witnesses themselves, or, if they are dead, by the usual secondary evidence.[3] Probable cause may also be proved by evidence, that the acquittal of the plaintiff, in the suit or prosecution against him, was the result of deliberation by the Jury, the testimony having been sufficient to induce them to pause ;[4] or, that he had been convicted of the offence before a Justice of the Peace, who had jurisdiction of the case, though he was afterwards acquitted on an appeal from the sentence.[5] If the original suit was for the recovery of money claimed as a debt, and the defendant, submitting to the demand, obtains a

himself reluctantly bound by this decision ; but said he thought Ld. Ellenborough's opinion in Sandback *v.* Thomas the correct one.

[1] Hadden *v.* Mills, 4 C. & P. 486.

[2] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 352 ; Bull. N. P. 14. Or, the evidence of his wife. Johnson *v.* Browning, 6 Mod. 216. And see Burlingame *v.* Burlingame, 8 Cowen, R. 141 ; Jackson *v.* Bull, 2 M. & Rob. 176 ; Scott *v.* Wilson, Cooke, R. 315 ; Moodey *v.* Pender, 2 Hayw. 29 ; Guerrant *v.* Tinder, Gilmer, R. 36 ; Watt *v.* Greenlee, 2 Murphey, R. 246.

[3] Burt *v.* Place, 4 Wend. 591.

[4] Smith *v.* Macdonald, 3 Esp. 7 ; Grant *v.* Deuel, 3 Rob. Louis. R. 17.

[5] Whitney *v.* Peckham, 15 Mass. 243 ; Griffis *v.* Sellars, 2 Dev. & Bat. 492 ; Commonwealth *v.* Davis, 11 Pick. 433, 438. Such conviction is conclusive evidence of probable cause, unless it was obtained chiefly or wholly by the *false* testimony of the defendant. Witham *v.* Gowen, 2 Shepl. 362 ; Payson *v.* Caswell, 9 Shepl. 212.

suppression of the process by the payment of part of the sum demanded, this, under ordinary circumstances, is a conclusive admission of the existence of probable cause for the suit.[1]

§ 458. Ordinarily, the character of the plaintiff is not in issue in this action. But in one case, where the charge against him was for larceny, the defendant was allowed, in addition to the circumstances of suspicion, which were sufficient to justify his taking the plaintiff into custody, to prove that he was a man of notoriously bad character.[2]

§ 459. How far the *advice of counsel* may go, to establish the fact of probable cause for the prosecution, is a point upon which there has been some diversity of opinion. It is agreed, that if a full and correct statement of the case has been submitted to legal counsel, the advice thereupon given furnishes sufficient probable cause for proceeding accordingly.[3] But whether the party's omission to state to his counsel a fact, well known, but honestly supposed not to be material, or his omission, through ignorance, to state a material fact which actually existed, will render the advice of counsel unavailable to him as evidence of probable cause, does not appear to have been expressly decided.[4] The rule,

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[1] Savage *v.* Brewer, 16 Pick. 453.

[2] Rodriguez *v.* Tadmire, 2 Esp. 721. And see 12 Rep. 92; 2 Inst. 51, 52; 2 Phil. Evid. 258. In Newsam *v.* Carr, 2 Stark. R. 69, upon a question being put to one of the witnesses, whether he had not searched the plaintiff's house on a former occasion, and whether he was not a person of suspicious character, it was objected to; but it is said, that "Wood, B. overruled the objection;" though the observations, attributed to him by the reporter, seem to show that in his opinion the question was improper.

[3] Hewlett *v.* Cruchley, 5 Taunt. 277. And see Snow *v.* Allen, 1 Stark. R. 502; Ravenga *v.* McIntosh, 2 B. & C. 693.

[4] In Tompson *v.* Mussey, 3 Greenl. 305, 310, the defendant had prosecuted the plaintiff for misconduct as an assessor, in not giving public notice, *in the warrant* calling a town meeting, of the time and place of the meeting of the assessors, to receive evidence of the qualifications of voters whose names were not on the public list. The county attorney had advised

however, as recognized in a recent American case, seems broad enough to protect any party, acting in good faith, and without gross negligence. For it is laid down, that if the party "did *not withhold* any information from his counsel, *with the intent* to procure an opinion that might operate to shelter and protect him against a suit, but, on the contrary, if he, being doubtful of his legal rights, consulted learned counsel with a view to ascertain them, and afterwards pursued the course pointed out by his legal adviser, he is not liable to this action, notwithstanding his counsel may have mistaken the law." [1]

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the defendant, that the notice was required by law to be inserted in the warrant; but in this case it was contained in a separate paper, posted up by the side of the warrant; but this fact, though known to the defendant, he did not state to the grand jury. And the Court seemed to think, that if this omission had not been intentional and fraudulent, the opinion of the county attorney would have furnished probable cause for the prosecution.

[1] Stone *v.* Swift, 4 Pick. 393. In this case, however, no question was made, whether any material fact had been omitted. See acc. Tompson *v.* Mussey, 3 Greenl. 310. See also Blunt *v.* Little, 3 Mason, R. 102.

MARRIAGE.

§ 460. Marriage is a civil contract, *jure gentium*, to the validity of which the consent of parties, able to contract, is all that is required by natural or public law. If the contract is made *per verba de præsenti*, though it is not consummated by cohabitation, or, if it be made *per verba de futuro*, and be followed by consummation, it amounts to a valid marriage, in the absence of all civil regulations to the contrary.[1] And though in most if not all of the United States there are statutes, regulating the celebration of the marriage rites, and inflicting penalties on all who disobey the regulations, yet it is generally considered that, in the absence of any positive statute, declaring that all marriages, not celebrated in the prescribed manner, shall be absolutely void, or that none but certain magistrates or ministers shall solemnize a marriage, any marriage, regularly made according to the Common Law, without observing the statute regulations, would still be a valid marriage.[2] A marriage, celebrated in any country according to its own laws, is recognized as valid in every other country, whose laws or policy it may not contravene;[3] but the converse of this rule is not universally true.[4]

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[1] 2 Kent, Comm. p. 87; Fenton *v.* Reed, 4 Johns. 52; Jackson *v.* Winne, 7 Wend. 47.

[2] 2 Kent, Comm. p. 90, 91; Reeve's Dom. Rel. p. 196, 200, 290; Milford *v.* Worcester, 7 Mass. 55, 56; Londonderry *v.* Chester, 2 N. Hamp. R. 268; Cheseldine *v.* Brewer, 1 Har. & McH. 152; Hantz *v.* Sealey, 6 Binn. 405.

[3] Scrimshire *v.* Scrimshire, 2 Hagg. Consist. R. 407, 419; 2 Kent, Comm. 91, 92. The exceptions to the generality of the rule, that the *lex loci* governs the contract of marriage, are of three classes; (1.) in cases of incest and polygamy; (2.) when prohibited by positive law; (3.) when celebrated in desert or barbarous countries, according to the law of the domicil. Story, Confl. Laws, § 114 – 119.

[4] Per Ld. Stowell, 2 Hagg. Consist. R. 390, 391; Story, Confl. Laws,

§ 461. The *proof of marriage*, as of other issues, is either by direct evidence, establishing the fact, or by evidence of collateral facts and circumstances, from which its existence may be inferred. Evidence of the former kind, or what is equivalent to it, is required upon the trial of indictments for polygamy and adultery, and in actions for criminal conversation ;[1] but in all other cases, any other satisfactory evidence is sufficient. The affirmative sentence of a Court having jurisdiction of the question of marriage or no marriage, is conclusive evidence of the marriage.[2] Other direct proof is made either by the testimony of a witness present at the celebration, or of either of the parties themselves, where they are competent; or by an examined or certified copy of the register of the marriage, where such registration is required by law, with proof of the identity of the parties.[3] It is not necessary, in other cases, to prove any license, publication of banns, or compliance with any other statute formal-

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§ 119 – 121. If parties go abroad for the purpose of contracting in a foreign State a marriage, which could not have been contracted in their own country, but is not in violation of good morals, it seems, that it is to be held valid, if not made invalid by express statute. Medway *v.* Needham, 16 Mass. 157; Putnam *v.* Putnam, 8 Pick. 433; Bull. N. P. 113, 114; Phillips *v.* Hunter, 2 H. Bl. 412; Story, Confl. Laws, § 123, *a*, *b*, 124.

[1] Morris *v.* Miller, 4 Burr. 2059; Leader *v.* Barry, 1 Esp. 353; Commonwealth *v.* Norcross, 9 Mass. 492; Commonwealth *v.* Littlejohn, 15 Mass. 163; The People *v.* Humphrey, 7 Johns. 314. On the trial of an indictment for polygamy or adultery, the prisoner's deliberate declaration, that he was married to the alleged wife, is admissible as sufficient evidence of the marriage. Regina *v.* Upton, 1 C. & Kir. 165, n. Especially if the marriage was in another country. Regina *v.* Simmonsto, Ibid. 164; Cayford's case, 7 Greenl. 57; Truman's case, 1 East, P. C. 470. So, in an action for criminal conversation. Rigg *v.* Curgenven, 2 Wils. 399, citing Morris *v.* Miller, 4 Burr. 2057; Forney *v.* Hallacher, 8 S. & R. 159. But see *contra*, The People *v.* Miller, 7 Johns. 314; The State *v.* Roswell, 6 Conn. R. 446.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 484, 493, 544, 545.

[3] Ibid. See, as to proof by the parties themselves, Cowp. 593; Lomax *v.* Lomax, Cas. temp. Hardw. 380; Hubback, Evidence of Succession, p. 241, 242, 244; Standen *v.* Standen, Peake's Cas. 32.

ity, unless the statute expressly requires it as preliminary evidence.[1]

§ 462. Marriage may also be proved, in civil cases, by *reputation, declarations, and conduct* of the parties, and other circumstances, usually accompanying that relation. The nature and admissibility of the evidence of *reputation*, has already been considered in the preceding volume.[2] In regard to the language and *conduct of the parties*, it is competent to show their conversation and letters, addressing each other as man and wife;[3] their elopement as lovers, and subsequent return as married persons;[4] their appearing in respectable society, and being there received as man and wife;[5] their observance of the customs and usages of society, peculiar to the entry upon or subsistence of that relation;[6] the assumption by the woman of the name of the man, the wedding ring, the apparel (where such difference exists) appropriate to married women, and any other conduct, *sciente, videnle, et patiente viro*, indicative of her marriage to him.[7] Their cohabitation also, as man and wife, is presumed to be

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[1] Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 239.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 103, 104, 106, 107, 131–134. It has been stated, in a work of distinguished merit (Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 244), that reputation of marriage, unlike that of other matters of pedigree, may proceed from persons who are not members of the family. But in the principal case cited to this point (Evans *v.* Morgan, 2 C. & Jer. 453), the chief reason for admitting the sufficiency of such evidence, after verdict, was, that the witness was not cross-examined, and that the defendant did not put the want of proof of the marriage to the Judge, as a ground of nonsuit, so that the plaintiff might have had an opportunity of supplying the defect by other evidence. See Johnson *v.* Lawson, 9 Moore, 187; 2 Bing, 88, S. C.; Roe *v.* Gore, 9 Moore, 187, n.

[3] Alfray *v.* Alfray, 2 Phillim. Eccl. R. 547.

[4] Cooke *v.* Lloyd, Peake's Cas. App. lxxiv.

[5] Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 247.

[6] Eaton *v.* Bright, 2 Phillim. Eccl. R. 85; Fownes *v.* Ettricke, Ibid. 257.

[7] Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 247, 248.

lawful, until the contrary appears. The like inference is drawn from the baptism, acknowledgment, and treatment of their children by them as legitimate;[1] and from their joining as man and wife, in the conveyance of her real estate, or her joining with him in a deed or other act, releasing her right of dower in his estate;[2] and from the disposition of property to a party by a mode of assurance, which is operative only where legal consanguinity exists; such as, a covenant to stand seised, and the like, or, by the devolution upon, and enjoyment by children, of property, to which, unless they were legitimate, they would not have been entitled.[3] The recognition or proof of collateral relationship, also, is admissible as evidence of the lawful marriage of those through whom that relationship is derived.[4]

§ 463. Where a *contract in writing* is by the law of the country, or of the religious community, made essential to the marriage, as is the case among the Jews, it should be produced, as the proper evidence of the fact.[5] And where written contracts are not requisite nor usual, yet if they have been in fact made, though by words *de futuro*, these, as well as marriage articles, and other ante-nuptial and dotal acts, are admissible in evidence, as tending to raise a presumption that the contemplated marriage took effect.[6] A *certificate of marriage*, also, by the officiating clergyman or magistrate,

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[1] Doe *v.* Fleming, 4 Bing. 266; Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 248–251; Bond *v.* Bond, 2 Phillim. Eccl. R. 45; The People *v.* Humphrey, 7 Johns. 314; Newburyport *v.* Boothbay, 9 Mass. 414.

[2] Hervey *v.* Hervey, 2 W. Bl. 877; Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 248.

[3] Slaney *v.* Wade, 1 My. & C. 358; Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 248, 254.

[4] Eaton *v.* Bright, 2 Phillim. Eccl. R. 85; Ibid. 161, S. C. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 194.

[5] Semb. Horn *v.* Noel, 1 Campb. 61. See, as to the Jewish contract, Lindo *v.* Belisario, 1 Hagg. Consist. R. 225, 247, App. 9; Goldsmid *v.* Bromer, Ibid. 324.

[6] Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 257.

though ordinarily not in itself evidence of the fact it recites, yet if proved to have been carefully kept in the custody of the party whom it affects, and produced from the proper custody, it may be read as collateral proof, in the nature of a declaration and assertion by the party, of the fact stated in the paper.[1] And where the marriage appeared to have been solemnized by one who publicly assumed the office of a priest, in a public chapel, and was followed by long cohabitation of the parties, this was held sufficient to warrant the presumption that he was really a priest, and that the marriage was therefore valid.[2]

§ 464. The evidence of marriage may be *rebutted* by proof that any circumstances, rendered indispensably necessary by law to a valid marriage, were wanting.[3] Thus, it may be shown that either of the parties had another husband or wife, living at the time of the marriage in question; or, that the parties were related within the prohibited degrees; or, that consent was wanting, the marriage having been effected by force, or fraud; or, that one of the parties was at the time an idiot, or *non compos mentis*, or insane.[4] And where marriage is inferred from cohabitation, the presumption may be destroyed by evidence of the subsequent and long continued separation of the parties.[5]

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[1] Hubback, Evid. of Succession, p. 258, 259.

[2] Rex *v.* Brampton, 10 East, 287.

[3] Milford *v.* Worcester, 7 Mass. 48.

[4] 2 Kent, Comm. p. 76, 77; 1 Bl. Comm. 438. Where the marriage is invalidated on the ground of want of consent, the subject must have been investigated and the fact established, in a suit instituted for the purpose of annulling the marriage. 2 Kent, Comm. p. 77; Wightman *v.* Wightman, 4 Johns. Ch. R. 343. See also Middleborough *v.* Rochester, 12 Mass. 363; Turner *v.* Myers, 1 Hagg. Consist. R. 414.

[5] Van Buskirk *v.* Claw, 18 Johns. 346.

NUISANCE.

§ 465. Nuisance, in its largest sense, signifies "anything that worketh hurt, inconvenience, or damage."[1] It is either public, annoying all the members of the community; or it is private, injuriously affecting the lands, tenements or hereditaments of an individual. The latter only will be here considered.

§ 466. Nuisances to one's *dwelling-house*, are all acts done by another from without, which render the enjoyment of life within the house uncomfortable; whether it be by infecting the air with noisome smells, or with gasses injurious to health; or by exciting the constant apprehension of danger, whether by keeping great quantities of gunpowder near the house, or by deep and dangerous excavation of the neighboring soil, or, by suffering the adjoining tenement to be ruinous, and in danger of failing upon or otherwise materially injuring the neighboring house and its inmates;[2] or, by the exercise of a trade by machinery, which produces continual noise and vibration in the adjoining tenement. So it is a nuisance, if one overhangs the roof of his neighbor, throwing the water upon it from his own; or, if he obstructs his neighbor's ancient lights; or if, without due precaution, he pulls down his own walls or vaults, whereby injury is caused to the buildings or walls of his neighbor. But the mere circumstance of juxtaposition does not oblige him to give notice to his neighbor of his intention to remove his own walls; nor is he bound to use extraordinary caution, where he is ignorant

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[1] 3 Bl. Comm. 215.

[2] Keilw. 98, b, pl. 4; Co. Lit. 56, a, note (2), 56, b; Loring *v.* Bacon, 4 Mass. 575, 578.

of the existence of the adjacent wall, as, if it be under the ground.[1]

§ 467. In regard to *lands*, it is a nuisance to carry on a trade in the vicinity, by means of which the corn and grass or the cattle are injured; or to neglect to repair and keep open ditches, by means of which the land is overflowed. It is also a nuisance to stop or divert water, that uses to run to another's mill, or through or by his lands; or to corrupt a watercourse and render it offensive or less fit for use.[2] For every man is entitled to the enjoyment of the air in its natural purity, of his ancient lights without obstruction, of the flow of waters in their natural course and condition through his own land; and to the support of the neighboring soil, both to preserve the surface of his own in its natural state, unbroken, and to uphold his ancient buildings thereon.[3] But it is not a nuisance to divert a subterranean flow of water under another's land, by lawful operations on one's own.[4]

§ 468. In regard to *incorporeal hereditaments*, nuisances consist in obstructing or otherwise injuriously affecting a way, which one has annexed to his estate, over the lands of another; or in impairing the value of his fair, market, ferry, or other franchise, by any act causing a continuing damage.[5]

§ 469. If the nuisance is injurious to the *reversion*, the reversioner, and the tenant in possession, may each have an

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[1] Trower *v.* Chadwick, 3 Bing. N. C. 334; 3 Scott, 699, S. C.; Chadwick *v.* Trower, 6 Bing. N. C. 1; Panton *v.* Holland, 17 Johns. 92.

[2] 3 Bl. Comm. 216 – 218.

[3] Wyatt *v.* Harrison, 3 B. & Ad. 871; Dodd *v.* Holme, 1 Ad. & El. 493; 3 N. & M. 739. And see the learned notes of Mr. Rand, to the opposing case of Thurston *v.* Hancock, 12 Mass. 212, 227 *a*, 228 *a*.

[4] Acton *v.* Blundell, 12 M. & W. 324.

[5] 3 Bl. Comm. 218, 219.

action for his separate damage;[1] and in the action by the former the tenant is a competent witness.[2] And though the nuisance might be abated before the estate comes into possession, yet if it is capable of continuance, the reversioner may maintain an action.[3]

§ 470. In an action upon the case for a nuisance, the plaintiff must prove, (1.) his *possession* of the house or land, or his *reversionary interest* therein, if the action is for an injury to this species of interest; or, his title to the *incorporeal right* alleged to have been injured; (2.) the *injurious act* alleged to have been done by the defendant; and (3.) the *damages* thence resulting. The action is local; but, ordinarily, the allegation of the place will be taken merely as *venue*, unless a local description is precisely and particularly given, in which case it must be proved as laid.[4]

§ 471. (1.) If the injury is done to the plaintiff's *incorporeal* right, and the title is alleged by *prescription*, such title must be proved; but though it was formerly held necessary to allege specially a right by prescription, it is now deemed sufficient to allege the right generally, as incident to the plaintiff's possession of the house or land.[5] A legal title to an incorporeal hereditament is proved by an uninterrupted adverse enjoyment for twenty years;[6] and it may be pre-

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[1] Biddlesford *v.* Onslow, 3 Lev. 209; Shadwell *v.* Hutchinson, 4 C. & P. 333.

[2] Doddington *v.* Hudson, 1 Bing. 257.

[3] Jesser *v.* Gifford, 4 Burr. 2141; Shadwell *v.* Hutchinson, 3 C. & P. 615.

[4] Hamer *v.* Raymond, 5 Taunt. 789.

[5] 1 Chitty on Pl. 330; 2 Saund. 175 *a*, n.; Yelv. 216 *a*, note (1), by Metcalf; Story *v.* Odin, 12 Mass. 157. Proof of the plaintiff's possession of part of the premises, is sufficient to support the general allegation, that he was possessed of a certain messuage and premises. Fenn *v.* Grafton, 2 Bing. 617.

[6] Lewis *v.* Price, cited 2 Saund. 175 *a*; Winchelsea Causes, 4 Burr. 1963; Rex *v.* Dawes, Ibid. 2022; Bealey *v.* Shaw, 6 East, 215; Hill *v.*

sumed by the Jury, from such enjoyment for a shorter period, if other circumstances support the presumption. It may also be claimed by a *quasi* estoppel; as, if one build a new house on his land, and afterwards sell it to another, neither the vendor, nor any one claiming under him, can obstruct the lights.[1] In either case, the extent of the right is ascertained by the extent and nature of the enjoyment. Therefore, if an *ancient window* to a shop or malthouse is somewhat darkened, no action lies, if there is still light enough for the purpose for which it has been used.[2] And if an ancient window is enlarged, the adjoining owner cannot obstruct the passage of light through the old window, notwithstanding the party may derive an equal quantity of light from the new one.[3] But to maintain this action, there must be a substantial privation of light, so as to render the occupation of the house uncomfortable, or impair its value; the merely taking off a ray or two is not sufficient.[4] So, in regard to a *way* by prescription; the extent of the enjoyment determines the extent of the right. If therefore such a way has always been used for one purpose, as, to cart fuel, it cannot be used for a different purpose, as, to cart stones; and if it has been used only for a way to Black acre, it cannot be used for a way to White acre, which lies adjoining and beyond it, though belonging to the same person.[5]

Crosby, 2 Pick. 466; Angell on Adverse Enjoyment, p. 23 – 29, 62, 63; Ante, Vol. 1, § 17, and cases there cited.

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 39, 45; Best on Presumptions, p. 102, 103, 106; Palmer *v.* Fletcher, 1 Lev. 122; Compton *v.* Richards, 1 Price, 27; Riviere *v.* Bower, Ry. & M. 24; Coutts *v.* Gorham, 1 M. & Malk. 396; Story *v.* Odin, 12 Mass. 157.

[2] Martin *v.* Goble, 1 Campb. 320, 322.

[3] Chandler *v.* Thompson, 3 Campb. 80; Bealey *v.* Shaw, 6 East, 208.

[4] Back *v.* Stacey, 2 C. & P. 465; Pringle *v.* Wernham, 7 C. & P. 377; Wells *v.* Ody, Ibid. 410.

[5] Senhouse *v.* Christian, 1 T. R. 569, per Ashhurst, J.; Howell *v.* King, 1 Mod. 190; 39 H. 6, 6; Davenport *v.* Lamson, 21 Pick. 72.

§ 472. (2.) As to the proof, that the injury was *caused by the defendant*, it is sufficient to show, that it was done by his authority, or, that, having acquired the title to the land after the nuisance was erected, he has continued it.[1] Thus, if the nuisance is erected on the defendant's land, by his permission, he is liable.[2] And if the defendant, after judgment against him for the nuisance, lets the same land to a tenant, with the nuisance continuing upon it, he, as well as his tenant, is liable for its continuance, in another action.[3] So, if the plaintiff has purchased a house, against which a nuisance has been committed, he may maintain this action for the continuance of the nuisance, after request to abate it.[4]

§ 473. Ordinarily, every person is bound to use reasonable care to avoid or prevent danger or damage to his person and property. Wherever, therefore, the injury complained of would never have existed but for the misconduct or *culpable neglect of the plaintiff*, as in the case of an obstruction within the limits of the highway, but outside of the travelled path, against which he negligently drove his vehicle ;[5] or, in the case of a collision at sea, wholly imputable to his own negligence ;[6] or, of his neglect to shore up his own house, for want of which it was injured by the pulling down of the defendant's adjoining house, notwithstanding due care

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[1] Penruddock's case, 5 Co. 100 ; Dawson *v.* Moore, 7 C. & P. 25.

[2] Winter *v.* Charter, 3 Y. & J. 308. If the injury is caused by a wall erected partly on the defendant's land, case lies for the nuisance, though the wall is erected in part on the plaintiff's land, by an act of trespass. Wells *v.* Ody, 1 M. & W. 452.

[3] Rosewell *v.* Prior, 2 Salk. 460 ; Staple *v.* Spring, 10 Mass. 72.

[4] Penruddock's case, 5 Co. 100, 101 ; Willes, R. 583.

[5] Smith *v.* Smith, 2 Pick. 621. See also Flower *v.* Adam, 2 Taunt. 314 ; Steele *v.* Inland W. L. Nav. Co. 2 Johns. 283 ; Lebanon *v.* Olcott, 1 N. Hamp. R. 339.

[6] Vanderplank *v.* Miller, 1 M. & Malk. 169. And see Butterfield *v.* Forrester, 11 East, 60.

taken by the latter ;[1] in these and the like cases the plaintiff cannot recover, but must bear the consequences of his own fault. So, if the act of the defendant was at first no annoyance to the plaintiff, but has become so by his own act, as, by opening a new window in his house, this being the proximate cause of the annoyance, he cannot recover.[2] If the injury is wholly *imputable to the defendant*, it is perfectly clear that he is liable. The case of *faults on both sides*, is one of greater embarrassment ; but the result of the authorities seems to be this, that the burden of proof is on the plaintiff to show that, notwithstanding any neglect or fault on his part, the injury is in no respect attributable to himself, but is wholly attributable to the misconduct on the part of the defendant, as the *proximate cause*.[3] Thus, if injury results to the plaintiff's house by the actual negligence and misconduct of the defendant in pulling down his own, the plaintiff may recover his damages, notwithstanding he has not himself used the precautions of shoring up his walls.[4] If the fault was *mutual*, the plaintiff cannot recover.[5] Thus, where the injury was occasioned by negligence in taking down a party-wall, and the plaintiff appointed an agent to superintend the work jointly with the defendant's agent, both of whom were to blame, it was held, that neither could impute negligence to the

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[1] Peyton *v.* Mayor &c. of London, 9 B. & C. 725. And see Blyth *v.* Topham, Cro. Jac. 158 ; Whitmore *v.* Wilks, 3 C. & P. 364 ; Massey *v.* Goyner, 4 C. & P. 161.

[2] Lawrence *v.* Obee, 3 Campb. 514.

[3] Walters *v.* Pfeil, 1 M. & Malk. 362 ; Dodd *v.* Holme, 2 Ad. & El. 493 ; 3 N. & M. 739 ; Bradley *v.* Waterhouse, 3 C. & P. 318 ; Brock *v.* Copeland, 1 Esp. 203 ; Bird *v.* Holbrook, 4 Bing. 628 ; Ilott *v.* Wilkes, 3 B. & Ald. 304 ; Flower *v.* Adam, 2 Taunt. 314 ; Hawkins *v.* Cooper, 8 C. & P. 473.

[4] Walters *v.* Pfeil, 1 M. & Malk. 362.

[5] Vanderplank *v.* Miller, 1 M. & Malk. 169. See the interesting case of Deane *v.* Clayton, 7 Taunt. 489 ; 2 Marsh. 577 ; 1 Moore, 203, commented on in Bird *v.* Holbrook, 4 Bing. 628.

other.[1] If the injury resulted from an omission of duty by the defendant, such as to repair a way, or a fence, his obligation must be proved.[2]

§ 474. (3.) In proof of the *damages*, it is sufficient for the plaintiff to show, that, by reason of the injurious act or omission of the defendant, he cannot enjoy his right in as full and ample a manner as before, or, that his property is substantially impaired in value. If the injury is a direct infringement of his absolute right, abridging his power and means of exercising it, such as diverting or polluting a watercourse flowing through his land, or obstructing his private way, or the like, no evidence of special damage will be necessary, in order to entitle him to recover; but where the damages are consequential, or affect his relative rights, some damage must be proved.[3] Where the injury consists in the destruction of a tenement, the measure of damages is the value of the old tenement, and not the cost of replacing it by a new one.[4]

§ 475. The *defence* to this action, aside from defect of proof on the part of the plaintiff, generally consists either in a license from the plaintiff to do the act complained of, or in a denial of its injurious consequences, or, where the plaintiff claims a prescriptive right, in opposing it by another and adverse enjoyment, of sufficiently long duration. Thus, if the evidence of title to a right of way, or to the use of lights, is derived from an enjoyment of twenty years' duration, it may be rebutted by evidence, that during the whole or a part of that period, the premises were in the occupation of the de-

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[1] Hill *v.* Warren, 2 Stark. R. 377. And see Stafford Canal Co. *v.* Hallen, 6 B. & C. 317.

[2] Co. Lit. 56, *a*, note (2), Harg. & Butl. ed.; Russell *v.* The Men of Devon, 2 T. R. 671; Loring *v.* Bacon, 4 Mass. 575, 578; Payne *v.* Rogers, 2 H. Bl. 349.

[3] Cotterell *v.* Griffiths, 4 Esp. 69; Allen *v.* Ormond, 8 East, 4.

[4] Lukin *v.* Godsall, 2 Peake's Cas. 15.

fendant's tenant; for by his *laches* the defendant was not concluded;[1] or, that the enjoyment of the right by the plaintiff, was under the express leave or favor of the defendant, or by mistake, and not adverse to the defendant's title.[2] So, the plaintiff's claim to the natural flow of water across or by his land, without diminution or alteration, may be rebutted by evidence of an adverse right, founded on more than twenty years' enjoyment, to divert or use it for lawful purposes.[3] If the act complained of, was done by the *parol license* of the plaintiff, at the defendant's expense, this is a good defence, though if the license were executory, it might have been void by the statute of frauds; for even a parol license, when executed, is not countermandable.[4]

§ 476. As it is the enjoyment of an incorporeal hereditament that gives the prescriptive right, so the *ceasing to enjoy* destroys the right, unless, at the time when the party discontinues the enjoyment, he does some act to show, that he intends to resume it within a reasonable time.[5] Evidence of abandonment by the plaintiff will therefore be a good defence against his claim; and the burden of proof will be on him to show, that the abandonment was but temporary, and

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[1] Daniel *v.* North, 11 East, 372. See also Barker *v.* Richardson, 4 B. & Ald. 578.

[2] Campbell *v.* Wilson, 3 East, 294. And see Brown *v.* Gay, 3 Greenl. 126; Gates *v.* Butler, 3 Humphreys, R. 447; Cooper *v.* Barber, 3 Taunt. 99.

[3] Bealey *v.* Shaw, 6 East, 214, per Ld. Ellenborough. And see Balston *v.* Bensted, 1 Campb. 463.

[4] Winter *v.* Brockwell, 8 East, 308. See also 1 Hayw. 28; Liggins *v.* Inge, 7 Bing. 690; Web *v.* Paternoster, Palm. 71; Bridges *v.* Blanchard, 1 Ad. & El. 536. But no license to alter windows can be inferred from the fact, that the adjoining owner witnessed the alterations as they were going on, without objection; so as to prevent him from afterwards obstructing them by building on his own land. Blanchard *v.* Bridges, 4 Ad. & El. 176.

[5] Moore *v.* Rawson, 3 B. & C. 332, 337, per Bayley, J. And see Garritt *v.* Sharp, 3 Ad. & El. 325.

that he intended to resume the enjoyment of the right.[1] If the plaintiff, having a right to the unobstructed access of light and air through a window, should materially alter the form of the wall in which the window is put out, as by changing it from straight to circular, this will amount to an abandonment of the right.[2]

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[1] Moore *v.* Rawson, 3 B. & C. 332, 337, per Bayley, J. And see Garritt *v.* Sharp, 3 Ad. & El. 325.

[2] Blanchard *v.* Bridges, 4 Ad. & El. 176.

PARTNERSHIP.

§ 477. The question of partnership is raised in actions either between the partners themselves, or between them and third persons; but the evidence which would prove a partnership against the partners, in favor of other persons, is sufficient, *primâ facie*, to prove it in actions between the partners alone, and also in actions in their favor, against third persons.[1]

§ 478. It is a general rule, that, where the action is *by several plaintiffs*, they must prove either an express contract by the defendant with them all, or the joint interest of all in the subject of the suit. If they are jointly interested as partners, they may sue jointly upon a contract made by the joint agent of all, though the names of all are not expressed in the instrument. But it must appear, that all who sue were partners at the time of making the contract;[2] for one who has been subsequently admitted as a partner cannot join, though it were agreed that he should become equally interested with the others in all the existing property and rights of the firm; unless, upon or after the accession of the incoming partner, there has been a new and binding promise to pay to the firm as newly constituted;[3] or unless the secu-

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[1] Peacock *v.* Peacock, 2 Campb. 46, per Ld. Ellenborough; Stearns *v.* Haven, 14 Verm. R. 540. In the latter case a stranger cannot object, that the contract does not constitute a partnership, in legal strictness, if the parties themselves have treated it as such a contract. Ibid. See also Bond *v.* Pittard, 3 M. & W. 357.

[2] Ord *v.* Portal, 3 Campb. 239, 240, n.; Ege *v.* Kyle, 2 Watts, 222; McGregor *v.* Cleveland, 5 Wend. 475.

[3] Wilsford *v.* Wood, 1 Esp. 182. And see Wright *v.* Russell, 3 Wils. 530; 2 W. Bl. 934; Ex parte Marsh, 2 Rose, R. 239. The mere transfer

rity, being negotiable, has been transferred by indorsement.[1] Where several plaintiffs sue as indorsees of a bill indorsed in blank, they are not bound to prove any partnership, nor any transfer expressly to themselves; unless it should appear, that it had once been specially transferred to some of them, and not to all.[2] And where a negotiable security due by one firm is indorsed to another firm, or a debt is due in any other form by one firm to another, and one of the individuals is a partner in both firms, no action can be maintained for the debt, for no one can be interested as a party on both sides of the record.[3] If business is carried on in the names of several persons who in fact are not partners, the entire interest being in one only, he may sue alone; but he must distinctly prove, that the others were not his partners;[4] to prove which they are competent witnesses.[5] On the other hand, if an express contract is made with one alone, he may maintain an action upon it in his own name only, though others, whose names are not mentioned in the contract, are interested in it jointly with himself,[6] and might well have joined in the action.[7] If

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of a balance due to the old firm into the books of the new firm, does not vest in the latter a right of action for such balance, unless the assent of the debtor is proved. Armsby *v.* Farnham, 16 Pick. 318.

[1] Pease *v.* Hirst, 10 B. & C. 122; Ord *v* Portal, 3 Campb. 239; Ege *v.* Kyle, 2 Watts, 222; McGregor *v.* Cleveland, 5 Wend. 475.

[2] Rordasnz *v.* Leach, 1 Stark. R. 446; Machell *v.* Kinnear, Ibid. 499.

[3] Bosanquet *v.* Wray, 6 Taunt. 597; Mainwaring *v.* Newman, 2 B. & P. 120; Moffatt *v.* Van Millingen, Ibid. 124, n. The purchase of such a bill or note, would be regarded as payment of it, for account of the partner in question. Ibid. And the giving of such a security would seem, on the same principle, to amount only to evidence of a similar payment.

[4] Teed *v.* Elworthy, 14 East, 210; Atkinson *v.* Laing, 1 D. & Ry. Cas. 16; Davenport *v.* Rackstrow, 1 C. & P. 89.

[5] Parsons *v.* Crosby, 5 Esp. 199; Glossop *v.* Colman, 1 Stark. R. 25.

[6] Lloyd *v.* Archbowle, 2 Taunt. 324; Mawman *v.* Gillett, Ibid. 325, n.

[7] Leveck *v.* Shaftoe, 2 Esp. 468; Skinner *v.* Stocks, 4 B. & Ald. 437; Lord *v.* Baldwin, 6 Pick. 348. But proof, that the contract was expressly made with one alone, upon his assertion, that the subject-matter was his sole property, will be conclusive to defeat an action on that contract by all the partners. Lucas *v.* De la Cour, 1 M. & S. 249.

the name of the firm has remained a long time the same, but the partners have been changed, parol evidence is admissible, in an action upon a contract made in the name of the firm, to show that the plaintiffs were in fact the real members of the firm at the time of making the contract.[1]

§ 479. The usual proof of partnership is by the evidence of clerks, or other persons, who know that the parties have actually carried on business as partners. Though the partnership was constituted by indentures, or other writings, it is ordinarily not necessary, in an action between the partners and third persons, to produce them.[2] And if the witness, called to prove a partnership in fact, is unable to recollect the names of all who are members of the firm, his memory may be assisted by suggesting them.[3]

§ 480. In *defence* of an action of *assumpsit* brought by partners, the defendant may show any separate agreement between him and one of the plaintiffs, which would have been available if made by all; such as, an agreement by one to provide for the payment of a bill, accepted by the defendant for the accommodation of the firm;[4] or an agreement with the drawer of a bill, by A., a partner in the house of A. and B., to provide for the payment of the bill, which was negotiated by them to the firm of A. & C., in which also he was a partner.[5] So, where the defendant has allowed to one partner the amount of the partnership debt, on settlement of his private account against the partner, if done in good faith, it is a valid defence against the firm.[6] So if, in the particular transaction, the conduct of one partner has been fraudulent,

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[1] Moller *v.* Lambert, 2 Campb. 548.

[2] Alderson *v.* Clay, 1 Stark. R. 405; Collyer on Partn. 406.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 435; Acerro *v.* Petroni, 1 Stark. R. 400.

[4] Richmond *v.* Heapy, 1 Stark. R. 202; Sparrow *v.* Chisman, 9 B. & C. 241; Jones *v.* Yates, 9 B. & C. 532.

[5] Jacaud *v.* French, 12 East, 317.

[6] Henderson *v.* Wild, 2 Campb. 561.

as, if he sell and deceitfully pack goods, in a foreign country, to be imported in fraud of the revenue laws, it is a good defence to an action by the firm for the price, though his partners were ignorant of the fraud.[1]

§ 481. As *between the parties* themselves, a partnership is constituted by a voluntary contract between two or more competent persons to place their money, effects, labor, and skill, or some or all of them, in lawful commerce or business, with the understanding, that there shall be a communion of the profits thereof between them.[2] The proof of the partnership, therefore, will be made by any competent evidence of such an agreement. If it is contained in written articles, these, in an action between the partners, must be produced or proved; and the parties themselves will be governed by their particular terms, but their precise limitations will not affect strangers, to whom they are unknown.[3]

§ 482. In favor of third persons, and *against the partners* themselves, the same agreement ought generally to be established by such competent evidence as is accessible to strangers. Where there is a community of interest in the property, and also a community of interest in the profits, there is a partnership. If there is neither of these, there is no partnership. If one of these ingredients exists, without the presence of the other, the general rule is, that no partnership will be created between the parties themselves, if it would be contrary to their real intentions and objects. And none will be created between themselves and third persons, if the whole transactions are clearly susceptible of a different interpretation, or exclude some of the essential ingredients of

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[1] Biggs *v.* Lawrence, 3 T. R. 454.

[2] Story on Partn. § 2; 3 Kent, Comm. p. 23, 24; Collyer on Partn. p. 2.

[3] Winship *v.* United States Bank, 5 Peters, R. 529; Gill *v.* Kuhn, 6 S. & R. 333; Churchman *v.* Smith, 6 Whart. 146; Tillier *v.* Whitehead, 1 Dall. 269; United States Bank *v.* Binney, 5 Mason, R. 176.

partnership.[1] The cases, in which a liability as partners as to third persons exists, have been distributed into five classes. First, where, although there is no community of interest in the capital stock, yet the parties agree to have a community

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[1] Story on Partn. § 30. This learned author proceeds to discuss the distinction between an agreement for a compensation proportioned to the profits, and an agreement for an interest in such profits, so as to entitle him to an account as a partner, and then observes as follows: — "Admitting, however, that a participation in the profits will ordinarily establish the existence of a partnership between the parties in favor of third persons, in the absence of all other opposing circumstances, it remains to consider, whether the rule ought to be regarded, as any thing more than mere prescriptive proof thereof, and therefore liable to be repelled, and overcome by other circumstances, and not as of itself overcoming or controlling them. In other words, the question is, whether the circumstances, under which the participation in the profits exists, may not qualify the presumption, and satisfactorily prove, that the portion of the profits is taken, not in the character of a partner, but in the character of an agent, as a mere compensation for labor and services. If the latter be the true predicament of the party, and the whole transaction admits, nay, requires, that very interpretation, where is the rule of law, which forces upon the transaction the opposite interpretation, and requires the Court to pronounce an agency to be a partnership, contrary to the truth of the facts, and the intention of the parties? Now, it is precisely upon this very ground, that no such absolute rule exists, and that it is a mere presumption of law, which prevails in the absence of controlling circumstances, but is controlled by them, that the doctrine in the authorities alluded to is founded. If the participation in the profits can be clearly shown to be in the character of agent, then the presumption of partnership is repelled. In this way the law carries into effect the actual intention of the parties, and violates none of its own established rules. It simply refuses to make a person a partner, who is but an agent for a compensation, payable out of the profits; and there is no hardship upon third persons, since the party does not hold himself out, as more than an agent. This qualification of the rule (the rule itself being built upon an artificial foundation) is, in truth, but carrying into effect the real intention of the parties, and would seem far more consonant to justice and equity, than to enforce an opposite doctrine, which must always carry in its train serious mischiefs, or ruinous results, never contemplated by the parties." Ibid. § 38. And after citing and commenting on the principal cases upon this subject, he concludes thus; — "These may suffice as illustrations of the distinction above alluded to. The whole foundation, on which it rests, is, that no partnership is intended to be created by the parties *inter*

of interest or participation in the profit and loss of the business or adventure, as principals, either indefinitely, or in fixed proportions. Secondly, where there is, strictly speaking, no capital stock, but labor, skill, and industry are to be contrib-

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sese; that the agent is not clothed with the general powers, rights, or duties of a partner; that the share in the profits given to him is not designed to make him a partner, either in the capital stock, or in the profits, but to excite his diligence, and secure his personal skill and exertions, as an agent of the concern, and is contemplated merely as a compensation therefor. It is, therefore, not only susceptible of being treated purely as a case of agency; but in reality it is positively and absolutely so, as far as the intention of the parties can accomplish the object. Under such circumstances, what ground is there in reason, or in equity, or in natural justice, why in favor of third persons this intention should be overthrown, and another rule substituted, which must work a manifest injustice to the agent, and has not operated either as a fraud, or a deceit, or an intentional wrong upon third persons? Why should the agent, who is by this very agreement deprived of all power over the capital stock, and the disposal of the funds, and even of the ordinary rights of a partner to a levy thereon, and an account thereof, be thus subjected to an unlimited responsibility to third persons, from whom he has taken no more of the funds or profits, (and, indeed, ordinarily less so,) than he would have taken, if the compensation had been fixed and absolute, instead of being contingent? If there be any stubborn rule of law, which establishes such a doctrine, it must be obeyed; but if none such exists, then it is assuming the very ground in controversy to assert, that it flows from general analogies or principles. On the contrary, it may be far more correctly said, that even admitting, (what, as a matter unaffected by decisions, and to be reasoned out upon original principles, might well be doubted,) that where each party is to take a share of the profits indefinitely, and is to bear a proportion of the losses, each having an equal right to act as a principal, as to the profits, although the capital stock might belong to one only, it shall constitute, as to third persons, a case of partnership; yet that rule ought not to apply to cases, where one party is to act manifestly as the mere agent for another, and is to receive a compensation for his skill and services only, and not to share as a partner, or to possess the rights and powers of a partner. In short, the true rule, *ex æquo et bono*, would seem to be, that the agreement and intention of the parties themselves should govern all the cases. If they intended a partnership in the capital stock, or in the profits, or in both, then, that the same rule should apply in favor of third persons, even if the agreement were unknown to them. And on the other hand, if no such partnership were intended between the parties, then, that there should be none as to

uted by each in the business, as principals, and the profit and loss thereof are to be shared in like manner. Thirdly, where the profit is to be shared between the parties, as principals, in like manner, but the loss, if any occurs beyond the profit, is to be borne exclusively by one party only. Fourthly, where the parties are not in reality partners, but hold themselves out, or at least are held out by the party sought to be charged, as partners to third persons, who give credit to them accordingly. Fifthly, where one of the parties is to receive an annuity out of the profits, or as a part thereof.[1] Wherever, therefore, the evidence brings the case

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third persons, unless where the parties had held themselves out as partners to the public, or their conduct operated as a fraud or deceit upon third persons. It is upon this foundation, that the decisions rest, which affirm the truth and correctness of the distinction already considered, as a qualification of the more general doctrine contended for. And in this view it is difficult to perceive, why it has not a just support in reason, and equity, and public policy. Wherever the profits and losses are to be shared by the parties in fixed proportions and shares, and each is intended to be clothed with the powers, and rights, and duties, and responsibilities of a principal, either as to the capital stock, or the profits, or both, there may be a just ground to assert, in the absence of all controlling stipulations and circumstances, that they intend a partnership. But where one party is stripped of the powers and rights of a partner, and clothed only with the more limited powers and rights of an agent, it seems harsh, if not unreasonable, to crowd upon him the duties and responsibilities of a partner, which he has never assumed, and for which he has no reciprocity of reward or interest. It has, therefore, been well said by Mr. Chancellor Kent, in his learned Commentaries, that 'to be a partner, one must have such an interest in the profits, as will entitle him to an account, and give him a specific lien or preference in payment over other creditors. There is a distinction between a stipulation for a compensation for labor proportioned to the profits, which does not make a person a partner; and a stipulation for an interest in such profits, which entitles the party to an account, as a partner.' And Mr. Collyer has given the same doctrine in equally expressive terms, when he says, that in order to constitute a communion of profits between the parties, which shall make them partners, the interest in the profits must be mutual; that is, each person must have a specific interest in the profits, as a principal trader." Ibid. § 48, 49.

[1] Story on Partn. § 54; Ibid. § 55 – 70; Collyer on Partn. ch. 1, sec. 2, p. 43 – 56.

within either of these classes, a partnership, as against the parties, will be sufficiently proved.

§ 483. It is essential, in an *action ex contractu against partners*, that the evidence of partnership should extend to all the defendants;[1] otherwise the plaintiff will be nonsuited. But the utmost strictness of proof is not required; for though where they sue as plaintiffs, they may well be held to some strictness of proof, because they are conusant of all the means whereby the fact of partnership may be proved; yet where they are defendants, the facts being less known to the plaintiff, it is sufficient for him to prove, that they have acted as partners, and that, by their habit and course of dealing, conduct and declarations, they have induced those with whom they have dealt to consider them as partners.[2] Hence if two persons have in many instances traded jointly, this will be admissible evidence towards the proof of a general partnership, and sufficient, if the instances of joint dealing outweigh the instances of separate dealing, to throw upon the defendants the burden of proving that it was not such a partnership.[3] And though the partnership was established by deed, yet, against the parties, it may be

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[1] Young *v.* Hunter, 4 Taunt. 582. In *assumpsit*, the fact of partnership is put in issue by the plea of *non assumpsit*. Tomlinson *v.* Collett, 3 Blackf. 436.

[2] 2 Stark. Evid. 585, 586; Evans *v.* Curtis, 2 C. & P. 296. If it be clear that the party, at the time of the acts and admissions, was not a partner, they will not render him liable for a prior debt of the firm. Saville *v.* Robertson, 4 T. R. 720. Nor will an admission of a partnership in one transaction, bind the party as a partner in another matter not connected with it. De Berkom *v.* Smith, 1 Esp. 29.

[3] Newnham *v.* Tetherington, cited in Collyer on Partn. p. 450; Etheridge *v.* Binney, 9 Pick. 272. The signature of a joint note by two persons, is no evidence of a partnership between them. Hopkins *v.* Smith, 11 Johns. R. 161. But the signature of the name of a firm, is evidence, against the person signing it, that he is one of the partners. Spencer *v.* Billing, 3 Campb. 312.

proved by oral evidence of partnership transactions,[1] or by the books of the firm.[2] But evidence of general reputation, or common report of the existence of the partnership, is not admissible, except in corroboration of previous testimony; unless it be to prove the fact, that the partnership, otherwise shown to exist, was known to the plaintiff.[3]

§ 484. A partnership may also be proved against the parties by their respective *declarations and admissions*, whether verbal, or in letters, or other writings. Thus where, upon the trial of the question of partnership, the defendants, in order to render a witness competent, executed a release to him, the release was permitted to be read by the plaintiff, as competent evidence in chief, to establish the partnership.[4] So also, an entry at the Custom-house, by one partner in the name of the firm, is admissible, though not conclusive evidence, for the same purpose.[5] In other cases, the act, declaration, or admission of one person is not admissible in evidence to establish the fact, that others are his partners, though it is ordinarily sufficient to prove it as against himself.[6] But if, in an action against three as partners, two

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[1] Alderson *v.* Clay, 1 Stark. R. 405; Widdifield *v.* Widdifield, 2 Binn. 249; Allen *v.* Rostain, 11 S. & R. 362.

[2] Richter *v.* Selin, 8 S. & R. 425; Champlin *v.* Tilley, 3 Day, R. 306; Hill *v.* Manchester Waterw. Co. 2 N. & M. 573.

[3] Allen *v.* Rostain, 11 S. & R. 362; Whitney *v.* Sterling, 14 Johns. 215; Bernard *v.* Torrance, 5 Gill & Johns. 383. See also Gowan *v.* Jackson, 20 Johns. 176; Halliday *v.* McDougall, 20 Wend. 81; Brander *v.* Ferriday, 16 Louis. R. 296.

[4] Gibbons *v.* Wilcox, 2 Stark. 43. And see Parker *v.* Barker, 1 B. & B. 9. Declarations made to a third person are admissible, though not made in the presence of the other parties. Shott *v.* Strealfield, 1 M. & Rob. 8.

[5] Ellis *v.* Watson, 2 Stark. R. 453.

[6] Burgue *v.* De Tastet, 3 Stark. R. 53; Flower *v.* Young, 3 Campb. 240; Tinkler *v.* Walpole, 14 East, 226; Cooper *v.* South, 4 Taunt. 802; Whitney *v.* Ferris, 10 Johns. 66; Tuttle *v.* Cooper, 5 Pick. 414; Robbins *v.* Willard, 6 Pick. 464; McPherson *v.* Rathbone, 7 Wend. 216.

have acknowledged the existence of articles of copartnership, which the third, on due notice, refuses to produce at the trial, the jury will be warranted in finding the fact of partnership upon this evidence alone.[1] In one case, where the issue of partnership was raised by a plea in abatement, for the non-joinder of parties as defendants, the admission of liability as a partner, by one not joined in the suit, being good in an action against him, was held to be also receivable on this issue, to prove him a partner.[2]

§ 485. The *proof of partnership* may be *answered* by the defendant, by evidence of an arrangement between the parties, by which either the power of the acting partner to bind the firm, or the defendant's liability on the contracts of the firm, was limited, qualified, or defeated; provided the plaintiff had previous and express notice.[3] The defendant may also show, that he was not a partner in the particular trade in which the transaction took place, and that the plaintiff knew the fact;[4] or, that the partnership was previously dissolved; or, that he had notified the plaintiff not to deal with his partner without his own concurrence.[5]

§ 486. In an action against the administrators of a deceased partner, the *surviving partner* is a competent witness to prove the partnership; for he has no interest in the matter, such an action not being maintainable at law.[6] But in an action brought by the surviving partner, as such, the *widow of his deceased partner* is not a competent witness for him,

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[1] Whitney *v.* Sterling, 14 Johns. 215.

[2] Clay *v.* Langslow, 1 M. & Malk. 45. *Sed quære*, and see ante, Vol. 1, § 395; Miller *v.* M'Clenachan, 1 Yeates, R. 144.

[3] Minnett *v.* Whitney, 5 Bro. P. C. 489; Collyer on Partn. 214, 456; Ex parte Harris, 1 Madd. R. 583; Alderson *v.* Clay, 1 Campb. 404.

[4] Jones *v.* Hunter, Dan. & Lloyd, 215; Collyer on Partn. 456.

[5] Willis *v.* Dyson, 1 Stark. R. 164; Ld. Galway *v.* Matthew, 10 East, 264.

[6] Grant *v.* Shurter, 1 Wend. 148.

her testimony going to increase the fund, of which she is entitled to a distributive share.[1] A *dormant partner* is a competent witness for his partner, in an action by the latter, if he releases his interest in the subject of the suit.[2]

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[1] Allen *v.* Blanchard, 9 Cowen, R. 631.
[2] Clarkson *v.* Carter, 3 Cowen, R. 84.

PATENTS.

§ 487. The remedy for the infringement of a patent right, both by statute and Common Law, is by an action on the case.[1] From the nature of the action, and the tenor of the

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[1] Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, § 14; 1 Chitty on Plead. 131. The declaration for the infringement of this right is given by Mr. Phillips, in his excellent Treatise on the Law of Patents, p. 520, as follows: — "To answer to A. of B. in the county of S. in the district of , manufacturer, in a plea of trespass on the case, for that the plaintiff was the original and first inventor [or discoverer] of a certain new and useful art [machine, manufacture, composition of matter, or improvement on any art, machine, &c. taking the words of the statute most applicable to the subject of the invention] in the letters-patent hereinafter mentioned and fully described, the same being a new and useful [here insert the title or description given in the letters-patent] which was not known or used before his said invention [or discovery], and which was not, at the time of his application for a patent as hereinafter mentioned, in public use or on sale with his consent or allowance; and the plaintiff, being so as aforesaid the inventor [or discoverer] thereof, and being also a citizen of the United States [if the fact is so],[1] on the day of [here insert the date of the patent] upon due application therefor, did obtain certain letters-patent therefor in due form of law under the seal of the patent office of the United States, signed by the secretary of state, and countersigned by the commissioner of patents of the

"[1] It has been suggested, in a preceding part of this work, p. 408," (says Mr. Phillips in his note on this place,) "that the citizenship of the patentee need not be proved by the plaintiff, and, if so, it need not be averred. This will, however, depend upon the construction that shall be given to the 15th section of the act of 1836, c. 357, by which, if the patentee be an alien, the defendant is permitted to give matter in evidence tending to show that the patentee has 'failed and neglected for the space of eighteen months from the date of the patent to put and continue on sale to the public, on reasonable terms, the invention or discovery.' The position referred to in p. 408 assumes, that the burden on this point is, in conformity to the language of the statute, in the first instance, on the defendant. But to go on the safer side, the above form of declaring assumes the burden to be on the plaintiff to aver and prove, in the first instance, that the patentee is a citizen of the United States, or, if an alien, and the eighteen months have expired before the date of the writ, that he has put and continued the invention on sale in the United States on reasonable terms.

declaration, as stated below, it is apparent that the plaintiff, under the general issue, may be required, and therefore should be prepared to prove, (1.) the grant and issuing of the letters-patent, together with the specification, and the assign-

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United States, bearing date the day and year aforesaid, whereby there was secured to him, his heirs, administrators, executors, or assigns,[1] for the term of fourteen years from and after the date of the patent, the full and exclusive right and liberty of making, using, and vending to others to be used, the said invention [machine, improvement, or discovery], as by the said letters-patent, in court to be produced,[2] will fully appear.[3] And the plaintiff further says, that from the time of the granting to him of the said letters-patent, hitherto, he has made, used, and vended to others to be used, [or he has made, *or* has used, *or* has vended to others to be used, as the case may be] the said invention [machine, improvement, or discovery] to his great advantage and profit [or if he has not made, used, or vended, then, instead of the above averments, may be substituted after the word 'hitherto,' 'the said exclusive right has been and now is of great value to him, to wit, of the value of $.'][4] Yet the said D., well knowing the premises, but contriving to injure the plaintiff,[5] did on the [some day after the

"[1] Act of 4th of July, 1836, ch. 357, s. 5.

"[2] Which the plaintiff brings here into court. Chit. Pl. v. 2, p. 765, 5th ed.

"[3] The English precedents here state the making and filing of the specification, the assignment of the patent, and the recording of the assignment, if the action be in the name of an assignee, or if an assignee of part of the right is joined.

"If the patentee is an alien, and the counsel chooses to declare very cautiously, if eighteen months have expired from the date of the patent, he may here introduce the averment, that within eighteen months from the date of the patent, viz. on, &c. at, &c. he (or his assignees, or he and his assignees,) put the invention on sale in the United States, on reasonable terms, and from that time always afterwards to the time of purchasing the writ, he, (or they, or he and they) had continued the same on public sale in the United States on reasonable terms.

"[4] The principle upon which these averments are made is the same as that upon which, in an action for trespass upon personal property, the value of the property is alleged, by way of showing that it was a thing in respect to which the plaintiff might sustain damage. Mr. Gould says of this averment, 'As he [the plaintiff] is not obliged to state the true value, the rule requiring it to be stated would seem to be of no great practical use.' Gould's Pl. c. 4, s. 37, p. 187. Mr. Chitty says the above averments as to profit, by making, using, and vending, are sometimes omitted. The propriety of making the averment of the value seems to depend upon the question, whether the allegation of ownership of an article or species of personal property, or interest in it, and possession of it, imports a value to the plaintiff without specifically alleging its value; for if it does, then a ground of action distinctly appears without any such specific allegation.

"[5] 'Contriving and wrongfully intending to injure the plaintiff, and to deprive him

ment to him, if he claims as assignee; (2.) that the invention was that of the patentee, and was prior to that of any other person; (3.) that it is new and useful, and has been reduced to practice; (4.) that it has subsequently been infringed by the defendant; and the damages, if any beyond a nominal sum are claimed.

§ 488. (1.) The *letters-patent*, to which, in the United States, a copy of the *specification* is annexed as a part thereof, are proved either by the production of the originals, or by copies of the record of the same, under the seal of the patent office, and certified by the Commissioner of Patents, or, if his office be vacant, by the chief clerk.[1] If the patent

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date of the patent] and at divers times before and afterwards, during the said term of fourteen years, mentioned in said letters-patent, and before the purchase of this writ, at C. in the county of M. in said district of , unlawfully and wrongfully, and without the consent or allowance, and against the will of the plaintiff, make [use and vend to others to be used, or did make, or did use, or did vend to others to be used, as the case may be] the said invention [machine, improvement, or discovery] in violation and infringement of the exclusive right so secured to the plaintiff by said letters-patent, as aforesaid, and contrary to the form of the statutes of the United States in such case made and provided, whereby the plaintiff has been greatly injured, and deprived of great profits and advantages which he might and otherwise would have derived from said invention; and has sustained actual damage to the amount of , and by force of the statute aforesaid, an action has accrued to him to recover the said actual damage, and such additional amount, not exceeding in the whole three times the amount of such actual damages,[1] as the Court may see fit to order and adjudge. Yet the said D., though requested, has never paid the same, or any part thereof, to the plaintiff, but hath refused, and yet refuses so to do."

[1] Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, § 4, 5. By this act, no letters-patent are to be issued until the specification is filed; which it is the duty of the clerk to enrol; and therefore no particular evidence of the enrolment is required on

of the profits, benefits, and advantages, which he might and otherwise would have derived and acquired from the making, using, exercising, and vending of the said invention, after the making of the said letters-patent, and within the said term of fourteen years in said letters-patent mentioned.' Chit. Pl. 5th ed. v. 2, p. 766.

"[1] Act of 4th of July, 1836, ch. 357, s. 14."

is for an improvement, and the specification refers to the former patent, without which it is not sufficiently clear and intelligible, the former patent with its specification must also be produced.[1] Where the proof is by an exemplification, it must be of the whole record, and not of a part only. The drawings, if any, must be produced, whenever they form part of the specification.

§ 489. As letters-patent are not granted as restrictions upon the rights of the community, but to promote science and the useful arts,[2] the Courts will give a *liberal construction* to the language of patents and specifications, adopting that interpretation, which gives the fullest effect to the nature and extent of the claim made by the inventor.[3] The meaning, is a question for the Court, the words of art having been interpreted by the Jury.[4] If there is any obscurity in them, reference may be had to the affidavit of the patentee, made and filed prior to the issuing of the patent.[5] No precise form of words is necessary, provided their import can be clearly ascertained by fair interpretation, even though the expressions may be inaccurate.[6] But if the claim is of an abstract principle or function only, detached from machinery, it is void.[7]

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the part of the plaintiff. But in England, where the letters-patent are issued before the specification is filed, the party is bound to see to the enrolment of his specification within a limited time, and therefore is bound to show that this requirement has been complied with. Ex parte Beck, 1 Bro. Ch. R. 578; Ex parte Koops, 6 Ves. 599; Watson *v.* Pears, 2 Campb. 294.

[1] Lewis *v.* Davis, 3 C. & P. 502; Phillips on Patents, p. 401, 402.

[2] Blanchard *v.* Sprague, 3 Sumn. R. 535.

[3] Ryan *v.* Goodwin, 3 Sumn. R. 514.

[4] Neilson *v.* Harford, 8 M. & W. 806.

[5] Pettibone *v.* Derringer, 4 Wash. R. 215.

[6] Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273; Minter *v.* Mower, Webst. Pat. Cas. 138, 141; 6 Ad. & El. 735, S. C.; Derosne *v.* Fairie, Ibid. 154, 157; 5 Tyrw. 393; 1 M. & Rob. 457, S. C.

[7] Blanchard *v.* Sprague, 3 Sumn. 535; Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273;

§ 490. The plaintiff must give some evidence of the *sufficiency* of the specification, if denied; such as, the evidence of persons of science, and workmen, that they have read the specification, and can understand it, and have practised the invention according to it; and such evidence will be sufficient, unless the defendant can show, that persons have been misled by the specification, or have incurred expense in attempting to follow it, and were unable to ascertain what was meant.[1] If a whole class of substances be mentioned as suitable, the plaintiff must show, that each and every of them will succeed; for otherwise the difficulty of making the instrument will be increased, and the public will be misled.[2] The object of the specification is, that after the expiration of the term, the public shall have the benefit of the discovery.[3] It must be understood according to the acceptation of practical men at the time of its enrolment; and be such as, taken in connexion with the drawings, if any, to which it refers, will enable a skilful mechanic to perform the work.[4] If it contain an untrue statement in fact, which, if literally acted upon by a competent workman, would mislead him, and cause the experiment to fail, it is bad, even though a competent workman, acquainted with the subject, would perceive and in practice correct the error.[5]

§ 491. Besides the formal proof of the *assignment*, where

Lowell *v.* Lewis, 1 Mason, R. 187; Earle *v.* Sawyer, 4 Mason, R. 1; Phillips on Patents, p. 95–100, 109–113; Godson on Patents, ch. iii. sec. v.

[1] Turner *v.* Winter, 1 T. R. 602; Cornish *v.* Keene, 3 Bing. N. C. 570; 4 Scott, 337, S. C. See, on the requisites of a sufficient specification, Phillips on Patents, ch. xi.; Godson on Patents, ch. iv.

[2] Bickford *v.* Skewes, 6 Jur. 167; 1 Gale & D. 736, S. C.

[3] Liardet *v.* Johnson, Bull. N. P. 76; Newberry *v.* James, 2 Meriv. 446.

[4] Crossley *v.* Beverley, 9 B. & C. 63; 3 C. & P. 513, S. C.; Bloxam *v.* Elsee, 1 C. & P. 558; 6 B. & C. 169; Morgan *v.* Seaward, 2 M. & W. 544.

[5] Neilson *v.* Harford, 8 M. & W. 806.

the plaintiff claims as assignee, he must show that the assignment has been recorded in the Patent office, before he can maintain any suit, either at law or in equity, either as sole or joint plaintiff, at least as against third persons.[1]

§ 492. (2.) The next step in the plaintiff's proof is to show, that the *invention* is original, and *his own*, and *prior* to any other. Of this point, as the applicant for a patent is required to make affidavit of the fact, before the patent is issued, the possession of the patent has been held *primâ facie* evidence, in a *scire facias* for its repeal;[2] and it is now held, that the oath of the patentee, made *diverso intuitu*, that he was the true and first inventor, may be opposed to the oath of a witness whose testimony is offered to the contrary, in an action for infringement of the right.[3] The person who first suggests the principle, is the true and first inventor,[4] provided he has also first perfected and adapted the invention to use; for until it is so perfected and adapted to use, it is not patentable.[5] In a race of diligence between two independent and contemporaneous inventors, he, who first reduces his invention to a fixed and positive form, has the priority of title to a patent therefor. But if the first inventor is using reasonable diligence in adapting and perfecting his invention, he will have the prior right, notwithstanding a second inventor has in fact first perfected the same, and first reduced it to practice in a positive form.[6] The language of the stat-

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[1] Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273.

[2] Stearns *v.* Barrett, 1 Mason, R. 153. And see Minter *v.* Wells, Webst. Pat. Cas. 129; 5 Tyrw. 163. On the same principle it has been held in England, irrespective of any oath of the party, that the introducer is *primâ facie* the inventor. Minter *v.* Hart, Webst. Pat. Cas. 131.

[3] Alden *v.* Dewey, 1 Story, R. 336; Ante, Vol. 1, § 352.

[4] Minter *v.* Hart, Webst. Pat. Cas. 131.

[5] Reed *v.* Cutter, 1 Story, R. 590; Bedford *v.* Hunt, 1 Mason, R. 302; Woodcock *v.* Parker, 1 Gallis. R. 438.

[6] Ibid. See, as to the Novelty and Originality of invention, Phillips on Patents, p. 65, 66, 150 – 168; Godson on Patents, p. 36 – 50.

ute,[1] "not known or used by others before his or their discovery thereof," does not require, that the invention should be known or used by more than one person, but merely indicates, that the use should be by some other person or persons than the patentee.[2]

§ 493. (3.) It must also be shown by the plaintiff, that the invention is *new and useful*, and that it has been *reduced to practice*.[3] The fact of novelty does not necessarily follow from the fact of its invention by the patentee; for there may have been several inventors of the same thing, independent of each other. But the question of novelty, in our practice, can hardly arise upon opening the plaintiff's case, inasmuch as the patent itself, issued as it is upon the oath of the applicant, that the invention is new, seems to be *primâ facie* evidence of that fact.[4] It is sufficient, under the statute of the United States, though it is otherwise in England and France, if it appears, that the thing in question was not known or used before the invention thereof by the patentee, though it may have been used prior to the date of the patent.[5] Nor is it necessary to the validity of the patent, that any of the ingredients should be new or unused before for the purpose; the true question being, whether the combination of them by the patentee is substantially new.[6]

§ 494. The question of *utility* is a question for the Jury; who have frequently found, that all that was new in a patent was immaterial or useless.[7] It will be sufficient, however, if

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[1] Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, § 6.

[2] Reed *v.* Cutter, 1 Story, R. 590.

[3] The facts being undisputed, the question whether the invention is new is for the Court. Morgan *v.* Seaward, 2 M. & W. 544; Webst. Pat. Cas. 172.

[4] Phillips on Patents, p. 406, 407.

[5] Ibid. 150 – 164, 407.

[6] Ryan *v.* Goodwin, 3 Sumn. R. 514.

[7] By "useful" is meant, not as superior to all other modes now in prac-

the amount of invention and of utility, taken together, be considerable. Novelty may frequently exist without utility; but great utility cannot be conceived to exist without novelty. Hence great utility does of itself, for all practical purposes, constitute novelty; and the latter may be assumed wherever the former is proved to exist in any degree. Ordinarily, both may be proved by the testimony of persons well conversant with the subject, to the effect, that they had never seen or heard of the invention before, and that the public had given large orders for the article, or that licenses had been taken for the exercise of the right.[1] If the invention has never gone into general use, or has never been pursued, it is a presumption against its utility.[2]

§ 495. The plaintiff must also show, that the invention has been *reduced to practice*, and that it effects what the specification professes, and in the mode there described. For the thing to be patented is not a mere elementary principle, or intellectual discovery, but a principle put in practice, and applied to some art, machine, manufacture, or composition of matter.[3]

§ 496. (4.) The plaintiff, lastly, must prove the *infringement* of his right by the defendant, together with his *damages*, if he claims any beyond a nominal sum. On the point of infringement, the presumption is in favor of the defendant.

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tice, but as opposite to frivolous or mischievous inventions, or, inventions injurious to the moral health or good order of society. Lowell *v.* Lewis, 1 Mason, R. 182; Bedford *v.* Hunt, Ibid. 302.

[1] Webster on Patents, p. 10, 11, 30; Cornish *v.* Keene, 3 Bing. N. C. 570; 4 Scott, 337, S. C.; Galloway *v.* Bleaden, Webst. Pat. Cas. 526; 1 M. & G. 247. And see Hill *v.* Thompson, 8 Taunt. 375; Holt, Cas. 636; Earle *v.* Sawyer, 4 Mason, R. 6.

[2] Morgan *v.* Seaward, 2 M. & W. 544; 1 Jur. 527; Minter *v.* Mower, 6 Ad. & El. 735.

[3] Earle *v.* Sawyer, 4 Mason, R. 1, 6, per Story, J.; Phillips on Patents, ch. 7, sec. 8, p. 109 – 112, 409.

The statute secures to the patentee "the exclusive right of making, using, and vending to others to be used, the invention or discovery."[1] It will be sufficient, therefore, to prove the *making* of the thing patented, for use or sale, though the defendant has never either used or sold it.[2] In the proof of *using*, which is a matter of greater delicacy, a distinction is to be observed between the use of an article about or upon which a patented material or machine has been employed, and the act of applying such material or machine. It is the latter only, which is a violation of the right. Thus, if a carriage has been finished with patented paint, it is the builder, and not the purchaser, who violates the right of the patentee.[3] So, where a quantity of wire watch chains were made to order, in the manufacture of which a patented instrument was unlawfully used, it was held, that the manufacturer alone was liable to the patentee, though the purchaser knew that the instrument in question was used, and approved of its use.[4] But where the defendant *ordered* the goods to be manufactured by the plaintiff's process, which goods he afterwards received and sold, he was held liable.[5] The use of the article merely for philosophical experiment, or for the purpose of ascertaining the verity and exactness of the specification, is not an infringement of the right.[6] As to the fact of using, it may here be observed, that, though this ordinarily is proved only by direct evidence, yet the conduct of the defendant, in refusing to permit the manner of his manufacture, and course of his operations to be inspected, is admissible in evidence, as furnishing a presumption, that he

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[1] Stat. 1836, ch. 357, § 5. Merely exhibiting for sale is no infringement. Minter *v.* Williams, 4 Ad. & El. 251; 5 Nev. & M. 647, S. C.

[2] Whittemore *v.* Cutter, 1 Gall. 429.

[3] Phillips on Patents, p. 361–363.

[4] Keplinger *v.* De Young, 10 Wheat. 358.

[5] Gibson *v.* Brand, 4 M. & G. 179.

[6] Whittemore *v.* Cutter, 1 Gall. 429; Phillips on Patents, p. 366.

has infringed the plaintiff's right. If the article, made by the defendant, agrees in all its qualities with one made upon the plaintiff's plan, it is *primâ facie* evidence, that it was so made.[1]

§ 497. If the use of the machine or other subject of the patent is shown to have been *prior to the grant* of the patent, it is no infringement; but it cannot be afterwards continued. So, if a patent proves to be void, on account of a formal defect in the specification, for which reason it is surrendered, and a new patent is taken out; but in the interim, another person, without license, erects and uses the thing invented, his continued use of it, after the second patent is issued, will be an infringement of the right; but he will not be liable for the intermediate use, before the issuing of the second patent.[2] And the law is the same, where a patent, originally void, is amended by filing a disclaimer, under the statute.[3]

§ 498. It must also appear, that the machine used by the defendant, is *identical* with the subject of the patent. Machines are the same if they operate in the same manner, and produce the same results, upon the same principles.[4] If the differences between the two machines are substantial, they are not alike; but if formal only, then they are alike. To this point, the opinion of *experts* is admissible in evidence; but it is still but matter of opinion, to be weighed and

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[1] Huddart *v.* Grimshaw, Webst. Pat. Cas. 91; Hall *v.* Jarvis, Ibid. 102; Godson on Patents, p. 242; Gibson *v.* Brand, Webst. Pat. Cas. 627, 630.

[2] Ames *v.* Howard, 1 Sumn. 482; Phillips on Patents, p. 368, 370; Dixon *v.* Moyer, 4 Wash. 68.

[3] Perry *v.* Skinner, 2 M. & W. 471; 1 Jur. 433, S. C.; Stat. U. S. 1837, ch. 45, § 7, 9, which is essentially similar to Stat. 5 & 6 W. 4, ch. 83, § 1.

[4] Gray *v.* Osgood, 1 Pet. C. C. R. 394; Odiorne *v.* Winkley, 2 Gall. R. 51. A witness, who has previously constructed a machine like the plaintiff's, may look at a drawing, not made by himself, and say, whether he has such a recollection of the machine, as to be able to say, that it is a correct drawing of it. Rex *v.* Hadden, 2 C. & P. 184.

judged of by all the other circumstances of the case. The question, whether the principles are the same in both machines, when all the facts are given, is rather a matter of law, than of the opinion of mechanics;[1] but the general question of identity, as well as the general question of infringement, being a mixed question of law and fact, is submitted to the Jury, under proper instructions from the Court.[2]

§ 499. The purchaser of a license to use an invention, is a *competent witness* for the plaintiff, in an action for infringement of the patent right; for he has no direct pecuniary interest in supporting the patent, but, on the contrary, it may be for his advantage, that it should not be supported.[3]

§ 500. The *defence*, in an action for infringement of a patent right, is usually directed either to the patent itself, in order to invalidate the plaintiff's title; or to the fact of its violation by the defendant; and it is ordinarily made under the general issue, with notice of special matter to be given in evidence, which the statute permits. The notice of special matter must have been given to the plaintiff or his attorney thirty days before the trial. Any special matter is admissible, "tending," as the statute expresses it, "to prove, (1.) that the description and specification filed by plaintiff does not contain the whole truth relative to his invention or discovery; or (2.) that it contains more than is necessary to produce the described effect; which concealment or addition shall fully appear to have been made for the purpose of deceiving the public; or (3.) that the patentee was not the original and first inventor

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[1] Barrett *v.* Hall, 1 Mason, R. 470, 471. And see Morgan *v.* Seaward, Webst. Pat. Cas. 171.

[2] Ibid.; Morgan *v.* Seaward, Webst. Pat. Cas. 168; Jupe *v.* Pratt, Ibid. 146; Macnamara *v.* Hulse, 1 Car. & Marshm. 471; Boulton *v.* Bull, 2 H. Bl. 480.

[3] Derosne *v.* Fairie, Webst. Pat. Cas. 154; 1 M. & Rob. 457, S.C.

or discoverer of the thing patented, or of a substantial and material part thereof claimed as new; or (4.) that it had been described in some public work anterior to the supposed discovery thereof by the patentee; or (5.) had been in public use or on sale with the consent and allowance of the patentee before his application for a patent; or (6.) that he had surreptitiously or unjustly obtained the patent for that which was in fact invented or discovered by another, who was using reasonable diligence in adapting and perfecting the same; or (7.) that the patentee, if an alien at the time the patent was granted, had failed and neglected, for the space of eighteen months from the date of the patent, to put and continue on sale to the public, on reasonable terms, the invention or discovery for which the patent issued; (8.) and whenever the defendant relies in his defence on the fact of a previous invention, knowledge, or use of the thing patented, he shall state, in his notice of special matter, the names and places of residence of those whom he intends to prove to have possessed a prior knowledge of the thing, and where the same had been used; in either of which cases, judgment shall be rendered for the defendant, with costs; (9.) *Provided, however*, That whenever it shall satisfactorily appear, that the patentee, at the time of making his application for the patent, believed himself to be the first inventor or discoverer of the thing patented, the same shall not be held to be void on account of the invention or discovery, or any part thereof, having been before known or used in any foreign country; it not appearing, that the same, or any substantial part thereof, had before been patented or described in any printed publication." [1]

§ 501. As the proof of *novelty* of invention, on the side of the plaintiff, must of necessity be negative in its character, it may be successfully opposed, on the part of the defendant, by a single witness, testifying, that he had seen the invention

[1] Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, sec. 15.

in actual use, at a time anterior to the plaintiff's invention. The facility with which this defence may be made, affords a strong temptation to the crime of subornation of perjury; to prevent which, the defendant is required to state, in his notice, the names and residence of the witnesses by whom the alleged previous invention is to be proved. But notwithstanding its liability to abuse, the evidence is admissible, to be weighed by the Jury, who are to consider, whether, upon the whole evidence, they are satisfied of the want of novelty.[1] If the action is brought by an assignee against the patentee himself, he is estopped by his own deed of assignment from showing, that it was not a new invention.[2]

§ 502. The *public use and exercise* of an invention, which prevents it from being considered as new, is a use in public, so as to come to the knowledge of others than the inventor, as contra-distinguished from the use of it by himself in private; and does not mean a use by the public generally.[3] But it is not necessary, that the use should come down to the time when the patent was granted; proof of public use, though it has been discontinued, is sufficient to invalidate the patent.[4] And the place of the use, whether at home or abroad, makes no difference;[5] provided, in the case of foreign use, the invention has also been described in a printed publication.[6] It is sufficient to prove, that it was not first reduced to practice by the patentee;[7] but it is not sufficient to prove,

[1] Manton *v.* Manton, Dav. Pat. Cas. 250; Phillips on Patents, p. 415–417; Lewis *v.* Marling, 10 B. & C. 22; Cornish *v.* Keene, 3 Bing. N. C. 570.

[2] Oldham *v.* Langmead, cited 3 T. R. 441.

[3] Carpenter *v.* Smith, 9 M. & W. 300. And see Pennock *v.* Dialogue, 4 Wash. 544; 2 Peters, R. 1, S. C.; Bedford *v.* Hunt, 1 Mason, R. 302.

[4] Household Coal & Iron Co. *v.* Neilson, 9 Cl. & Fin. 788.

[5] Brown *v.* Annandale, Webst. Pat. Cas. 433; Phillips on Patents, ch. vii. sec. xvi.; Anon. 1 Chitty, R. 24, n.

[6] Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, sec. 15.

[7] Woodcock *v.* Parker, 1 Gall. 436; Tennant's case, Webst. Pat. Cas. 125, n.; Dav. Pat. Cas. 429, S. C.

that another was the first inventor, if he neither reduced the invention to practice, nor used due diligence in adapting and perfecting it.[1] The proof of use may be rebutted by the plaintiff, by showing, that it was by his license.[2]

§ 503. The defendant may also prove in defence, a *subsequent patent*, granted to the same patentee, either alone or jointly with another person, and either for the whole or a part of the same invention.[3] So, he may show, that *different and distinct inventions* are joined in the same patent; or, that the invention is *not lawful*, or, is *pernicious*.[4]

§ 504. The defendant may also show an *abandonment* of the invention by the plaintiff, and a *dedication* or *surrender* of it to public use, prior to the issuing of the patent.[5] And if such dedication was made, or the public use of the invention was acquiesced in for a long period, subsequent to the issuing of the patent, this is a good defence in equity, if the fact is explicitly relied on, and put in issue by the answer.[6] But the public use or sale of an invention, in order to deprive the inventor of his right to a patent, must be a public use or sale by others, with his knowledge and consent, and before his application for the patent. A sale or use of it with such knowledge or consent, in the interval of time between the application for a patent and the grant thereof, has no such

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[1] Pennock *v.* Dialogue, 4 Wash. 538; Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, sec. 15.

[2] Phillips on Patents, p. 422.

[3] Treadwell *v.* Bladen, 4 Wash. 709; Phillips on Patents, p. 420; Odiorne *v.* The Amesbury Nail Factory, 2 Mason, R. 28; Barrett *v.* Hall, 1 Mason, R. 447.

[4] Phillips on Patents, p. 128, 421.

[5] Phillips on Patents, ch. vii. sec. xix. p. 181–205, 422; Pennock *v.* Dialogue, 4 Wash. 538; 2 Peters, R. 1, S. C.; Treadwell *v.* Bladen, 4 Wash. 709; Whittemore *v.* Cutter, 1 Gall. 478. A disuse of the invention *after* the grant of letters-patent, is no defence at law. Gray *v.* James, 1 Pet. C. C. R. 394.

[6] Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273, 282. But it is no defence at law. Shaw *v.* Cooper, 7 Pet. 292.

effect.[1] Nor is it material, whether the public use was originally by express permission of the inventor, or by piracy; for in either case it is his acquiescence in the public use, that renders the subsequent patent void. And he is presumed to acquiesce, where he knows or might know of the public use.[2]

§ 505. A *material defect in the specification*, whether accidental or designed and fraudulent, may also be shown in defence of this action, both by Common Law, and by statute.[3] So, if the specification is designedly ambiguous and obscure; or, if it seeks to cover more than is actually new and useful, this also is a good defence.[4] Whether the want of *utility* can be given in evidence under the general issue, has been questioned; but the better opinion is, that it may, as it cannot justly be said to be a surprise on the plaintiff.[5]

§ 506. In regard to the *fact of infringement*, the general doctrine is, that the use of any substantial part of the invention, though with some modifications of form or apparatus, is a violation of the patent right. It is the substance and the principle of the machine, and not the mere form, the identity of purpose, and not of name, which are to be regarded. A specious variation in form, or an alteration in the mode of

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[1] Ryan *v.* Goodwin, 3 Sumn. 514.

[2] Shaw *v.* Cooper, 7 Pet. 292; Whittemore *v.* Cutter, 1 Gall. 482; Stat. U. S. 1836, ch. 357, § 6, 15. See also Mellus *v.* Silsbee, 4 Mason, R. 108.

[3] Rex *v.* Cutler, 1 Stark. R. 354; Phillips on Patents, p. 424; Stat. U. S. 1836; ch. 357, § 15.

[4] Galloway *v.* Bleaden, Webst. Pat. Cas. 524; Hill *v.* Thompson, 8 Taunt. 375; Lowell *v.* Lewis, 1 Mason, R. 182; Evans *v.* Eaton, 1 Pet. C. C. R. 322. Unless the excess is disclaimed. Stat. U. S. 1837, ch. 45, § 7, 9.

[5] Phillips on Patents, p. 426; Langdon *v.* De Groot, 1 Paine, R. 203; Haworth *v.* Hardcastle, 1 Bing. N. C. 182.

adaptation, however ingenious, do not render it any the less an infringement.[1] It is a question peculiarly for the Jury; who must say, whether the defendant has availed himself of the invention of the plaintiff, without having so far departed therefrom, as to give to his act the denomination of a new discovery.[2] If the patent is for several distinct improvements, or for several machines, the use of one only is a violation of the right;[3] but where the patent is for the entire combination of three things, and not of any two of them, it is no infringement to construct a machine containing only two of the combinations.[4] Evidence, that the invention of the defendant is better than that of the plaintiff is improper, except to show a substantial difference between the two inventions.[5]

§ 507. Where the patent was originally too broad in its specification, including more than the patentee is entitled to hold, the error may now be cured by a *disclaimer*, filed pursuant to the statute.[6] But the disclaimer, to be effectual,

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[1] Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273; Hill *v.* Thompson, 8 Taunt. 375; Walton *v.* Potter, 3 M. & G. 411; 4 Scott, N. R. 91; Webst. Pat. Cas. 585; Morgan *v.* Seaward, Webst. Pat. Cas. 171; Cutler's patent, Ibid. 427.

[2] Walton *v.* Potter, Webst. Pat. Cas. 586, 587.

[3] Moody *v.* Fisk, 2 Mason, R. 112; Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273; Gillett *v.* Wilby, 9 C. & P. 334; Cornish *v.* Keene, 3 Bing. N. C. 570.

[4] Prouty *v.* Draper, 1 Story, R. 568.

[5] Alden *v.* Dewey, 1 Story, R. 336.

[6] Stat. U. S. 1837, ch. 45, § 7, 9; the provisions of which are these: — "Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That, whenever any patentee shall have, through inadvertence, accident, or mistake, made his specification of claim too broad, claiming more than that of which he was the original or first inventor, some material and substantial part of the thing patented being truly and justly his own, any such patentee, his administrators, executors, and assigns, whether of the whole or of a sectional interest therein, may make disclaimer of such parts of the thing patented as the disclaimant shall not claim to hold by virtue of the patent or assignment, stating therein the extent of his interest in such patent; which disclaimer shall be in writing, attested by one or more witness, and recorded in the Patent Office, on payment by the person disclaiming, in manner as other patent duties are

must be filed in the Patent office before the suit is brought; otherwise, the plaintiff will not recover the costs of suit, even though he should prove, that the infringement was in a part of the invention not disclaimed. And where a disclaimer has been filed, whether before or after the suit is commenced, yet if the filing of it has been unreasonably neglected or delayed, this will constitute a good defence to the action.[1] If the patentee has assigned his patent in part, and a joint suit in Equity is brought by him and the assignee for a perpetual

required by law to be paid, of the sum of ten dollars. And such disclaimer shall thereafter be taken and considered as part of the original specification, to the extent of the interest which shall be possessed in the patent or right secured thereby, by the disclaimant, and by those claiming by or under him subsequent to the record thereof. But no such disclaimer shall affect any action pending at the time of its being filed, except so far as may relate to the question of unreasonable neglect or delay in filing the same.

"Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, (anything in the fifteenth section of the act to which this is additional to the contrary notwithstanding,) That whenever, by mistake, accident, or inadvertence, and without any wilful default or intent to defraud or mislead the public, any patentee shall have in his specification claimed to be the original and first inventor or discoverer of any material or substantial part of the thing patented, of which he was not the first and original inventor, and shall have no legal or just right to claim the same, in every such case, the patent shall be deemed good and valid for so much of the invention or discovery as shall be truly and *bonâ fide* his own: *Provided*, It shall be a material and substantial part of the thing patented, and be definitely distinguishable from the other parts so claimed without right as aforesaid. And every such patentee, his executors, administrators, and assigns, whether of a whole or of a sectional interest therein, shall be entitled to maintain a suit at law or in equity on such patent for any infringement of such part of the invention or discovery as shall be *bonâ fide* his own as aforesaid, notwithstanding the specification may embrace more than he shall have any legal right to claim. But, in every such case in which a judgment or verdict shall be rendered for the plaintiff, he shall not be entitled to recover costs against the defendant, unless he shall have entered at the Patent Office, prior to the commencement of the suit, a disclaimer of all that part of the thing patented, which was so claimed without right: *Provided, however*, That no person bringing any such suit shall be entitled to the benefits of the provisions contained in this section, who shall have unreasonably neglected or delayed to enter at the Patent Office a disclaimer as aforesaid."

[1] Reed *v.* Cutter, 1 Story, R. 590.

injunction, a disclaimer by the patentee alone, without the assignee's uniting in it, will not entitle them to the benefit of the statute.[1]

§ 508. In regard to the *competency of witnesses*, it has been held, that persons who have used the machine in question, as the defendant has done, are not thereby rendered incompetent witnesses for him, notwithstanding the object of the defence is to invalidate the patent, as well as to defeat the claim of damages; for in such a case the witness stands in the same predicament as the rest of the community; and the objection to competency would equally apply to every witness, since, if the patent were void in law, every person might use it, and therefore every person might be said to have an interest in making it public property.[2] Another patentee, claiming adversely to the plaintiff, and under whose license the defendant has acted, is also a competent witness for the defendant.[3]

§ 509. The subject of COPYRIGHT, which is usually treated in connexion with that of Patents, may properly be considered in this place.

§ 510. The remedy, for an infringement of copyright, is either at Law, by an action for the statute penalties, or by an action on the case for damages, or in Equity, by a bill for an injunction;[4] but in either case, the evidence, necessary on both sides, is substantially the same, the plaintiff being obliged to prove his title to the exclusive privilege claimed, and the fact of its violation, or, in Equity, at least an intended violation, by the defendant.

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[1] Wyeth *v.* Stone, 1 Story, R. 273.

[2] Evans *v.* Eaton, 7 Wheat. 356; Evans *v.* Hettich, Ibid. 453.

[3] Treadwell *v.* Bladen, 4 Wash. 704.

[4] Stat. U. S. 1831, ch. 16. The subject of literary property, both by common law and by statute, received a very full and elaborate discussion in the leading case of Wheaton *v.* Peters, 8 Peters, R. 591.

§ 511. The plaintiff, to make out his *title*, must prove, that, prior to the publication of his work, he deposited a printed copy of its title in the clerk's office of the District Court of the United States, for the District where he resided at the time, and that notice of the copyright was given on the title-page, or the page next following, or, if it be a map, or print, or musical composition, then on its face, in the form prescribed by the statute. He is also required to deliver to the District clerk a copy of the work, within three months after its publication;[1] and it seems,

[1] Stat. U. S. 1831, ch. 16, § 4, 5. These sections are as follows :—" Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That no person shall be entitled to the benefit of this act, unless he shall, before publication, deposit a printed copy of the title of such book, or books, map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, in the clerk's office of the district court of the district wherein the author or proprietor shall reside, and the clerk of such court is hereby directed and required to record the same thereof forthwith, in a book to be kept for that purpose, in the words following (giving a copy of the title under the seal of the court, to the said author or proprietor, whenever he shall require the same;) ' District of ——— to wit: Be it remembered, that on the ——— day of ——— anno domini, ——— A. B. of the said district, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, (map, chart, or otherwise as the case may be,) the title of which is in the words following, to wit: (here insert the title;) the right whereof he claims as author (or proprietor as the case may be;) in conformity with an act of Congress, entitled " An act to amend the several acts respecting copy-rights." C. D. clerk of the district.' For which record, the clerk shall be entitled to receive, from the person claiming such right as aforesaid, fifty cents; and the like sum for every copy, under seal, actually given to such person or his assigns. And the author or proprietor of any such book, map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, shall, within three months from the publication of said book, map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, deliver or cause to be delivered a copy of the same to the clerk of said district. And it shall be the duty of the clerk of each district court, at least once in every year, to transmit a certified list of all such records of copy-right, including the titles so recorded, and the date of record, and also all the several copies of books or other works deposited in his office according to this act, to the secretary of state, to be preserved in his office.

" Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That no person shall be entitled to the benefit of this act, unless he shall give information of copy-right being secured, by causing to be inserted, in the several copies of each and every edition published during the term secured on the title-page, or the page

that a compliance with this requirement also must be strictly shown.[1] Of these facts, the certificate of the District clerk, and the production of a copy of the work, will be sufficient *primâ facie* evidence.

§ 512. It is frequently necessary for the plaintiff to go farther, and prove, that he is the author of the work; for which purpose the original manuscript, which it is always expedient to preserve, is admissible, and generally is sufficient evidence; it being proved to be the handwriting of himself or of his amanuensis. If it is lost or destroyed, it must be proved by secondary evidence. If the subject was an engraving, it may be proved by producing one of the prints taken from the original plate; the production of the plate itself not being required.[2]

§ 513. Where the action is by an assignee, he must deduce his title by legal *assignment* from the original author or proprietor, in addition to the proof already mentioned. The instrument of assignment must be proved or acknowledged in the same manner as deeds of land are required to be proved or acknowledged in the State or District where the original copyright is deposited and recorded; and in order to be valid against a subsequent purchaser without notice, it must also be recorded in the clerk's office of the same District within sixty days after its execution.[3]

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immediately following, if it be a book, or, if a map, chart, musical composition, print, cut, or engraving, by causing to be impressed on the face thereof, or if a volume of maps, charts, music, or engravings, upon the title or frontispiece thereof, the following words, viz.: 'Entered according to act of Congress, in the year ——— by A. B., in the clerk's office of the district court of ———' (as the case may be.)"

[1] Such was the construction of a similar provision in the Act of 1790, ch. 42, sec. 4. Ewer *v.* Coxe, 4 Wash. R. 487; Wheaton *v.* Peters, 8 Peters, R. 591.

[2] Maugham on Literary property, p. 165; Thompson *v.* Symonds, 5 T. R. 41, 46.

[3] Stat. U. S. 1834, ch. 157, § 1.

§ 514. The plaintiff must prove the *infringement* of his right by the defendant. And it is an infringement, if the defendant has published so much of the plaintiff's work as to serve as a substitute for it; or has extracted so much as to communicate the same knowledge; whether it be in the colorable form of an abridgment, or a review, or by incorporating it into some larger work, such as an encyclopedia, or in any other mode.[1] For the question of violation of copyright may depend upon the value, rather than on the quantity of the selected materials.[2] If so much of the work be taken, in form and substance, that the value of the original work is sensibly diminished, or the labors of the author are substantially, to an injurious extent, appropriated by another, it constitutes, in law, *pro tanto*, a piracy.[3] But a fair and real abridgment, or a fair quotation, made in good faith, is no violation; and of this intent the Jury are to judge.[4] If the main design be not copied, the circumstance, that part of the composition of one author is found in another, is not of itself piracy, sufficient to support an action. Nor will it suffice, if the effect of the new publication is prejudicial in some degree to that of the plaintiff, unless it is substantially so. If it is substantially a copy, it is actionable, however innocent the intention of the defendant in publishing it; on the other hand, if it is not substantially a copy, or a colorable selection, or an abridgment, the publication is lawful, however corrupt the motive. It is the middling class of cases, which involve the greatest difficulty, namely, where there is not only a considerable portion of the plaintiff's work taken, but also much that is not; and here the question, upon the whole, is,

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[1] 2 Kent, Comm. 382, 383; Godson on Patents, p. 475, 476, 2d ed.; Maugham on Literary Property, Part 3, ch. 1, p. 126 – 136; Gray *v.* Russell, 1 Story, R. 11.

[2] Gray *v.* Russell, 1 Story, R. 11.

[3] 2 Kent, Comm. 383, note (b), 4th ed.; Roworth *v.* Wilkes, 1 Campb. 94.

[4] Ibid.; Godson on Patents, p. 477, 478; Maugham on Literary Property, p. 98, 99, 129 – 132.

whether it is a legitimate use of the plaintiff's publication, in the fair exercise of a mental operation, entitling it to the character of an original work.[1]

§ 515. In the *defence* of this action, on other grounds than that of defect in the plaintiff's case, it may be shown, that the plaintiff's publication was itself pirated, or that it was obscene, or immoral, or libellous, either on government, or on individuals; or that it was in other respects of a nature mischievously to affect the public morals or interests.[2] But in Equity, it seems, that an injunction may be granted, notwithstanding the bad character of the subject, if the author, repenting of his work, seeks by this mode to suppress it.[3] If the defence is made under the plaintiff's *license* for the publication, the defendant, in an action at law, must prove it by a writing, signed by the plaintiff, in the presence of two or more credible witnesses.[4]

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[1] Wilkins *v.* Aikin, 17 Ves. 422, 426. It is sometimes said, that in these cases the question is, whether it was done *animo furandi*, or not. But the accuracy of this test is not very readily perceived.

[2] Godson on Patents, p. 478, 479; Maugham on Literary Property, p. 88 – 99.

[3] Southey *v.* Sherwood, 2 Meriv. 438.

[4] Stat. U. S. 1831, ch. 16, § 6, 7, 9.

PAYMENT.

§ 516. The defence of Payment may be made under the general issue, in assumpsit, but in an action of debt on a specialty or a record, it must be specially pleaded. In either case, the burden of proof is on the defendant, who must prove the payment of money, or something accepted in its stead, made to the plaintiff, or to some person authorized in his behalf to receive it. The word "payment" is not a technical term; it has been imported into law proceedings from the exchange, and not from law treatises. When used in pleading, in respect to cash, it means immediate satisfaction; but when applied to the delivery of a bill or note, or other collateral thing, it does not necessarily mean payment in immediate satisfaction and discharge of the debt, but may be taken in its popular sense, as delivery only, to be a discharge when converted into money.[1]

§ 517. If a *receipt* was given for the money, it is proper and expedient to produce it; but it is not necessary; parol evidence of the payment being admissible, notwithstanding the written receipt, and without accounting for its absence.[2] And if produced, it is not conclusive against the plaintiff, but may be disproved and contradicted by parol evidence.[3]

§ 518. Respecting the *person to whom* the payment was made, if it was made to an *agent* of the plaintiff, his authority may be shown in any of the modes already stated under that

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[1] Manning *v.* The Duke of Argyle, 6 M. & G. 40.

[2] Southwick *v.* Hayden, 7 Cowen, R. 334.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 305; Skaife *v.* Jackson, 5 D. & R. 290; 3 B. & C. 421.

title.[1] If it was made to an *attorney at law*, his employment by the creditor must be proved; in which case, the payment is ordinarily good, upon the custom of the country, until his authority has been revoked.[2] Payment of a judgment to the attorney of record who obtained it, though made more than a year after the judgment was recovered, has been held good;[3] but if the payment was made to an agent employed by the attorney, or to the attorney's clerk, not authorized to receive it, it is otherwise.[4] Even if land has been set off to the creditor by extent, in satisfaction of an execution, pursuant to the statutes in such cases, payment of the money to the creditor's attorney of record, within the time allowed by law to redeem the land, is a good payment.[5] But proof of payment, made to the attorney after his authority has been revoked, will not discharge the liability of the party paying.[6] It is also a good payment, if made to a person *sitting in the counting-room* of the creditor, with account books near him, and apparently entrusted with the conduct of the business;[7] but not if made to an *apprentice*, not in the usual course of business, but on a *collateral transaction*.[8] Payment is also good, if made to one of several partners, trustees, or executors.[9] And if the plaintiff has drawn an *order* on the defendant, payable to a third person, upon which the defendant has made himself absolutely liable to the holder, this, as against the plaintiff, is a good payment of his claim to that

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[1] Ante, tit. AGENCY, per tot.

[2] Hudson *v.* Johnson, 1 Wash. R. 10.

[3] Langdon *v.* Potter, 13 Mass. 319; Jackson *v.* Bartlett, 8 Johns. 361; Branch *v.* Burnley, 1 Call, R. 147; Lewis *v.* Gamage, 1 Pick. 347; Kellogg *v.* Gilbert, 10 Johns. 220; Powell *v.* Little, 1 W. Bl. 8.

[4] Yates *v.* Freckleton, 2 Doug. 623; Perry *v.* Turner, 2 Tyrw. 128; 1 Dowl. P. C. 300; 2 C. & J. 89, S. C.

[5] Gray *v.* Wass, 1 Greenl. 257.

[6] Parker *v.* Downing, 13 Mass. 465; Wurt *v.* Lee, 3 Yeates, 7.

[7] Barrett *v.* Deere, 1 M. & Malk. 200.

[8] Saunderson *v.* Bell, 2 C. & Mees. 304; 4 Tyrw. 224, S. C.

[9] Porter *v.* Taylor, 6 M. & S. 156; Stone *v.* Marsh, Ry. & M. 364; Can *v.* Reed, 3 Atk. 695.

amount, even though the plaintiff has subsequently countermanded it.[1] The possession of the order, by the debtor on whom it was drawn, is *primâ facie* evidence that he has paid it.

§ 519. As to the *mode of payment*, it may be by any lawful method, agreed upon between the parties, and fully executed. The *meaning and intention* of the parties, where it can be distinctly known, is to have effect, unless that intention contravene some well established principle of law. This intention is to be ascertained, in ordinary cases, by the Jury; but it is sometimes legally presumed by the Court.[2] Thus, the giving of an *higher security*, is conclusively taken as payment of a simple contract debt. Where the payment is made by giving the *party's own security*, it is either negotiable, or not. Ordinarily, the giving of a new security of the same kind with the former, and for the amount due thereon, as, a new note for an old one, familiarly known in the Roman and modern continental law as a Novation, is equivalent to payment of the latter;[3] but if it is for a less amount, it is not.[4] If a promissory note is taken as a satisfaction, by express agreement, it will be so held, even though the debt was due of record.[5]

§ 520. Where the debtor's own *negotiable note* or *bill* is given for a pre-existing debt, it is *primâ facie* evidence of payment, but is still open to inquiry by the Jury. The

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[1] Hodgson *v.* Anderson, 3 B. & C. 842; Tatlock *v.* Harris, 3 T. R. 180.

[2] Millikin *v.* Brown, 1 Rawle, R. 397, 398; Watkins *v.* Hill, 8 Pick. 522, 523; Thatcher *v.* Dinsmore, 5 Mass. 299; Johnson *v.* Weed, 9 Johns. 310.

[3] Story on Bills, § 441; Poth. Obl. by Evans, n. 546 – 564; Cornwall *v.* Gould, 4 Pick. 444; Huse *v.* Alexander, 2 Met. 157.

[4] Canfield *v.* Ives, 18 Pick. 253; Heathcote *v.* Crookshanks, 2 T. R. 24; Fitch *v.* Sutton, 5 East, 230; Smith *v.* Bartholomew, 1 Met. 276.

[5] The New York State Bank *v.* Fletcher, 5 Wend. 85; Clark *v.* Pinney, 6 Cowen, R. 297.

reason is, that, otherwise, the debtor might be obliged to pay the debt twice.[1] If such note or bill is given for part of the debt, it is deemed payment of such part,[2] even though the debt is collaterally secured by a mortgage.[3] If the creditor receives the debtor's *check* for the amount, it is payment, if expressly accepted as such;[4] unless it was drawn colorably, or fraudulently, and knowingly without effects.[5] But in the absence of any evidence of an agreement to receive a check or draft in payment, it is regarded only as the means whereby the creditor may obtain payment;[6] or, as payment provisionally, until it has been presented and refused; if it is dishonored, it is no payment of the debt for which it was drawn.[7] And if a bill of exchange, given in payment of a debt, is admissible in evidence by being written on a *wrong stamp*, it is not deemed as payment, even if the parties would have paid it on due presentment.[8]

§ 521. But where the debtor's own security, *not negotiable*,

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[1] Johnson *v.* Johnson, 11 Mass. 361; Hebden *v.* Hartsink, 4 Esp. 46; Thatcher *v.* Dinsmore, 5 Mass. 299; Holmes *v.* D'Camp, 1 Johns. 34; Pintard *v.* Tackington, 10 Johns. 104; Maneely *v.* M'Gee, 6 Mass. 143; Butts *v.* Dean, 2 Met. 76; Reed *v.* Upton, 10 Pick. 522; Jones *v.* Kennedy, 11 Pick. 125; Watkins *v.* Hill, 8 Pick. 522, 523; Cumming *v.* Hackley, 8 Johns. 202. By the English decisions, it seems that the receipt of bills is not deemed payment, unless expressly so agreed, or the bills have been negotiated, and are outstanding against the defendant. Burden *v.* Halton, 4 Bing. 454; Rolt *v.* Watson, Ibid. 273. And see Raymond *v.* Merchant, 3 Cowen, R. 147.

[2] Ilsley *v.* Jewett, 2 Met. 168.

[3] Fowler *v.* Bush, 21 Pick. 230.

[4] Barnard *v.* Graves, 16 Pick. 41.

[5] Dennie *v.* Hart, 2 Pick. 204; Franklin *v.* Vanderpool, 1 Hall, N. Y. Rep. 78; Stedman *v.* Gooch, 1 Esp. 5; Puckford *v.* Maxwell, 6 T. R. 52.

[6] Cromwell *v.* Lovett, 1 Hall, N. Y. Rep. 56; The People *v.* Howell, 4 Johns. 296; Olcott *v.* Rathbone, 5 Wend. 490.

[7] Pearce *v.* Davis, 1 M. & Rob. 365; Everett *v.* Collins, 2 Campb. 515; Puckford *v.* Maxwell, 6 T. R. 52.

[8] Wilson *v.* Vysar, 4 Taunt. 288; Brown *v.* Watts, 1 Taunt. 253; Wilson *v.* Kennedy, 1 Esp. 245.

and of no higher nature, is taken for a simple contract debt, it is not ordinarily taken as payment, unless expressly so agreed; except where it is given as a renewal, as before stated. Whether it was intended as payment or not, is a question for the Jury.[1]

§ 522. Payment may be proved by evidence of the delivery and acceptance of *bank notes;* which will be deemed as payment at their par value.[2] But if, at the time of delivery and acceptance of the notes, the bank had actually stopped payment, or the notes were counterfeit, the loss falls on the debtor, however innocent or ignorant of the facts he may have been.[3]

§ 523. Proof of the acceptance of the promissory *note or bill of a third person*, will also support the defence of payment. But here it must appear to have been the voluntary act and choice of the creditor, and not a measure forced upon him, by necessity, where nothing else could be obtained.[4] Thus, where the creditor received the note of a stranger, who owed his debtor, the note being made payable to the

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[1] Howland *v.* Coffin, 9 Pick. 42; Cumming *v.* Hackley, 8 Johns. 202; Tobey *v.* Barber, 5 Johns. 68. So, of the debtor's order on a third person. Hoar *v.* Clute, 15 Johns. 224.

[2] Phillips *v* Blake, 1 Met. 246; Snow *v.* Perry, 9 Pick. 539, 542.

[3] Lightbody *v.* The Ontario Bank, 11 Wend. 9; 13 Wend. 101; Markle *v.* Hatfield, 2 Johns. 455; Young *v.* Adams, 6 Mass. 182; Jones *v.* Ryde, 5 Taunt. 488; Gloucester Bank *v.* Salem Bank, 17 Mass. 42, 43. It has been said, in Massachusetts, that the solvency of the bank, where both parties were equally innocent, was at the risk of the creditor. See 6 Mass. 185. But this was reluctantly admitted, on the ground of supposed usage alone, and was not the point directly in judgment. The same has been held in Alabama. Lowrey *v.* Murrell, 2 Porter, R. 280.

[4] The creditor's omission to have the notes indorsed by the party from whom he receives them, is *primâ facie* evidence of an agreement to take them at his own risk. Whitbeck *v.* Van Ness, 11 Johns. 409; Breed *v.* Cook, 15 Johns. 241. Whether the security was accepted in satisfaction of the original claim, is a matter of fact for the Jury. Hart *v.* Boller, 15 S. & R. 162; Johnson *v.* Weed, 9 Johns. 310.

agent of the creditor, it was held a good payment, though the promissor afterwards failed.[1] So, where goods were bargained for, in exchange for a promissory note held by the purchaser as indorsee, and were sold accordingly, but the note proved to be forged, of which, however, the purchaser was ignorant, it was held a good payment.[2] So, where one, entitled to receive cash, receives instead thereof notes or bills against a third person, it is payment, though the securities turn out to be of no value.[3] But if the sale was intended for cash, the payment by the notes or bills being no part of the original stipulation,[4] or the vendor has been induced to take them by the fraudulent misrepresentation of the vendee as to the solvency of the parties,[5] or they are forged,[6] or they are forced upon the vendor by the necessity of the case, nothing better being attainable,[7] it is no payment. If, however, a creditor, who has received a draft or note upon a third person, delays for an unreasonable time to present it for acceptance and payment, whereby a loss accrues, the loss is his own.[8] So, if he alters the bill, and thus vitiates it,

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[1] Wiseman *v.* Lyman, 7 Mass. 286.

[2] Ellis *v.* Wild, 6 Mass. 321. And see Alexander *v.* Owen, 1 T. R. 225. So, though it be genuine. Harris *v.* Johnston, 3 Cranch, 311.

[3] Fydell *v.* Clark, 1 Esp. 447. See also Rew *v.* Barber, 3 Cowen, R. 272; Frisbie *v.* Larned, 21 Wend. 450; Arnold *v.* Camp, 12 Johns. 409.

[4] Ellis *v.* Wild, 6 Mass. 321. And see Owenson *v.* Morse, 7 T. R. 64. In this case, the vendor received the notes of bankers who were in fact insolvent, and never afterwards opened their house. See also Salem Bank *v.* Gloucester Bank, 17 Mass. 1.

[5] Pierce *v.* Drake, 15 Johns. 475; Wilson *v.* Force, 6 Johns. 110; Brown *v.* Jackson, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 24.

[6] Markle *v.* Hatfield, 2 Johns. 455; Bank of the United States *v.* Bank of Georgia, 10 Wheat. 333; Hargrave *v.* Dusenbury, 2 Hawks, R. 326.

[7] This was Ld. Tenterden's view of the facts in Robinson *v.* Read, 9 B. & C. 449.

[8] Chamberlyn *v.* Delarive, 3 Wils. 353; Bishop *v.* Chitty, 2 Stra. 1195; Watts *v.* Willing, 2 Dall. 100; Popley *v.* Ashley, 6 Mod. 147; Raymond *v.* Baar, 13 S. & R. 318; Roberts *v.* Gallaher, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 191; Copper *v.* Power, Anthon, R. 49.

he thereby causes it to operate as a satisfaction of the debt.[1] So, if he accepts from the drawee other bills in payment of the draft, and they turn out to be worthless.[2]

§ 524. The *foreclosure of a mortgage*, given to secure the debt, may also be shown as a payment, made at the time of complete foreclosure; but if the property mortgaged is not at that time equal in value to the amount due, it is only payment *pro tanto*.[3] A *legacy*, also, will sometimes be deemed a payment and satisfaction of a debt due from the testator. But to be so taken, the debt must have been in existence and liquidated, at the date of the will.[4] And parol evidence is admissible to prove extraneous circumstances, from which the intent of the testator may be inferred, that the legacy should go in satisfaction of the debt.[5]

§ 525. When payment is made by a *remittance* by post to the creditor, it must be shown, on the part of the debtor, that the letter was properly sealed and directed, and that it was delivered into the post-office, and not to a private carrier or porter. He must also prove, either the express direction of the creditor to remit in that mode, or a usage or course of dealing, from which the authority of the creditor may be inferred. Where these circumstances concur, and a loss happens, it is the loss of the creditor.[6]

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[1] Alderson *v.* Langdale, 3 B. & Ad. 660.

[2] Bolton *v.* Reichard, 1 Esp. 106.

[3] Amory *v.* Fairbanks, 3 Mass. 562; Hatch *v.* White, 2 Gall. 152; Omaly *v.* Swan, 3 Mason, R. 474; West *v.* Chamberlin, 8 Pick. 336; Briggs *v.* Richmond, 10 Pick. 396; Case *v.* Boughton, 11 Wend. 106; Spencer *v.* Hartford, 4 Wend. 381.

[4] Le Sage *v.* Coussmaker, 1 Esp. 187. And see Strong *v.* Williams, 12 Mass. 391; Williams *v.* Crary, 5 Cowen, R. 368.

[5] Cuthbert *v.* Peacock, 2 Vern. 593; Fane *v.* Fane, 1 Vern. 31, n. (2), by Mr. Raithby; Ante, Vol. 1, § 287, 288, 296. And see Clark *v.* Bogardus, 12 Wend. 67; Mulheran *v.* Gillespie, Ibid. 349; Williams *v.* Crary, 8 Cowen, R. 246.

[6] Warwicke *v.* Noakes, 1 Peake, R. 67; Hawkins *v.* Rutt, Ibid. 186;

§ 526. Payment may also be proved by evidence of the delivery and acceptance of any *specific article* or *collateral thing* in satisfaction of the debt; as has already been shown in the preceding pages.[1] Such payment is a good discharge even of a judgment.[2] Payment even of part of the sum, may be a satisfaction of the whole debt, if so agreed, provided it be in a manner collateral to the original obligation; as, if it be paid before the day, or in a manner different from the first agreement, or be made by a stranger, out of his own moneys, or under a fair composition with all the creditors of the party.[3]

§ 527. Payment may also be *presumed* or inferred by the Jury, from sufficient circumstances. Thus, where, in the ordinary course of dealing, a security, when paid, is given up to the party who pays it; the possession of the security by the debtor, after the day of payment, is *primâ facie* evidence that he has paid it.[4] But the mere production of a bill of exchange from the custody of the acceptor affords no presumption that he has paid it, without proof that it was once in circulation after he accepted it.[5] Nor is payment presumed from a receipt, indorsed on the bill, without evidence that it is the handwriting of a person entitled to demand payment.[6] Nor will it be presumed from the circumstance of the defendant's having drawn a check on a

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Walter *v.* Haynes, Ry. & M. 149. It is held by some, that the sending of bank notes uncut will not discharge the debtor; because, among prudent people, it is usual to cut such securities in halves, and send them at different times. Peake on Evid. by Norris, p. 412.

[1] Ante, tit. ACCORD AND SATISFACTION.

[2] Brown *v.* Feeter, 7 Wend. 301.

[3] Co. Lit. 212, b.; Steinman *v.* Magnus, 11 East, 390; Lewis *v.* Jones, 4 B. & C. 506; Ellis on Debtor and Creditor, p. 412, 413.

[4] Brembridge *v.* Osborne, 1 Stark. R. 374; Gibbon *v.* Featherstonhaugh, Ibid. 225; Weidner *v.* Schweigart, 9 S. & R. 385. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 38.

[5] Pfiel *v.* Vanbatenberg, 2 Campb. 439.

[6] Ibid.

bank or on his banker, payable to the plaintiff *or bearer*, without proof that the money had been paid thereon to the plaintiff; and of this, the plaintiff's name on the back of the check will be sufficient evidence.[1]

§ 528. Payment is also *presumed from lapse of time.* The lapse of twenty years, without explanatory circumstances, affords a presumption of law, that the debt is paid, even though it be due by specialty, which the Court will apply, without the aid of a Jury.[2] But it may be inferred by the Jury from circumstances, coupled with the lapse of a shorter period.[3] It may also be inferred from the *usual course of trade* in general, or from the habit and course of dealing between the parties. Thus, where the defendant was regular in his dealings, and employed a large number of workmen, whom he was in the habit of paying every Saturday night, and the plaintiff had been one of his workmen, and had been seen among them, waiting to receive his wages, but had ceased to work for the defendant for upwards of two years; this was held admissible evidence to found a presumption, that he had been paid with the others.[4] So, where the course of dealing between the parties, engaged in daily sales of milk to customers, was to make a daily settlement and payment of balances, without writing, this was held a sufficient ground to presume payment, until the plaintiff should prove the contrary.[5] So also, a receipt for the last year's or

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[1] Egg *v.* Barnett, 3 Esp. 196.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 39; Colsell *v.* Budd, 1 Campb. 27; Cope *v.* Humphreys, 14 S. & R. 15; Ellis, Law of Debtor and Creditor, p. 414.

[3] Best on Presumptions, § 137; Lesley *v.* Nones, 7 S. & R. 410. If the debt itself is disputed by the defendant, who admits that it has not been paid, lapse of time, though it cannot afford any presumption of payment, may afford a presumption against the original existence of the debt. Christophers *v.* Sparke, 2 J. & W. 228.

[4] Lucas *v.* Novosilieski, 1 Esp. 296.

[5] Evans *v.* Birch, 3 Campb. 10.

quarter's rent, is *primâ facie* evidence, that all rents, previously due, have been paid.[1]

§ 529. In regard to the ascription or *appropriation of payments*, the general rule of law is, that a debtor, owing several debts to the same creditor, has a right to apply his payment, at the time of making it, to which debt he pleases. But this rule applies only to voluntary payments, and not to those made under compulsory process of law.[2] If he makes a general payment, without appropriating it, the creditor may apply it as he pleases. And where neither party appropriates it, the law will apply it, according to its own view of the intrinsic justice and equity of the case.[3]

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[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 38.

[2] Blackstone Bank *v.* Hill, 10 Pick. 129.

[3] Per Story, J. in Cremer *v.* Higginson, 1 Mason, R. 338; United States *v.* Wardwell, 5 Mason, R. 85; Seymour *v.* Van Slyck, 8 Wend. 403; Chitty on Contracts, p. 382, and cases there cited. Clayton's case, in Devaynes *v.* Noble, 1 Meriv. 605–607; Ellis on Debtor and Creditor, p. 406–412. The doctrine of the Roman Law, on this subject, and its recognition in adjudged cases in the Common Law. are stated by Mr. Cowen, in a note to the case of Pattison *v.* Hull, 9 Cowen, R. 747, as follows: — "A moment's recurrence to the civil law will convince the learned reader how much we have borrowed from it almost without credit. The whole text of that law, in relation to the subject under consideration, is contained *passim* in the Digest (Lib. 46, tit. 3, *De solutionibus et liberationibus*); as is rendered into English by Strahan from the French of Domat's Civ. L. in its natural order, as follows:

"'1. If a debtor who owes to a creditor different debts, hath a mind to pay one of them, he is at liberty to acquit whichsoever of them he pleases; and the creditor cannot refuse to receive payment of it; for there is not any one of them which the debtor may not acquit, although he pay nothing of all the other debts, provided he acquit entirely the debt which he offers to pay.'

"This is precisely the common law. Owing two debts to the same person, you may pay which you please, but you must tender the whole debt. The creditor is not bound to take part of it, though he may do so if he choose. (22 Ed. 4, 25; Br. Condition, pl. 181; Lofft's Gilb. 330; Pinnel's case, 5 Co. 117; Colt *v.* Netterville, 2 P. Wms. 304; Anon. Cro. Eliz. 68.) Hawkshaw *v.* Rawlings, (1 Stra. 23,) that the debtor shall

§ 530. An *appropriation by the debtor* may be proved, either by his express declaration, or by any circumstances from which his intention can be inferred.[1] But it seems, that this intention must be signified to the creditor, at the time ;

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not apply the money, is not law. There are fifteen or twenty cases the other way.

"'2. If, in the same case of a debtor who owes several debts to one and the same creditor, the said debtor makes a payment to him, without declaring at the same time, which of the debts he has a mind to discharge, whether it be that he gives him a sum of money indefinitely in part payment of what he owes him, or that there be a compensation [i. e. a set-off] of debts agreed on between the debtor and creditor, or in some other manner, the debtor will have always the same liberty of applying the payment to whichsoever of the debts he has a mind to acquit. But if the creditor were to apply the payment, he could apply it only to that debt which he himself would discharge in the first place, in case he were the debtor, for equity requires that he should act in the affair of his debtor, as he would do in his own. And if, for example, in the case of two debts, one of them were controverted, and the other clear, the creditor could not apply the payment to the debt which is contested by the debtor.'

" The right of the debtor to apply the payment, whether total or partial, if he do so at the time, is recognized by all the cases. As to the above doctrine restraining the creditor to an application most favorable to the rights of the debtor, one cannot read the case of Goddard *v.* Cox, (2 Str. 1194,) without being struck with the similarity both in principle and illustration. The defendant owed the plaintiff three debts, one he contracted himself, a second he owed absolutely in right of his wife, and the third was due from his wife as executrix. The defendant made several indefinite payments, after which his creditor sued him. Chief Justice Lee held the whole of the above civil law doctrine : 1. It was agreed the defendant had the first right to apply the payments ; 2. The chief justice held, there being no direction by him, that thereby the right devolved to the plaintiff. And the defendant being by the marriage equally a debtor for what his wife received *dum sola*, as for what was after, the plaintiff might apply the money received to discharge the wife's own debt. 'But as to the demand against her as executrix, the validity of which depended on the question of assets, and manner of administering them, he was of opinion the plaintiff could not

[1] Waters *v.* Tompkins, 2 C. M. & R. 723 ; 1 Tyrw. & Grang. 137, S. C. ; Peters *v.* Anderson, 5 Taunt. 596 ; Newmarch *v.* Clay, 14 East, 239 ; Stone *v.* Seymour, 15 Wend. 19. The same rule applies to appropriations by creditors. Seymour *v.* Van Slyck, 8 Wend. 403.

for an entry made in his own books has been held insufficient to determine the application of the payment.[1] Thus, where the debtor owed his creditor a private debt, and also was indebted to him as the agent of several annuitants, for

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apply any of the money paid by the defendant to the discharge of that demand.'

"'3. In all cases where a debtor, owing several debts to one and the same creditor, is found to have made several payments, of which the application has not been made by the mutual consent of the parties, and where it is necessary that it be regulated either by a court of justice, or by arbitrators, the payments ought to be applied to the debts which lie heaviest on the debtor, and which it concerns him most to discharge. (12 Mod. 559; 2 Brownl. 107, 108; 1 Vern. 24; 2 Freem. 261; 1 Ld. Raym. 286; 1 Comb. 463; Peak. N. P. Cas. 64.) Thus a payment is applied rather to a debt of which the non-payment would expose the debtor to some penalty, and to costs and damages, (12 Mod. 559; 2 Brownl. 107, 108; 1 Vern. 24; 2 Freem. 261; 1 Ld. Raym. 286; 1 Comb. 463; Peake, N. P. Cas. 64; 4 Har. & John. 754; 2 Ibid. 402; 8 Mod. 236;) or in the payment of which his honor might be concerned, than to a debt of which the non-payment would not be attended with such consequences. Thus a payment is applied to the discharge of a debt for which a surety is bound, rather than to acquit what the debtor is singly bound for without giving any security; (Marryatts *v.* White, 2 Stark. Rep. 101; Plomer *v.* Long, 1 Ibid. 153, contra;) or to the discharge of what he owes in his own name, rather than what he stands engaged for as surety for another. Thus a payment is applied to a debt for which the debtor has given pawns and mortgages, rather than to a debt due by a simple bond or promise; (1 Vern. 24; 1 Har. & John. 754; 2 Ibid. 402;) rather to a debt of which the term is already come, than the one that is not yet due; (Hammersly *v.* Knowlys, 2 Esp. R. 666; Niagara Bank *v.* Rosevelt, per Woodworth, J. 9 Cowen, R. 412; Baker *v.* Stackpoole, per Savage, Ch. J. 9 Cowen, R. 436;) or to an old debt before a new one; (1 Meriv. 608;) and rather to a debt that is clear and liquid, than to one that is in dispute; (Goddard *v.* Cox, 2 Str. 1194;) or to a pure and simple debt before one that is conditional; (Ibid. and 9 Cowen, R. 412.)'

"I have here interpolated the common law cases in the text of the civil law. On examining them, it will be found that almost every word of the last quotation has been expressly sanctioned by the English courts.

"'4. When a payment made to a creditor to whom several debts are due, exceeds the debt to which it ought to be applied, the overplus ought

[1] Manning *v.* Westerne, 2 Vern. 606.

which latter debts his surety was also liable; and both the debtor and his surety being called upon in behalf of the annuitants, the debtor made a general payment, without any specific appropriation at the time; it was held, that the cir-

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to be applied to the discharge of the debt which follows, according to the order explained in the preceding article, unless the debtor makes another choice.

"This follows, of course, from principles before stated.

"'5. If a debtor makes a payment to discharge debts which of their nature bear interest, such as treat of a marriage portion, or what is due by virtue of a contract of sale, or that the same be due by a sentence of a court of justice, and the payment be not sufficient to acquit both the principal and the interest due thereon, the payment will be applied in the first place to the discharge of the interest, and the overplus to the discharge of a part of the principal sum.

"'6. If, in the cases of the foregoing article, the creditor had given an acquittance in general for principal and interest, the payment would not be applied in an equal proportion to the discharge of a part of the principal and of a part of the interest; but in the first place all the interest due would be cleared off, and the remainder would be applied to the discharge of the principal.'

"The two last paragraphs contain a doctrine perfectly naturalized by all our cases, from Chase *v.* Box, (2 Freem. 261,) to State of Connecticut *v.* Jackson, (1 John. Ch. Rep. 17,) and vid. Stoughton *v.* Lynch, (2 Ibid. 209.) Vid. also Hening's ed. of Maxims in Law and Equity, App. 1 to Francis's Maxims, pp. 106, 108, 113, and the cases there cited. Also Williams *v.* Houghtaling, (3 Cowen, 86, 87, 88, 89, note (a), with the cases there cited.

"'7. When a debtor, obliging himself to a creditor for several causes at one and the same time, gives him pawns or mortgages, which he engages for the security of all the debts, the money which is raised by the sale of the pawns and mortgages, will be applied in an equal proportion to the discharge of every one of the debts. (Perry *v.* Roberts, 2 Ch. Cas. 84, somewhat similar in principle.) But if the debts were contracted at divers times upon the security of the same pawns and mortgages, so as that the debtor had mortgaged for the last debts what should remain of the pledge, after payment of the first, the moneys arising from the pledges would, in this case, be applied in the first place to the discharge of the debt of the oldest standing. And both in the one and the other case, if any interest be due on account of the debt which is to be discharged by the payment, the same will be paid before any part thereof be applied to the discharge of the principal.'

cumstances showed his intention to apply it to the annuities, and that the creditor was therefore not at liberty to ascribe it to his private debt.[1] So, if there be two debts, and the debtor pays, without appropriation, a sum precisely equal to what remains due on one of them, but greater than the amount of the other, this will be regarded as having been intended in discharge of the former debt.[2] So, if there be two debts, the validity of one of which is disputed, while the other is acknowledged, a general payment will be presumed to have been made on account of the latter.[3] But this right of the debtor to appropriate his payment is not without some limitation. Thus, for example, he cannot apply it to the principal only, where the debt carries interest; for, by law, every payment towards such debts shall be first applied to keep down the interest.[4]

§ 531. The right of *appropriation by the creditor*, where the debtor makes none, is subject to some *exceptions*. Thus, if one debt was due by the debtor as executor, and another was due in his private capacity, the creditor shall not ascribe a general payment to the former debt, for its validity will depend on the question of assets.[5] So, if one of two debts

"This paragraph contains the familiar doctrine of priority of pledges; and follows out the corollary of applying partial payment to discharge interest in the first place. The proposition, that a payment on pawns, &c. for simultaneous debts shall be distributed between the two debts, has never been exactly adjudged with us, though the case interpolated is about the same in principle. And see what Holt, Ch. J. says in Styart *v.* Rowland, (2 Show. Rep. 216.)" See 9 Cowen, R. 773 – 777. See also Smith *v.* Screven, 1 McCord, 368; Mayor, &c. of Alexandria *v.* Patten, 4 Cranch, 316; Mann *v.* Marsh, 2 Caines, R. 99.

[1] Shaw *v.* Picton, 4 B. & C. 715.

[2] Robert *v.* Garnie, 3 Caines, R. 14; Marryatts *v.* White, 2 Stark. R. 101.

[3] Tayloe *v.* Sandiford, 7 Wheat. 20, 21.

[4] Gwinn *v.* Whitaker, 1 H. & J. 754; Frazier *v.* Hyland, Ib. 98; Tracy *v.* Wikoff, 1 Dall. 124; Norwood *v.* Manning, 2 Nott & McCord, 395; Dean *v.* Williams, 17 Mass. 417; Fay *v.* Bradley, 1 Pick. 194.

[5] Goddard *v.* Cox, 2 Stra. 1194.

was contracted while the debtor was a trader within the bankrupt laws, and the other afterwards, the creditor will not be permitted to apply a general payment to the latter, so as to expose the debtor to a commission of bankruptcy.[1] So, if one of the creditor's claims is absolute, and the other is contingent, as, if he is an indorser or surety for the debtor, who makes a general payment; the creditor will be bound to appropriate it to the absolute debt alone.[2] And if one of two claims is legal, and the other equitable, the creditor is bound to apply the payment to the former.[3] And if a partner in trade, being indebted both as a member of the firm, and also on his own private account, pays the money of the firm, the creditor is bound to apply it to the partnership debt.[4]

§ 532. At *what time* the creditor must exercise this right of appropriation, whether forthwith, upon the receipt of a general payment, or whether at any subsequent time, at his pleasure, is not clearly settled by the English decisions; but the weight of authority seems in favor of his right to make the election at any time when he pleases.[5] And this unlimited right has been recognized in the United States; subject only to this restriction, that he cannot appropriate a general payment to a debt created after the payment was made.[6]

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[1] Meggott *v.* Mills, 1 Ld. Raym. 287; Dawe *v.* Holdsworth, 1 Peake. R. 64.

[2] Niagara Bank *v.* Rosevelt, 9 Cowen, R. 409, 412.

[3] Birch *v.* Tebbutt, 2 Stark. R. 74; Goddard *v.* Hodges, 1 C. & Mees. 33; 3 Tyrw. 259, S. C. But where the equitable debt was prior to the other, the creditor has in one case been permitted to apply the payment to the former. Bosanquet *v.* Wray, 6 Taunt. 597.

[4] Thompson *v.* Brown, 1 M. & Malk. 40.

[5] Clayton's case, in Devaynes *v.* Noble, 1 Meriv. 605, 607; Ellis on Debtor and Creditor, p. 406–408; Mills *v.* Fowkes, 5 Bing. N. C. 455, per Coltman, J.

[6] Mayor &c. of Alexandria *v.* Patten, 4 Cranch, 317; Baker *v.* Stackpoole, 9 Cowen, R. 420, 436. And see Marsh *v.* Houlditch, cited in Chitty on Bills, p. 437, note (c), 8th ed.

§ 533. Where neither party has applied the payment, but it is left to be *appropriated by law*, the general principle, adopted by the American Courts, is to apply it as we have already stated, according to the intrinsic justice and equity of the case. But this principle of application is administered by certain rules, found by experience usually to lead to equitable results. It has sometimes been held, that the appropriation ought to be made according to the interest of the debtor, such being his presumed intention. This is the rule of the Roman Law, and probably is the law of modern continental Europe;[1] and it has been recognized in several of the United States.[2] But, on the other hand, the correctness of this rule, as one of universal application, has been expressly denied by the highest authority. For as, when a debtor fails to avail himself of the power which he possesses, in consequence of which that power devolves on the creditor, it does not appear unreasonable to suppose, that he is content with the manner in which the creditor will exercise it; so, if neither party avails himself of his power, in consequence of which it devolves on the Court, it would seem equally reasonable to suppose, that both were content with the manner in which the Court will exercise it; and that the only rule, which it can be presumed that the Court will adopt, is the rule of justice and equity between the parties.[3] Therefore, where a general payment is made without application by either party, and there are divers claims, some of which are but imperfectly and partially secured, the Court will apply it to those debts, for which the security is most precarious.[4]

[1] Poth. Obl. Part III. c. 1, art. vii. § 530; 1 White's New Recopil. B. 2, tit. 11, p. 164, 165; Van Der Linden's Laws of Holland, B. 1, ch. 18, sec. 1, Henry's ed., p. 267; Grotius, Introd. to Dutch Jurisp. B. 3, ch. 39, sec. 15, p. 458, Herbert's Tr.; Clayton's case, in Devaynes *v.* Noble, 1 Meriv. 605, 606; Baker *v.* Stackpoole, 9 Cowen, R. 435; Civil Code of France, Art. 1253 - 1256; Gass *v.* Stinson, 3 Sumn. R. 99, 110.

[2] Pattison *v.* Hull, 9 Cowen, R. 747, per Cowen, J.; Civil Code of Louisiana, Art. 2159 - 2161.

[3] Field *v.* Holland, 6 Cranch, 8, 27, 28. And see Chitty *v.* Naish, 2 Dowl. P. C. 511; Brazier *v.* Bryant, Ibid. 477.

[4] Ibid.

So, where there are items of debt and credit in a running account, in the absence of any specific appropriation, the credits will ordinarily be applied to the discharge of the items of debt antecedently due, in the order of the account.[1] But this rule may be varied by circumstances.[2] Thus, where an agent renders an account, charging himself with a balance, and continues afterwards to receive moneys for his principal, and to make payments, his subsequent payments are not necessarily to be ascribed to the previous balance, if the subsequent receipts are equal to such payments.[3] Where the mortgagee of two parcels of land, mortgaged for the same debt, released one of them to the assignee of the mortgagor of that parcel, the money received for the release was appropriated to the mortgage debt, in favor of an assignee of the other parcel, notwithstanding the mortgagor was indebted to the creditor on other accounts.[4] So, if one debt is illegal and the other is lawful, or, if one debt is not yet payable, but the other is already over-due, a general payment will be ascribed to the latter.[5] And if one debt bears interest, and another does not, the payment will be applied to the debt bearing interest.[6]

§ 534. The mere fact, that one of several debts is secured by a *surety*, does not of itself entitle that debt to a prefer-

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[1] The Postmaster General *v.* Furber, 4 Mason, R. 333; Gass *v.* Stinson, 3 Sumn. R. 99, 112; The United States *v.* Wardwell, 5 Mason, R. 82, 87; The United States *v.* Kirkpatrick, 9 Wheat. 720; Sterndale *v.* Hankinson, 1 Sim. 393; Smith *v.* Wigley, 3 M. & Scott, 174; Thompson *v.* Brown, 1 M. & Malk. 40.

[2] Wilson *v.* Hirst, 1 Nev. & Man. 746.

[3] Lysaght *v.* Walker, 5 Bligh, N. S. 1.

[4] Hicks *v.* Bingham, 11 Mass. 300; Gwinn *v.* Whitaker, 1 H. & J. 754.

[5] Wright *v.* Laing, 3 B. & C. 165; 4 D. & R. 783, S. C.; Ex parte Randleson, 2 Dea. & Chit. 534; McDonnell *v.* The Blackstone Canal Co. 5 Mason, R. 11; Gass *v.* Stinson, 3 Sumn. R. 99, 112.

[6] Heyward *v.* Lomax, 1 Vern. 24; Bacon *v.* Brown, 1 Bibb, R. 334; Ante, § 530.

ence in the appropriation of a general payment. And therefore, where there was a prior debt outstanding, and afterwards a new debt was created, for which a bond was given with a surety, the creditor was held at liberty to ascribe a general payment to the prior debt, though the surety was not informed of its existence when he became bound; for he should have inquired for himself.[1] But where a guaranty was expressed to be for goods to be thereafter delivered, and not for a debt which then existed; and goods were accordingly supplied from time to time, and payments made, for some of which a discount was allowed for payments in anticipation of the usual term of credit upon such sales; it was held, in favor of the surety, that the payments ought to be applied to the latter account.[2]

§ 535. And if one of two demands is within the operation of the *statute of limitations*, and the other is not, this circumstance does not prevent the ascription of a general payment to the former demand, where the debtor himself has not appropriated it at the time.[3] So, if one of two bills is void for want of a *stamp*, a general payment may still be applied to it by the creditor.[4]

§ 536. In some cases, the Court, in the exercise of its discretion, and for the sake of equal justice, will apply general payments, in a *rateable proportion*, to all the existing debts. Thus, if a broker, having sold goods of several principals to one purchaser, receives from him a general payment in part, after which the purchaser becomes insolvent, the payment shall be applied in proportion, to each debt.[5] So, if

[1] Kirby *v.* D. of Marlborough, 2 M. & S. 18. And see Brewer *v.* Knapp, 1 Pick. 337; Mitchell *v.* Dall, 4 G. & J. 361; Plomer *v.* Long, 1 Stark. R. 153; Clark *v.* Burdett, 2 Hall, N. Y. Rep. 185.

[2] Marryatts *v.* White, 2 Stark. R. 101.

[3] Mills *v.* Fowkes, 5 Bing. N. C. 455; 3 Jur. 406; Williams *v.* Griffith, 5 M. & W. 300.

[4] Biggs *v.* Dwight, 1 M. & Rob. 308.

[5] Favenc *v.* Bennett, 11 East, 36.

the agent blends a demand due to his principal with one due from the same debtor to himself, and receives a general payment thereon;[1] or if an insolvent assigns all his property for the benefit of his creditors, and a dividend is paid to one of them, who holds divers demands against the insolvent;[2] or if several demands, some of which are collaterally secured, are included in one judgment, and the execution is satisfied in part;[3] in these and the like cases, the payment will be ascribed in a rateable proportion to each debt.

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[1] Barrett *v.* Lewis, 2 Pick. 123; Cole *v.* Trull, 9 Pick. 325.

[2] Scott *v.* Ray, 18 Pick. 360; Commercial Bank *v.* Cunningham, 24 Pick. 270.

[3] Blackstone Bank *v.* Hill, 10 Pick. 129. And see Perris *v.* Roberts, 1 Vern. 34; 1 Poth. Obl. by Evans, Part 3, ch. 1, art. 7, § 528 – 535; Shaw *v.* Picton, 4 B. & C. 715.

PRESCRIPTION AND CUSTOM.

§ 537. PRESCRIPTION, in its more general acceptation, is defined to be "a title, acquired by possession, had during the time and in the manner fixed by law." After the lapse of the requisite period, the law adds the right of property to that which before was only possession.[1] The subject of prescription is real property; but the title to corporeal hereditaments, derived from exclusive adverse possession, being regulated by the statutes of Limitation, of which we have already treated, under that head, the title by prescription, in its stricter sense, is applied only to things incorporeal, such as rents, commons, ways, franchises, and all species of easements or liberties without profit, which one man may be entitled to enjoy in the soil of another, without obtaining any interest in the land itself.[2]

§ 538. This prescriptive title to things incorporeal was originally founded on uninterrupted enjoyment for a period of indefinite antiquity, or beyond the memory of man; and is termed a positive prescription. When writs of right were limited to a fixed period, it was thought unreasonable to allow a longer time to claims by prescription; and accordingly prescriptive rights were held indefeasible, if proved to have existed previous to the first day of the reign of King Richard I., that being the earliest limitation of writs of right, and were invalidated if shown to have had a subsequent origin. When later statutes reduced the period of limitation

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[1] Gale & Whatley on Easements, p. 86; Co. Lit. 113, b.

[2] See 3 Cruise's Digest, tit. xxxi. ch. 1. The law of Prescriptions is stated with great clearness by Mr. Best, in his Treatise on Presumptions, ch. iii. p. 87 – 110. See also Mr. Angell's Treatise on Adverse Enjoyment.

of real actions to a certain number of years, computed back from the commencement of each action, it was to have been expected, that the period of legal memory in regard to prescriptions would have been shortened by the Courts of law in like manner, upon the same reason; but it was not done, and the time of prescription for incorporeal rights remained as before. This unaccountable omission has occasioned some inconvenience in the administration of justice, and some conflict of opinion on the bench, and in the profession at large. The inconvenience, however, has been greatly obviated in practice, by introducing a new kind of title, namely, the presumption of a grant, made and lost in modern times; which the Jury are advised or directed to find, upon evidence of enjoyment for sufficient length of time. But whether this presumption is to be regarded as a rule of law, to be administered by the Judges, or merely as a subject fit to be emphatically recommended to the Jury, is still a disputed point in England, though now reduced to little practical importance, especially since the recent statute on this subject.[1]

[1] See Gale & Whatley on Easements, p. 89 – 97. By Stat. 2 & 3 W. 4, c. 71, § 1, no prescription for any right in land, except tithes, rents, and services, where the profit shall have been actually taken and enjoyed by the person claiming right thereto, without interruption, for thirty years, shall be defeated by showing an earlier commencement. And if enjoyed in like manner for sixty years, the right is deemed indefeasible and absolute, unless shown to have been enjoyed by express consent or agreement, by deed or in writing. By § 2, a similar effect is given to the like enjoyment of ways, easements, and watercourses, and rights, for the period of twenty years, unless defeated in some legal way other than by showing an earlier commencement; and for forty years, unless by consent in writing, as in the preceding section. And by § 3, the enjoyment of lights for twenty years without interruption, confers an absolute and indefeasible title, unless it was by consent in writing, as in the other cases. Thus, the enjoyment for the shorter period, in the first two cases, is made a *præsumptio juris* of title, excluding only one method of defeating it; and the enjoyment for the longer period, in every case, is made a *præsumptio juris et de jure*, against all opposing proof, except that of consent in writing. See Best on Presumptions, § 98, p. 116 – 129.

§ 539. In the United States, grants have been very freely presumed, upon proof of an *adverse, exclusive, and uninterrupted enjoyment for twenty years;* it being the policy of the Courts of law to limit the presumption to periods analogous to those of the statutes of limitation, in all cases where the statutes do not apply; but whether this was a presumption of law or of fact, was for a long time as uncertain here, as in England, and perhaps may not yet be definitely settled in every State. But by the weight of authority, as well as the preponderance of opinion, it may be stated as the general rule of American law, that such an enjoyment of an incorporeal hereditament affords a conclusive presumption of a grant, or a right, as the case may be; which is to be applied as a *præsumptio juris et de jure*, wherever, by possibility, a right may be acquired in any manner known to the law.[1]

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[1] Tyler *v.* Wilkinson, 4 Mason, R. 402, per Story, J. And see Ante, Vol. 1, § 17, and cases there cited; Sims *v.* Davis, 1 Cheves, R. 2; 3 Kent's Comm. p. 441, 442. On this subject, Mr. Justice Wilde, in delivering the opinion of the Court in Coolidge *v.* Learned, 8 Pick. 504, remarked as follows: — "That the time of legal memory, according to the law of England, extends back to the remote period contended for by the plaintiff's counsel, cannot be denied; but for what reason, or for what purpose, such a limitation should have been continued down to the present day, we are unable to ascertain. Cruise says, 'that it seems somewhat extraordinary, that the date of legal prescription should continue to be reckoned from so distant a period.' And to us it seems, that for all practical purposes it might as well be reckoned from the time of the creation. The limitation in question (if it can now be called a limitation) was first established soon after the St. Westm. 2, (13 Ed. 1, c. 39,) and was founded on the equitable construction of that statute, which provided that no writ of right should be maintained except on a seisin from the time of Richard I.

"It was held, that an undisturbed enjoyment of an easement for a period of time sufficient to give a title to land by possession, was sufficient also to give a title to the easement. 2 Roll. Abr. 269; 2 Inst. 238; Rex *v.* Hudson, 2 Str. 909; 3 Stark. on Ev. 1205. Upon this principle, the time of legal memory was first limited, and upon the same principle, when the limitation of a writ of right was reduced by the statute of 32 Hen. 8, c. 2, to sixty years, a similar reduction should have been made in the limitation of the time of legal memory. This was required, not only by public policy, to quiet long continued possessions, but by a regard to consistency, as it

In order, however, that the enjoyment of an easement in another's land may be conclusive of the right, it must have been adverse, that is, under a claim of title, with the knowledge and acquiescence of the owner of the land, and

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would have been only following up the principle upon which the first limitation was founded.

"And of this opinion was Rolle, (2 Roll. Abr. 269,) though he admits, that at his time the practice was otherwise. Why the opinion of this eminent Judge, founded as it was on reasoning so solid and satisfactory, was not adopted by the Courts, does not appear. But it does appear, that the principle on which his opinion was founded, was respected, and carried into operation in another form. For although the Courts continued to adhere to the limitation before adopted, yet the long enjoyment of an easement was held to be a sufficient reason, not only to authorize, but to require the Jury to presume a grant. And it has long been settled, that the undisturbed enjoyment of an incorporeal right affecting the lands of another for twenty years, the possession being adverse and unrebutted, imposes on the Jury the duty to presume a grant, and in all such cases Juries are so instructed by the Court. Not, however, because either the Court or Jury believe the presumed grant to have been actually made, but because public policy and convenience require that long continued possession should not be disturbed.

"The period of twenty years was adopted in analogy to the statute of limitations, by which an adverse possession of twenty years was a bar to an action of ejectment, and gave a possessory title to the land. Thus it appears, that although prescriptive rights commencing after the reign of Richard I. are not sustained in England, yet a possession of twenty years only is sufficient to warrant the presumption of a grant; which is the foundation of the doctrine of prescription. In the one case, the grant is presumed by the Court, or rather is presumed by the law; and in the other case it is presumed by the Jury under the direction of the Court. The presumption in the latter case is in theory, it is true, a presumption of fact, but in practice and for all practical purposes, it is a legal presumption, as it depends on pure legal rules; and as Starkie remarks, 'it seems to be very difficult to say, why such presumptions should not at once have been established as mere presumptions of law, to be applied to the facts by the Courts, without the aid of a Jury. That course would certainly have been more simple, and any objection, as to the want of authority, would apply with equal if not superior force to the establishing such presumptions indirectly through the medium of a Jury.'

"But however this may be, it is clear that, when the law became settled as it now is, and a party was allowed to plead a non-existing grant, and

uninterrupted; and the *burden of proving* this is on the party claiming the easement. If he leaves it doubtful, whether the enjoyment was adverse, known to the owner, and uninterrupted, it is not conclusive in his favor.[1]

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the Jury were bound to presume it, on proof of twenty years' possession, he would hardly be induced to set up a prescriptive right; and the limitation of legal memory thus became in most cases of very little importance. And this is probably the reason why the period of legal memory, as it was limited soon after the statute of Westm. 1, has been suffered to go on increasing to the present time, although it has long since ceased to be of any practical utility, and is utterly inconsistent with the principle on which the limitation was originally founded.

"The question then is, whether the Courts of this country were not at liberty to adopt the English law of prescription, with a modification of the unreasonable rule adhered to by the English Courts in regard to the limitation of the time of legal memory. Certainly the law without the rule of limitation might have been adopted, and the Courts here had competent authority to establish a new rule of limitation suited to the situation of the country. They had the same authority in this respect, that the Courts in England had to establish the English rule of limitation. This rule could not be adopted here without a modification, and it was modified accordingly; and in conformity with the principle of the English rule of limitation. This cannot be ascertained with certainty, but it is evident, that the English rule could not have been adopted, and it is to be presumed, that the period of sixty years was fixed upon as the time of limitation, in analogy to the statute of 32 Hen. 8, c. 2, and in conformity with the opinion of Rolle. At what period of our history the law of prescription was first introduced into practice in the Courts of Massachusetts, cannot now be determined, but certainly it was before the time of legal memory, as we understand the limitation of it; and innumerable pleas of prescriptive rights are to be found in the records of our Courts. So the cases reported by Dane show that the doctrine of prescription has been repeatedly recognized and sanctioned by this Court. 3 Dane, 253, c. 79, art. 3, § 19. The only question has been, whether our time of legal memory was limited to sixty years, or whether it was to extend to a period beyond which no memory or record goes as to the right in question. The general opinion, we think, has been in favor of the limitation of sixty years; and we think it decidedly the better opinion. This seems to us a reasonable limitation, and, as before remarked, it is founded on the principle of the

[1] Sargent *v.* Ballard, 9 Pick. 251; Davies *v.* Stephens, 7 C. & P. 570; Jarvis *v.* Dean, 3 Bing. 447.

§ 540. There are two kinds of positive prescription; the one being a personal right, exercised by the party and his ancestors, or by a body politic and its predecessors; and the other being a right attached to an hereditament held in fee simple, and exercisable only by those who are seised of that estate; and this is termed a prescription in a *que estate*.[1]

§ 541. Nothing can be claimed by prescription, which owes its origin to, and can only be had by *matter of record;* but lapse of time, accompanied by acts done, or other circumstances, may warrant the Jury in presuming a grant or

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English rule of limitation, which was adopted in reference to the limitation of the writ of right by the statute of Westm. 1. Whether since the writ of right has been limited to forty years, a similar limitation of the time of legal memory ought to be adopted, is a question not raised in this case, and upon which we give no opinion." 8 Pick. 508–511. The conclusiveness of the presumption was again asserted in Sargent *v.* Ballard, 9 Pick. 251. Afterwards, the point of time being before the same Court, it was adjudged, that the exclusive uninterrupted use and enjoyment for forty years, of an incorporeal right affecting another's land, was sufficient to establish a title by prescription. Melvin *v.* Whiting, 10 Pick. 295. And subsequently, a similar enjoyment for twenty years was held equally effectual. Bolivar Man. Co. *v.* Neponset Man. Co. 16 Pick. 241. This rule is now expressly recognized, in several of the States, by statutes. See Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 60, § 27; Rev. Stat. Maine, ch. 147, § 14. And it seems to be either assumed or necessarily implied in the legislation of other States. See Elmer's Dig. LL. New Jersey, p. 314, 317, tit. Limitations, § 1. 16; Den *v.* McCann, Penningt. R. 331, 333; 1 Rev. Stat. N. Car. ch. 65, § 1, p. 371, 372; Rev. Stat. Delaware, 1839, tit. Limitations, § 1, p. 396; 2 LL. Kentucky, p. 1125, tit. Limitations, § 2, (Morehead & Brown's ed.); Morgan *v.* Banta, 1 Bibb, 582; Simpson *v.* Hawkins, 1 Dana, 306; Clay's Dig. LL. Alabama, p. 329, § 93; Rev. Stat. Missouri, p. 392, tit. Limitations, Art. 1, § 1; 2 Rev. LL. New York, p. 293, § 5, 7. See also Shaw *v.* Crawford, 10 Johns. 236; Johns *v.* Stevens, 3 Verm. R. 316. The case of Bolling *v.* The Mayor, &c. of Petersburg, 3 Rand. 563, 577, which has been cited to the contrary, was a writ of right, respecting a corporeal hereditament, and turned upon the statute of limitations.

[1] 3 Cruise's Dig. tit. xxxi. ch. 1, § 8, 9, (White's ed.)

title by record.[1] Nor can anything be claimed by prescription, unless it might have been created by *grant;* nor anything, which the law itself gives of *common right.* Nor can anything be prescribed for in a *que estate*, unless it is appendant or appurtenant to land, and lies in grant.[2]

§ 542. *Customary rights* differ from prescriptive rights only in this, that the former are local usages, belonging to all the inhabitants of a particular place or district; whereas the latter are rights belonging to individuals, wherever they may reside.[3]

§ 543. From this view of the present state of the law on this subject, it appears, that the plea of prescription will be maintained by any competent evidence of an uninterrupted, exclusive enjoyment of the subject prescribed for, during the period of twenty years, with claim of title, and with the actual or presumed knowledge of those adversely interested. The time of enjoyment by a former owner, whose title has escheated to the State by forfeiture, cannot be added to the time of enjoyment by the grantee of the State, to make up the twenty years; but the times of enjoyment by those in privity with the claimant, as in the relation of heir and ancestor, or grantor and grantee, may be thus joined.[4]

§ 544. If the evidence of the claim extends over the requisite period of time, the prescriptive title will not be defeated by proof of *slight, partial* or *occasional variations* in the exercise or extent of the right claimed. Thus, if a watercourse is prescribed for to a fulling mill, but the party

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[1] 3 Cruise's Dig. tit. xxxi. ch. § 10, (White's ed.); Farrar *v.* Merrill, 1 Greenl. 17; Battles *v.* Holley, 6 Greenl. 145; Ante, Vol. 1, § 46; Best on Presumptions, § 111.

[2] 3 Cruise's Dig. tit. xxxi. ch. 1, § 11, 17, 18, 19, (White's ed.)

[3] Ibid. § 7; Best on Presumptions, § 79.

[4] Sargent *v.* Ballard, 9 Pick. 251.

has converted it into a grist-mill ;[1] or, if the subject of prescription be a towing-path along the banks of a navigable river, and it has been converted by statute into a floating harbor,[2] the right is not thereby lost ; for in the former case, the substance of the right is the mill, and not the kind of mill to which the same propelling power was applied ; and in the latter case, the use made by the public was essentially the same as before, namely, for facility of navigation. Thus also, the plea will be supported by proof of a right, larger than the right claimed, if it be of a nature to include it.[3] And if the prescription is for a common appurtenant to a house and twenty acres, it will be supported by proof of a right appurtenant to a house and eighteen acres.[4] But the prescription, being an entire thing, must be *proved substantially* as laid ;[5] and therefore a variance in any part, material or essentially descriptive, will be fatal. Thus, if the prescription is for common for commonable cattle, and the evidence is of common for only a particular species of commonable cattle ;[6] or if the prescription pleaded is general and absolute, but the proof is of a prescriptive right coupled with a condition ;[7] or, subject to exceptions ;[8] or if the right claimed is of common in a certain close, and it appears, that the claimant has released his title in part of the land ;[9] in these, and the like cases, the plea is not supported.

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[1] Lutterel's case, 4 Co. 86. And see Blanchard *v.* Baker, 8 Greenl. 253.

[2] Rex *v.* Tippett, 3 B. & Ald. 193 ; Codling *v.* Johnson, 9 B. & C. 933.

[3] Bailey *v.* Appleyard, 8 Ad. & El. 167 ; Bailiffs of Tewksbury *v.* Bicknell, 1 Taunt. 142 ; Welcome *v.* Upton, 6 M. & W. 540, per Alderson, B. ; Bushwood *v.* Pond, Cro. El. 722.

[4] Gregory *v.* Hill, Cro. El. 531 ; Rickets *v.* Salwey, 2 B. & Ald. 360.

[5] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 63, 67, 71, 72.

[6] Bull. N. P. 59. And see Rex *v.* Hermitage, Carth. 241.

[7] Gray's case, 5 Co. 78, b ; Lovelace *v.* Reignolds, Cro. El. 563 ; Paddock *v.* Forrester, 3 M. & G. 903.

[8] Griffin *v.* Blandford, Cowp. 62.

[9] Rotherham *v.* Green, Cro. El. 593.

§ 545. The claim of a prescriptive right may be *defeated* by evidence, showing that it has been *interrupted*, within the legal period; but this must be an interruption of the *right*, and not simply an interruption of the use or possession.[1] Thus, if estovers for a house be by prescription, and the house be pulled down, and rebuilt, the right is not lost.[2] Nor will the right be destroyed by a *tortious* interruption, nor by a discontinuance by the lease of a terre-tenant.[3] It may also be defeated by proof of *unity of title* to the easement and to the land to which it was attached, where both titles are of the same nature and degree; or, by evidence of the final *destruction* of the subject to which the right was annexed;[4] or, by showing that its commencement and continuance were by the *agreement and consent* of the adverse party, or by his *express grant*, within the legal period. But proof of an older grant will not defeat the claim, if it appear to be in *confirmation* of a prior right.[5] And if the exercise of the right claimed was by consent of one who had only a *temporary interest* in the land, as, for example, a tenant for life, his negligence in not resisting the claim will not be allowed to prejudice the owner of the inheritance.[6] The acquiescence of the owner, however, may be inferred from circumstances;[7] and where the time has

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[1] Co. Lit. 114 *b*; 2 Inst. 653, 654; Canham *v.* Fisk, 2 C. & J. 126, per Bayley, B.

[2] 4 Co. 87; Cowper *v.* Andrews, Hob. 39.

[3] 2 Inst. 653, 654.

[4] Co. Lit. 114, *b*; 3 Cruise's Dig. tit. xxxi. ch. 1, § 35, 36, (White's ed.); 6 Com. Dig. 83, tit. Præscription, G; Morris *v.* Edgington, 3 Taunt. 24.

[5] Addington *v.* Clode, 2 W. Bl. 989; Biddulph *v.* Ather, 2 Wils. 23; Best on Presumptions, § 87.

[6] Bradbury *v.* Grinsell, 2 Saund. 175 *d*, note by Williams; Daniel *v.* North, 11 East, 372; Barker *v.* Richardson, 4 B. & Ald. 579; Runcorn *v.* Doe, 5 B. & C. 696; Wood *v.* Veal, 5 B. & Ald. 454. See also Gale & Whatley on Easements, p. 108 – 117. So, if it was by mutual mistake. Campbell *v.* Wilson, 3 East, 294.

[7] Gray *v.* Bond, 2 B. & B. 667.

once begun to run against him, the interposition of a particular estate does not stop it.[1]

§ 546. It is hardly necessary to add, that, though the usage proved may not be sufficiently long to support the claim of a right by prescription, yet, coupled with other circumstances, it may be sufficient to support the plea of title by a lost grant, which the Jury will be at liberty and sometimes be advised to find accordingly.[2]

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[1] Cross *v.* Lewis, 2 B. & C. 686; Best on Presumptions, § 89.

[2] Bealey *v.* Shaw, 6 East, 208; Ante, Vol. 1, § 17, 45, and cases there cited; Best on Presumptions, § 86 – 90; Gale & Whatley on Easements, p. 93 – 95.

REAL ACTIONS.

§ 547. The principal rules of evidence, applicable to actions for the recovery of lands and tenements, have already been considered, under the title of Ejectment; this being the form of remedy pursued in most of the United States. But in several of the States, this remedy has been essentially modified; as in South Carolina, where its fictions are abolished, and an action of "trespass to try titles" is given by statute; and in Alabama, where a similar action, or a writ of ejectment, is given, at the election of the party. In other States, namely, in Georgia and Louisiana, the remedy in this, as in all other civil cases, is by petition, in which the entire case of the plaintiff is fully and distinctly stated, and is answered by the defendant, much in the manner of proceedings in Equity. In others, as in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Illinois, the forms of action, known to the Common Law, are all recognized, but the remedies in most frequent use are the writ of right, the writ of dower *unde nihil habet*, the writ of *formedon*, in the very few cases of entailments which now occur, and especially a writ, properly termed a writ of entry upon disseisin. This last is now almost the only remedy resorted to, except for dower, since the limitation of all real actions and rights of entry, in all the States last mentioned, except Connecticut, as well as in most others, is now reduced to one uniform period of twenty years. In Connecticut the limitation is fifteen years, and in one or two other States the period is still shorter.

§ 548. There is diversity in the laws of the several States on another point, namely, the remedy for *mesne profits*. In some States, this remedy is by an action of trespass, as at Common Law. In others, as in Massachusetts, Maine, New

Hampshire, and Illinois, and, to a limited extent, in Vermont, the damages for mesne profits are assessed by the Jury, at the trial of the writ of entry, the real action being thus changed by statute into a mixed action. In Pennsylvania, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, and Missouri, they are assessed, with various restrictions, by the Jury at the trial of the writ of ejectment. In Ohio and Alabama, where the value of his lasting improvements is claimed by the defendant, and the value of the land, exclusive of the improvements, is also assessed at the request of the plaintiff, the claim for mesne profits is merged and barred, by statute, in these proceedings.

§ 549. The proceedings last mentioned relate to another feature, peculiar in the law of real remedies of some of the United States, but unknown in others; namely, the right of the occupant of land to recover against the true owner, on eviction by him, the value of the *lasting improvements*, popularly termed *betterments*, which in good faith he has made upon the land. This right, to a certain extent, is a familiar doctrine in Courts of Equity, and it is freely administered whenever the owner, after recovery of the land, resorts to a bill in Equity against the late occupant, for an account of the rents and profits; but whether those Courts would sustain a bill, originally brought by the occupant for the value of his improvements, was, until of late, wholly an open question, but is now, in one class of cases, settled in favor of the remedy.[1] At Common Law, it is well known,

[1] See 2 Kent, Comm. p. 334 – 338; Bright *v.* Boyd, 1 Story, R. 478. In this case, which was a bill in Equity, the plaintiff had purchased the premises in question at a sale, made by the administrator of the defendant's ancestor for payment of his debts; but the title being defective, by reason of illegality in the administrator's proceedings, the defendant, who was the devisee under a foreign will, had recovered the land from the present plaintiff, in an action at law. The present plaintiff, not having had possession of the land for a sufficient length of time to enable him to claim the value of his lasting improvements under the statute of Maine, in the action

that no such claim could be maintained; but the situation of the United States, as a new country in the course of rapid and even tumultuous occupation, having given rise to great uncertainties in the titles to land, the rule of the Common Law was found to operate inequitably in very

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at law, now filed this bill for that and some other purposes, in the Circuit Court of the United States. The principal question was discussed by Mr. Justice Story in the following terms:—"The other question, as to the right of the purchaser, *bonâ fide* and for a valuable consideration, to compensation for permanent improvements made upon the estate, which have greatly enhanced its value, under a title, which turns out defective, he having no notice of the defect, is one, upon which, looking to the authorities, I should be inclined to pause. Upon the general principles of Courts of Equity, acting *ex æquo et bono*, I own, that there does not seem to me any just ground to doubt, that compensation, under such circumstances, ought to be allowed to the full amount of the enhanced value, upon the maxim of the Common Law, *Nemo debet locupletari ex alterius incommodo;* or, as it is still more exactly expressed in the Digest, *Jure naturæ æquum est, neminem cum alterius detrimento et injuria fieri locupletiorem.*[1] I am aware, that the doctrine has not as yet been carried to such an extent in our Courts of Equity. In cases where the true owner of an estate, after a recovery thereof at law, from a *bonâ fide* possessor for a valuable consideration without notice, seeks an account in Equity, as plaintiff, against such possessor, for the rents and profits, it is the constant habit of Courts of Equity to allow such possessor (as defendant) to deduct therefrom the full amount of all the meliorations and improvements, which he has beneficially made upon the estate; and thus to recoup them from the rents and profits.[2] So, if the true owner of an estate holds only an equitable title thereto, and seeks the aid of a Court of Equity to enforce that title, the Court will administer that aid only upon the terms of making compensation to such *bonâ fide* possessor for the amount of his meliorations and improvements of the estate, beneficial to the true owner.[3] In each of these cases, the Court acts upon an old and established maxim in its jurisprudence, that he who seeks equity must do equity.[4] But it has been supposed, that Courts of Equity do not and ought not to go further, and to grant active relief in favor of such a *bonâ fide* possessor, making permanent meliorations and improvements, by sustaining a bill, brought by him therefor, against the true owner, after he

[1] Dig. lib. 50, tit. 17, l. 206.

[2] 2 Story on Eq. Jurisp. § 799 a., § 799 b., § 1237, 1238, 1239; Green *v.* Biddle, 8 Wheat. R. 77, 78, 79, 80, 81.

[3] See also 2 Story Eq. Jurisp. § 799 b., and note; Ibid. § 1237, 1238.

[4] Ibid.

many cases, and sometimes to work gross injustice; and hence several of the States have been led to provide remedies at law, for the protection of honest occupants, and for securing to them the fruits of their labor, fairly bestowed in the permanent improvement of the land.

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has recovered the premises at law. I find, that Mr. Chancellor Walworth, in Putnam *v.* Ritchie, 6 Paige, R. 390, 403, 404, 405, entertained this opinion, admitting at the same time, that he could find no case in England or America, where the point had been expressed or decided either way. Now, if there be no authority against the doctrine, I confess, that I should be most reluctant to be the first Judge to lead to such a decision. It appears to me, speaking with all deference to other opinions, that the denial of all compensation to such a *bonâ fide* purchaser, in such a case, where he has manifestly added to the permanent value of an estate by his meliorations and improvements, without the slightest suspicion of any infirmity in his own title, is contrary to the first principles of equity. Take the case of a vacant lot in a city, where a *bonâ fide* purchaser builds a house thereon, enhancing the value of the estate to ten times the original value of the land, under a title apparently perfect and complete; is it reasonable or just, that in such a case, the true owner should recover and possess the whole, without any compensation whatever to the *bonâ fide* purchaser? To me it seems manifestly unjust and inequitable, thus to appropriate to one man the property and money of another, who is in no default. The argument, I am aware, is, that the moment the house is built, it belongs to the owner of the land by mere operation of law; and that he may certainly possess and enjoy his own. But this is merely stating the technical rule of law, by which the true owner seeks to hold, what in a just sense he never had the slightest title to, that is, the house. It is not answering the objection; but merely and dryly stating, that the law so holds. But, then, admitting this to be so, does it not furnish a strong ground why equity should interpose, and grant relief?

"I have ventured to suggest, that the claim of the *bonâ fide* purchaser, under such circumstances, is founded in equity. I think it founded in the highest equity; and in this view of the matter, I am supported by the positive dictates of the Roman law. The passage already cited, shows it to be founded in the clearest natural equity. *Jure naturæ æquum est.* And the Roman law treats the claim of the true owner, without making any compensation under such circumstances as a case of fraud or ill faith. *Certe* (say the Institutes) *illud constat; si in possessione constituto ædificatore, soli Dominus petat domum suam esse, me solvat pretium materiæ et mercedes fabrorum; posse eum per exceptionem doli mali repelli; utique si bonæ fidei possessor, qui ædificavit. Nam scienti, alienum solum esse, potest*

§ 550. There is great diversity also in the modes by which this object is effected. In some of the States, the value of the improvements is allowed only by way of set-off to the claim of the plaintiff for mesne profits. In others, the occu-

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objici culpa, quod ædificaverit temere in eo solo, quod intelligebat alienum esse.[1] It is a grave mistake, sometimes made, that the Roman law merely confined its equity or remedial justice, on this subject, to a mere reduction from the amount of the rents and profits of the land.[2] The general doctrine is fully expounded and supported in the Digest, where it is applied, not to all expenditures upon the estate, but to such expenditures only as have enhanced the value of the estate, (*quatenus pretiosior res facta est*,)[3] and beyond what he has been reimbursed by the rents and profits.[4] The like principle has been adopted into the law of the modern nations, which have derived their jurisprudence from the Roman law; and it is especially recognized in France, and enforced by Pothier, with his accustomed strong sense of equity, and general justice, and urgent reasoning.[5] Indeed, some jurists, and among them Cujacius, insist, contrary to the Roman law, that even a *malâ fide* possessor ought to have an allowance of all expenses, which have enhanced the value of the estate, so far as the increased value exists.[6]

"The law of Scotland has allowed the like recompense to *bonâ fide* possessors, making valuable and permanent improvements; and some of the jurists of that country have extended the benefit to *malâ fide* possessors to a limited extent.[7] The law of Spain affords the like protection and recompense to *bonâ fide* possessors, as founded in natural justice and equity.[8] Grotius, Puffendorf, and Rutherforth, all affirm the same doctrine, as founded in the truest principles, *ex æquo et bono*.[9]

"There is still another broad principle of the Roman Law, which is applicable to the present case. It is, that where a *bonâ fide* possessor or

[1] Just. Inst. lib. 2, tit. 1, § 30, 32; 2 Story on Eq. Jurisp. § 799, b; Vinn. Com. ad Inst. lib. 2, tit. 1, § 30, n. 3, 4, p. 194, 195.

[2] See Green *v.* Biddle, 8 Wheat. R. 79, 80.

[3] Dig. lib. 20, tit. 1, l. 29, § 2; Dig. lib. 6, tit. 1, l. 65; Ibid. l. 38; Pothier, Pand. lib. 6, tit. 1, n. 43, 44, 45, 46, 48.

[4] Dig. lib. 6, tit. 1, l. 48.

[5] Pothier, De la Propriété, n. 343 – 353; Code Civil of France, art. 552, 555.

[6] Pothier, De la Propriété, n. 350; Vinn. ad Inst. lib. 2, tit. 1, l. 30, p. 4, p. 195.

[7] Bell, Comm. on Law of Scotland, p. 139, § 538; Ersk. Inst. b. 3, tit. 1, § 11; 1 Stair, Inst. b. 1, tit. 8, § 6.

[8] 1 Mor. & Carl. Partid. b. 3, tit. 28. l. 41, p. 357, 358; Asa & Manuel, Inst. of Laws of Spain, 102.

[9] Grotius, b. 2, ch. 10, § 1, 2, 3; Puffend. Law of Nat. & Nat. b. 4, ch. 7, § 61; Rutherf. Inst. b. 1, ch. 9, § 4, p. 7.

pant has a remedy by filing a declaration in a special action on the case, after judgment for possession has been entered against him in the action of ejectment; in which case the writ of possession is stayed until a trial is had of the action

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purchaser of real estate pays money to discharge any existing incumbrance or charge upon the estate, having no notice of any infirmity in his title, he is entitled to be repaid the amount of such payment by the true owner, seeking to recover the estate from him.[1] Now, in the present case, it cannot be overlooked, that the lands of the testator, now in controversy, were sold for the payment of his just debts, under the authority of law, although the authority was not regularly executed by the administrator in his mode of sale, by a non-compliance with one of the prerequisites. It was not, therefore, in a just sense, a tortious sale; and the proceeds thereof, paid by the purchaser, have gone to discharge the debts of the testator, and so far the lands in the hands of the defendant (Boyd) have been relieved from a charge, to which they were liable by law. So, that he is now enjoying the lands, free from a charge, which in conscience and equity, he and he only, and not the purchaser, ought to bear. To the extent of the charge, from which he has been thus relieved by the purchaser, it seems to me, that the plaintiff, claiming under the purchaser, is entitled to reimbursement, in order to avoid a circuity of action, to get back the money from the administrator, and thus subject the lands to a new sale, or, at least, in his favor, in equity to the old charge. I confess myself to be unwilling to resort to such a circuity, in order to do justice, where, upon the principles of equity, the merits of the case can be reached by affecting the lands directly with a charge, to which they are *ex æquo et bono*, in the hands of the present defendant, clearly liable.

"These considerations have been suggested, because they greatly weigh in my own mind, after repeated deliberations on the subject. They, however, will remain open for consideration upon the report of the master, and do not positively require to be decided, until all the equities between the parties are brought by his report fully before the Court. At present, it is ordered to be referred to the master to take an account of the enhanced value of the premises, by the meliorations and improvements of the plaintiff, and those, under whom he claims, after deducting all the rents and profits received by the plaintiff, and those, under whom he claims; and all other matters will be reserved for the consideration of the Court upon the coming in of his report." See 1 Story, R. 494–499. Afterwards, upon the coming in of the report, by which the increased value of the land by

[1] Dig. lib. 6, tit. 1, l. 65; Pothier, Pand. lib. 6, tit. 1, n. 43; Pothier, De la Propriété, n. 343.

for the value of the improvements, and the judgment in the latter case constitutes a lien on the land. In other States, upon the trial of the possessory action, the Jury, at the request of the respective parties, are required to assess, on the one hand, the increased value of the premises by reason of the improvements made by the occupant and those under whom he claims; and on the other hand, the value of the land, exclusive of those improvements; and the plaintiff is put to his election, either to take the land and pay the ascertained value of the improvements, or to abandon the land to the tenant, at the price found by the Jury; and the payments in either case are made by instalments fixed by law, and enforced by issuing or withholding the writ of possession.

§ 551. The *character of the occupants*, also, is the subject of some diversity of legislation. In general, the occupancy must have been in good faith, and without actual fraud. But in some States, the right to remuneration for improvements is given to all occupants, who have been in possession, claiming the exclusive title for a certain number of years; which of course includes disseisors, as well as those claiming under

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reason of the plaintiff's improvements was ascertained at a certain sum, the learned Judge decreed, that the plaintiff was entitled to that sum, as a lien and charge on the land; concluding thus: — "I wish, in coming to this conclusion, to be distinctly understood as affirming and maintaining the broad doctrine, as a doctrine of Equity, that, so far as an innocent purchaser for a valuable consideration, without notice of any infirmity in his title, has, by his improvements and meliorations, added to the permanent value of the estate, he is entitled to a full remuneration, and that such increase of value is a lien and charge on the estate, which the absolute owner is bound to discharge, before he is to be restored to his original rights in the land. This is the clear result of the Roman law; and it has the most persuasive Equity, and, I may add, common sense and common justice, for its foundation. The Betterment Acts (as they are commonly called) of the States of Massachusetts and Maine, and of some other States, are founded upon the like Equity, and were manifestly intended to support it, even in suits at law for the recovery of the estate." See 2 Story, R. 607, 608. See also Swan *v.* Swan, 8 Price, 518; 3 Powell on Mortg. 957, note Q, by Coventry.

them; while in other States, it is restricted to persons claiming under patents, and public grants, and by deeds of conveyance; thus intending to exclude all who knowingly enter by wrong, and without color of title. In others, again, the improvements, made after notice of the paramount title, are expressly excluded from the consideration of the Jury.

§ 552. It is obvious, that in a work like the present, it would be inexpedient to treat of all these varieties of remedy, or indeed to do anything more than to state the very few general rules of the Common Law, which are recognized in the absence of any statutory provisions; referring the reader to the statutes and decisions of each particular State, for whatever is peculiar in its own jurisprudence.

§ 553. It is a general rule in all these actions, as we have already remarked in respect to Ejectments, that the plaintiff must recover on the strength of his own title, and not on the weakness of his adversary's; and that he must show, that he has the legal interest, and a possessory title, not barred by the statute of limitations.[1] The same rules also apply here, which have been already mentioned under the title of Ejectment, in regard to the method of proving the *plaintiff's title.*[2]

§ 554. In a *writ of right*, proof of a seisin is necessary, as well as in other cases; but a title by disseisin is sufficient to maintain the action, if the tenant cannot show a better title;[3] and the devisee of vacant and unoccupied land has, by operation of law, a sufficient seisin to maintain this

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[1] See Ante, § 303. The writ of right being now limited to the same period with writs of entry, the proof of the right involves, of course, the proof of a possessory title.

[2] See Ante, § 305, 307 – 314, 316, 317, 318, 329.

[3] Bradstreet *v.* Clark, 12 Wend. 602; Hunt *v.* Hunt, 3 Met. 175; Speed *v.* Buford, 3 Bibb, 57; Jackson on Real Actions, p. 280.

action, without an actual entry.[1] Proof of actual perception of profits is not necessary, the averment of the taking of esplees not being traversable;[2] and the tenant's right of possession is no bar to the demandant's right of recovery in this action.[3] The *mise*, when joined, puts in issue the whole title, including the statute of limitations; and under it, the tenant may give in evidence a release from the demandant, after action brought, or any other matter, either establishing his own title, or disproving that of the demandant, except a collateral warranty.[4] But if a deed from the demandant to a stranger is shown, it may be rebutted, by evidence showing, that, at the time of its execution and delivery, the grantor was disseised, and that therefore nothing passed by the deed.[5]

§ 555. The *seisin* of the plaintiff or demandant, in any real action, is proved *primâ facie*, by evidence of his actual possession, which is always sufficient against a stranger. Such a possession, with claim of title, is sufficient to enable a grantor to convey; and the grantee, entering under such a conveyance, acquires a freehold,[6] even though the grantor be a person *non compos mentis;* the deed in that case being voidable only, and not void. But no seisin is conveyed by a naked release.[7] A seisin may also be proved by the extent of an execution on the land of a judgment debtor, which

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[1] Ward *v.* Fuller, 15 Pick. 185; Green *v.* Chelsea, 24 Pick. 71. But if the land be not vacant and unoccupied, the devisee must prove his own seisin. Wells *v.* Prince, 4 Mass. 64.

[2] Green *v.* Liter, 8 Cranch, 246; Ward *v.* Fuller, 15 Pick. 185.

[3] Jackson on Real Actions, p. 282, 283.

[4] Ten Eyck *v.* Waterbury, 7 Cowen, R. 51; Poor *v.* Robinson, 10 Mass. 131, 134.

[5] Knox *v.* Kellock, 14 Mass. 200.

[6] Newhall *v.* Wheeler, 7 Mass. 189, 199; Higbee *v.* Rice, 5 Mass. 345, 352; Ward *v.* Fuller, 15 Pick. 185.

[7] Wait *v.* Maxwell, 5 Pick. 217; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Call, 1 Mass. 483.

gives a seisin to the creditor.[1] If the actual possession is mixed and concurrent, the legal seisin is in him who has the title; and a legal seisin also carries with it the possession, if there is no adverse possession.[2] It is sufficient, *primâ facie*, to prove a seisin at any time anterior to the period in question, since it will be presumed to continue, until the contrary is shown.[3]

§ 556. The plea of *nul disseisin*, in a writ of entry, puts in issue the legal title to the land, or, in other words, the seisin on which the demandant has counted, and the lawfulness of the tenant's entry.[4] If therefore it is pleaded in bar of an action brought by a trustee, against the *cestui que trust*, it entitles the demandant to recover.[5] Under this issue, the tenant cannot avail himself of any objection to the form of the action;[6] he cannot give non-tenure in evidence;[7] nor show, that he is but a tenant at will;[8] nor give in evidence the title of a stranger under which he does not claim, nor though he claims to hold as his servant;[9] nor a title, acquired by himself by conveyance from a third person since the commencement of the action.[10] But under this issue, he may show a conveyance from the demandant or his ancestor to a stranger, for the purpose of disproving the demandant's

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[1] Langdon *v.* Potter, 3 Mass. 215.

[2] Codman *v.* Winslow, 10 Mass. 146; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Call, 1 Mass. 483, 484.

[3] Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416; Brimmer *v.* Long Wharf Prop'rs, 5 Pick. 131, 135.

[4] Jackson on Real Actions, p. 5, 157; Green *v.* Kemp, 13 Mass. 515, 520; Wolcott *v.* Knight, 6 Mass. 418, 419.

[5] Russell *v.* Lewis, 2 Pick. 508, 510.

[6] Green *v.* Kemp, 13 Mass. 515, 520.

[7] Higbee *v.* Rice, 5 Mass. 352, per Parsons, C. J.; Roberts *v.* Whiting, 16 Mass. 186; Alden *v.* Murdock, 13 Mass. 256, 259.

[8] Ibid.; Pray *v.* Pierce, 7 Mass. 381.

[9] Mechanics Bank *v.* Williams, 17 Pick. 438; Stanley *v.* Perley, 5 Greenl. 369; Shapleigh *v.* Pilsbury, 1 Greenl. 271.

[10] Andrews *v.* Hooper, 13 Mass. 472, 476.

allegation of seisin;[1] and the demandant, as has already been remarked in the case of a writ of right, may rebut this evidence by proof, that, at the time of the conveyance, the grantor was not seised, and so nothing passed by the deed.[2]

§ 557. Where the tenant claims by a *disseisin*, ripened into a good title by lapse of time, he must show an actual, open, and exclusive possession and use of the land as his own, adversely to the title of the demandant. It must be known to the adverse claimant, or be accompanied by circumstances of notoriety, such as erecting buildings or fences upon the land, from which he ought and may be presumed to know, that there is a possession adverse to his title.[3] But a fence made by the mere felling of trees on a line, lapping one upon another, is not sufficient for this purpose;[4] much less is the running and marking of lines by a surveyor, under the direction of one not claiming title; nor the occasional cutting of the grass.[5] An entry and occupancy under a deed of conveyance from a person without title, will constitute a disseisin of the true owner;[6] extending to the whole tract described in the conveyance, if the deed is registered; because the extent of the disseisor's claim may be known by inspection of the public registry.[7] But an entry under a registered deed, and the payment of taxes assessed upon the land, is not sufficient evidence of a

[1] King *v.* Barns, 13 Pick. 24, 28; Stanley *v.* Perley, 5 Greenl. 369.

[2] Knox *v.* Kellock, 14 Mass. 200; Wolcott *v.* Knight, 6 Mass. 418; Ante, § 554.

[3] Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416; Doe *v.* Prosser, Cowp. 217; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Call, 1 Mass. 483; Little *v.* Libby, 2 Greenl. 242; Poignard *v.* Smith, 6 Pick. 172; Norcross *v.* Widgery, 2 Mass. 506; Ante, § 311; Bryan *v.* Atwater, 5 Day, 181, 188, 189; Mitchell *v.* Warner, 5 Conn. 521; Teller *v.* Burtis, 6 Johns. 197.

[4] Coburn *v.* Hollis, 3 Met. 125.

[5] Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Springer, 4 Mass. 416.

[6] Warren *v.* Child, 11 Mass. 222.

[7] Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Laboree, 2 Greenl. 273.

disseisin, unless there was also a continued and open possession.[1] Where an inclosure of the land by fences is relied upon, it must appear, that the fences were erected with that intent, and not for a different purpose, such as the inclosure and protection of other lands of the party; of which the Jury are to judge.[2] So, if the owner of a parcel of land should, through inadvertency, or ignorance of the dividing line, include a part of the adjoining tract within his inclosure, it is no disseisin of the true owner.[3]

§ 558. The evidence of disseisin may be *rebutted* by proof, that the disseisor had consented to hold under the disseisee; or, that he had abandoned his possession.[4] But a mere mistake of the party in possession, which, as we have just seen, will not constitute a disseisin, will not, for the like reason, amount to proof of an abandonment of his possession.[5]

§ 559. Where the tenant, by the laws of the State, is allowed a compensation for the *lasting improvements* made by him on the land, the evidence is to be directed, not to the amount of his expenditures, but to the present increased value of the premises, by reason of the improvements. And these ordinarily consist of buildings, wells, valuable trees planted by the tenant, durable fences, and other permanent fixtures.

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[1] Little *v.* Megquier, 2 Greenl. 176; Bates *v.* Norcross, 14 Pick. 224.

[2] Dennett *v.* Crocker, 8 Greenl. 239. And see Weston *v.* Reading, 5 Conn. 257, 258.

[3] Brown *v.* Gay, 3 Greenl. 126; Gates *v.* Butler, 3 Humphr. R. 447.

[4] Small *v.* Proctor, 15 Mass. 495.

[5] Ross *v.* Gould, 5 Greenl. 204.

REPLEVIN.

§ 560. This action lies for the recovery, *in specie*, of any personal chattel which has been taken and detained from the owner's possession, together with damages for the detention; unless the taking and detention can be justified or excused, or the right of action is suspended or discharged.[1] It lies at Common Law, not only for goods distrained, but for goods taken and unjustly detained for any other cause whatever; except that where goods are taken by process of law, the party against whom the process issued cannot replevy them; but if the goods of a stranger to the process are taken, he may replevy them from the sheriff.[2]

§ 561. Where the issue raises the question of title, the plaintiff must prove, that at the time of the caption he had the general or a special *property* in the goods taken, and the right of *immediate and exclusive possession*.[3] But a *mere servant*, or a depositary for safe custody, has not such property as will support this action, his possession being that of the master or bailor.[4] It is not always necessary to prove a

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[1] Hammond's Nisi Prius, p. 372.

[2] Gilbert on Replevin, p. 161; Rooke's case, 5 Co. 99; Callis on Sewers, p. 197; Clark *v.* Skinner, 20 Johns. 470. This point is treated ably and with deep research, in 12 Am. Jurist, p. 104 – 117, where the above authorities with others are reviewed. See also Allen *v.* Crary, 10 Wend. 349; Seaver *v.* Dingley, 4 Greenl. 306. In New York, the right of a stranger to replevy goods taken by the sheriff, is limited to goods not in the actual possession of the judgment debtor at the time of the taking. Thompson *v.* Button, 14 Johns. 84; Judd *v.* Fox, 9 Cowen, R. 259.

[3] Co. Lit. 145 *b*; Gordon *v.* Harper, 7 T. R. 9; Gates *v.* Gates, 15 Mass. 310; Collins *v.* Evans, 15 Pick. 63; Rogers *v.* Arnold, 12 Wend. 30; Wheeler *v.* Train, 4 Pick. 168; Smith *v.* Williamson, 1 Har. & J. 147; Ingraham *v.* Martin, 3 Shepl. 373.

[4] Templeman *v.* Case, 10 Mod. 25; Waterman *v.* Robinson, 5 Mass.

taking of the goods, since the action may be maintained against a bailee, by proof of an unlawful *detention*.[1] But when a taking is to be shown, it must be an *actual taking*. Thus, it has been held, that merely entering at the custom-house, by the agent of the owners, goods already in the public stores, and paying the duties thereon, without any actual removal, but taking a permit for their delivery on payment of storage, is not such a taking as will support an action of replevin against the agent.[2] So, this action cannot be maintained against a sheriff, who has made an attachment of the plaintiff's goods, but has left them in the custody of the plaintiff as his bailee, without any actual taking and removal of them.[3]

§ 562. The general issue in this action is *non cepit*, which admits the plaintiff's title, and under which it is incumbent on the plaintiff to prove, that the defendant had the goods, in the place mentioned in the declaration; for the action being local, the place is material and traversable.[4] Proof of the original taking in that place is not necessary, for the wrongful taking is continued in every place in which the goods are afterwards detained.[5] But under this issue, the defendant cannot have a return of the goods; if found for him, it merely protects him from damages. If he would

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303; Ludden *v.* Leavitt, 9 Mass. 104; Warren *v.* Leland, Ibid. 265; Dunham *v.* Wyckoff, 2 Wend. 280; Miller *v.* Adsit, 16 Wend. 335.

[1] F. N. B. [69] G.; Badger *v.* Phinney, 15 Mass. 359, 362, per Putnam, J.; Shannon *v.* Shannon, 1 Sch. & Lefr. 327, per Ld. Redesdale; Baker *v.* Fales, 16 Mass. 147; Ilsley *v.* Stubbs, 5 Mass. 284; Seaver *v.* Dingley, 4 Greenl. 306; Galvin *v.* Bacon, 2 Fairf. 28.

[2] Whitwell *v.* Wells, 24 Pick. 25.

[3] Lathrop *v.* Cook, 2 Shepl. 414.

[4] Weston *v.* Carter, 1 Sid. 10; 1 Saund. 347, n. (1), by Williams; McKinley *v.* McGregor, 3 Whart. 369.

[5] Walton *v.* Kersop, 2 Wils. 354; Bull. N. P. 54; 1 Saund. 347 *a*, note by Williams; Johnson *v.* Wollyer, 1 Stra. 507; Abercrombie *v.* Parkhurst, 2 B. & P. 480.

defend on the ground that he never had the goods in the place mentioned, he should plead *cepit in alio loco*, which is a good plea in bar of the action.[1] This plea does not admit the taking as laid in the declaration; and therefore the plaintiff must prove such taking, or fail to recover.[2]

§ 563. If the defendant, besides the plea of *non cepit*, also pleads *property*, either in himself or a stranger, and traverses the right of the plaintiff, which he may do, with an avowry of the taking, the material inquiry is as to the property of the plaintiff, which he must be prepared to prove; for if the former issue is found for him, but the latter is either not found at all, or is found for the defendant, the plaintiff cannot have judgment.[3]

§ 564. An *avowry* or *cognizance* of the taking is ordinarily necessary, whenever the defendant would obtain judgment for a return of the goods, thereby making himself an actor in the suit, and obliging himself to make out a good title in all respects. Where the avowry or cognizance is for rent, it admits, that the property in the goods was in the plaintiff; but the terms of the contract or tenancy must be precisely stated, and proved as laid, or the variance will be fatal.[4] But it is not necessary to prove, that all the rent was due which is alleged; for an allegation of two years' rent in arrear will be supported by proof of one only; the substance

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[1] Ibid.; Bullythorpe *v.* Turner, Willes, R. 475; Anon. 2 Mod. 199; Williams *v.* Welch, 5 Wend. 290; Prosser *v.* Woodward, 21 Wend. 205.

[2] The People *v.* Niagara C. P., 2 Wend. 644.

[3] 5 Com. Dig. 757, tit. Pleader, K. 12; Presgrave *v.* Saunders, 1 Salk. 5; Bemus *v.* Beekman, 3 Wend. 667; Sprague *v.* Kneeland, 12 Wend. 161; Rogers *v.* Arnold, Ibid. 30; Boynton *v.* Page, 13 Wend. 425; Clemson *v.* Davidson, 5 Binn. 399; Seibert *v.* McHenry, 6 Watts, 301.

[4] Clarke *v.* Davies, 7 Taunt. 72; Brown *v.* Sayce, 4 Taunt. 320; Phillpot *v.* Dobbinson, 6 Bing. 104; 3 M. & P. 320; Cossey *v.* Diggons, 2 B. & Ald. 546; Davies *v.* Stacey, 12 Ad. & El. 506; Tice *v.* Norton, 4 Wend. 663. See also Jack *v.* Martin, 14 Wend. 507.

of the allegation being, that some rent was in arrear, and not the precise amount.[1]

§ 565. Under the issue of *non demisit*, or *non tenuit*, which is usually pleaded by the plaintiff, to an avowry for rent in arrear, the defendant must prove a demise, an agreement for one being not sufficient; and the demise proved must be precisely the same as that stated in the avowry.[2] But under this plea the plaintiff ordinarily cannot give in evidence anything which amounts to a plea of *nil habuit in tenementis;* for as the tenant is not permitted directly to deny the title of his landlord by plea, he shall not be permitted to do it indirectly, by evidence to the same effect under another issue.[3] But where the defendant's title expired before the rent became due, or the plaintiff came in under another title, and had paid rent to the defendant in ignorance of the defect of his title to demand it, or, has been evicted by the lessor, he may show this under the plea of *non tenuit.*[4] Proof of payment of rent to the avowant, is always *primâ facie* evidence, that the title is in him.[5]

§ 566. The plea of *riens in arrear* admits the demise as laid in the avowry, putting in issue only the fact, that nothing is due; if therefore, as has just been stated, the avowant proves that any rent is due, he will be entitled to recover, though he should fail to prove that all is due which

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[1] Forty *v.* Imber, 6 East, 434; Cobb *v.* Bryan, 3 B. & P. 348.

[2] Dunk *v.* Hunter, 5 B. & Ald. 322.

[3] Parry *v.* House, Holt's Cas. 489, and note by the reporter; Alchorne *v.* Gomme, 2 Bing. 54; Cooper *v.* Blandy, 1 Bing. N. C. 45. The rule, that the tenant shall not deny the title of his landlord, applies only where there is a tenancy in fact. Brown *v.* Dean, 3 Wend. 208.

[4] Gravenor *v.* Woodhouse, 1 Bing. 38; England *v.* Slade, 4 T. R. 682; Rogers *v.* Pitcher, 6 Taunt. 209; Fenner *v.* Duplock, 2 Bing. 10; Duggan *v.* O'Connor, 1 Hudson & Brooke, R. 459; Hopcraft *v.* Keys, 9 Bing. 613; Bridges *v.* Smith, 5 Bing. 411.

[5] Johnson *v.* Mason, 1 Esp. R. 90, 91; Knight *v.* Benett, 3 Bing. 361; Mann *v.* Lovejoy, Ry. & M. 355.

is alleged.[1] Under this issue, the plaintiff may prove that he has paid the rent in arrear to one who had a superior title, such as a prior mortgagee of the lessor,[2] or a prior grantee of an annuity or rent charge.[3]

§ 567. The allegation in the cognizance, that the conusor made the distress as *bailiff* to another, is traversable; but it may be proved by evidence of a subsequent assent to the distress, by the person in whose behalf it was made.[4] If it were made by one of several parceners, joint-tenants, or tenants in common, in behalf of all, no other evidence will be necessary, the title itself giving an authority in law to each one, to distrain for all.[5] If the conusor justifies as bailiff of an executor, for rent due to the testator, the plea will be supported by proof of a distress in the name of the testator, and by his previous direction, but made after his death, and afterwards assented to by the executor.[6]

§ 568. Where the avowry is for *damage feasant*, with a plea of title in the defendant to the *locus in quo*, which is traversed, the evidence will be the same as under the like plea of title in an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*. And in general, whatever right is pleaded, the plea must be maintained by proof of as large a right as is alleged. If a larger right be proved, it will not vitiate; but proof of a more limited right will not suffice.[7] And if an absolute right

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[1] Hill *v.* Wright, 2 Esp. R. 669; Cobb *v.* Bryan, 3 B. & P. 348; Bloomer *v.* Juhel, 8 Wend. 449; Harrison *v.* Barnby, 5 T. R. 248.

[2] Johnson *v.* Jones, 9 Ad. & El. 809; Pope *v.* Biggs, 9 B. & C. 245.

[3] Taylor *v.* Zamira, 6 Taunt. 524. And see Stubbs *v.* Parsons, 3 B & Ald. 516; Carter *v.* Carter, 5 Bing. 406; Dyer *v.* Bowley, 2 Bing. 94; Alchorne *v.* Gomme, 2 Bing. 54; Sapsford *v.* Fletcher, 4 T. R. 511.

[4] Lamb *v.* Mills, 4 Mod. 378; Trevilian *v.* Pine, 11 Mod. 112; 1 Saund. 347 *c*, note (4), by Williams.

[5] Leigh *v.* Shepherd, 2 B. & B. 465.

[6] Whitehead *v.* Taylor, 10 Ad. & El. 210.

[7] Bull. N. P. 59, 60; Ante, tit. PRESCRIPTION, § 544; Johnson *v.* Thor-

is pleaded, and the right proved is coupled with a condition or limitation, the plea is not supported; but evidence of an additional right, founded on another and subsequent consideration, will not defeat the plea.[1] If issue is taken on the averment, that the cattle distrained were levant and couchant, and the evidence is, that only part of them were so, the averment is not proved.[2]

§ 569. A *tender*, whether of rent, or of amends for damage by cattle, if made before the taking, renders the distress unlawful; and if made after the distress, but before impounding, it renders the detention unlawful.[3] But it must appear, that the tender, if not made to the party himself, was made to a person entitled to receive the money in his behalf; for if it was made to one who was not his receiver, but only his bailiff to make the distress, or, to his receiver's agent, it is not sufficient.[4] And a tender, even to a receiver, is bad, if the principal be present, for in such case it should have been made to the principal.[5]

§ 570. The party, under whom the defendant makes cognizance as bailiff, is not a *competent witness* for the defendant, for he comes in support of his own title.[6] But he is competent to testify for the plaintiff; and therefore the plaintiff cannot give in evidence his declarations.[7] And if distinct cognizances are made for the same goods, under

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oughgood, Hob. 64; Bushwood *v.* Pond, Cro. El. 722; Bailiffs of Tewksbury *v.* Bricknell, 1 Taunt. 142.

[1] Bull. N. P. 59; Gray's case, 5 Co. 79; Cro. El. 405, S. C.; Lovelace *v.* Reynolds, Cro. El. 546; Brook *v.* Willett, 2 H. Bl. 224.

[2] Bull. N. P. 299; 2 Roll. Abr. 706, pl. 41; 1 Saund. 346 *d*, note by Williams.

[3] The Six Carpenters' case, 8 Co. 146; Pilkington's case, 5 Co. 76.

[4] Pilkington's case, 5 Co. 76; Pimm *v.* Grevill, 6 Esp. R. 95; Browne *v.* Powell, 4 Bing. 230.

[5] Gilbert on Replevins, p. 63; Pilkington *v.* Hastings, Cro. El. 813.

[6] Golding *v.* Nias, 5 Esp. R. 272; Upton *v.* Curtis, 1 Bing. 210.

[7] Hart *v.* Horn, 2 Campb. 92.

different parties, not connected in interest, but one of the cognizances is abandoned at the trial, the party under whom it was made is thereby rendered a stranger to the suit, and therefore a competent witness.[1] A commoner, who claims by the same custom as the plaintiff, is not a competent witness in support of the custom; but where the plaintiff claims by prescription, a person claiming under a like prescription is still competent to testify for the plaintiff; for his interest at most is in the question only, and not in the subject-matter or event of the suit.[2]

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[1] King *v.* Baker, 2 Ad. & El. 333.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 389, 405.

SEDUCTION.

§ 571. In an action for seduction, the plaintiff must be prepared to prove, (1.) that the person seduced was his servant; and (2.) the fact of seduction; both these points being put in issue by the plea of not guilty.[1]

§ 572. (1.) Though the relation of *servant* to the plaintiff is indispensable to the maintenance of this action, yet it is not necessary to prove an express contract of service;[2] nor

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[1] Holloway *v.* Abell, 7 C. & P. 528. It has been disputed, whether this action should be in the form of trespass, or case; but it is now settled, that it may well be brought in either form. Chamberlain *v.* Hazlewood, 5 M. & W. 515; 3 Jur. 1079; 7 Dowl. P. C. 816, S. C.; Parker *v.* Bailey, 4 D. & R. 215. See Ante, tit. Case, § 226; Moran *v.* Dawes, 4 Cowen, R. 412; Parker *v.* Elliott, 6 Munf. 587.

The form of the declaration in Case is as follows: — "For that the said (defendant) on —— and on divers days and times after that day and before the commencement of this suit, debauched and carnally knew one E. F. she then being the [daughter and] servant of the plaintiff; whereby the said E. F. became sick and pregnant with child, and so continued for a long time, to wit, until the ——— day of ——— when she was delivered of the child of which she was so pregnant; by means of all which the said E. F. was unable to perform the business of the plaintiff, being her [father and] master aforesaid, from the day first aforesaid hitherto, and the plaintiff has wholly lost her service, and been put to great expenses for her delivery, cure and nursing. To the damage," &c.

The form in Trespass is thus: — "For that the said [defendant] on —— and on divers days and times after that day and before the commencement of this suit, with force and arms assaulted one E. F. she then being the [daughter and] servant of the plaintiff, and then debauched and carnally knew the said E. F. whereby [here proceed as in the preceding form, to the end, concluding thus,] and other wrongs to the plaintiff the said [defendant] then and there did, against the peace. To the damage," &c.

Where the injury was done in the house of the father or master, the remedy may be pursued in trespass *quare clausum fregit*, the seduction being laid in aggravation of the wrong. 1 Chitty on Plead. 128.

[2] Bennett *v.* Alcott, 2 T. R. 166.

is the amount or value of the service actually performed of any importance, if the plaintiff had the right to command the immediate service, or personal attendance of the party, at the time of the seduction.[1] If this right existed, it is not material whether the servant was seduced while at home, or abroad on a visit. Nor is it material whether the servant was a minor, or of full age; nor whether the relation of master and servant still continues, it being sufficient if it existed when the act of seduction was committed.[2] Neither does the concurrent existence of any other relation, such as that of parent or other relative, affect the action; for such relation will not aid to support the action, if the party seduced was actually emancipated and free from the control of the plaintiff when the injury was committed.[3]

§ 573. It has accordingly been held, that this part of the issue is maintained by evidence, that the party seduced was the adopted child of the plaintiff,[4] or his niece,[5] or his daughter,[6] as well as where she was merely his hired servant,[7] it also appearing, that she was actually subject to his commands, and was bound to perform such offices of service or of kindness and duty as were usually performed by persons in that relation, and in similar rank in society. So it is held sufficient, if any acts of service or of duty are performed, though the party were a married woman, separated from her husband, and had returned to live with the plaintiff, who is her father.[8] The smallest degree of service will suffice, such

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[1] Maunder *v.* Venn, 1 M. & Malk. 323.

[2] Though the father turned the daughter out of doors, upon discovery of her pregnancy, he may still maintain this action. 3 Steph. N. P. 2353.

[3] 2 Selw. N. P. 1103, 1104, (10th ed.); 3 Steph. N. P. 2351-2353.

[4] Irwin *v.* Dearman, 11 East, 23.

[5] Edmondson *v.* Machell, 2 T. R. 4; Manvell *v.* Thompson, 2 C. & P. 303.

[6] 2 Selw. N. P. 1103; Bennett *v.* Alcott, 2 T. R. 166.

[7] Fores *v.* Wilson, 1 Peake, R. 55.

[8] Harper *v.* Luffkin, 7 B. & C. 387.

as presiding at the tea-table,[1] even though she slept in another house, or was absent on a visit, if she was still under the plaintiff's control.[2] But if she was not in his service in any of these modes, the father cannot maintain this action, though he received part of her wages, and she was under age.[3] If the defendant himself hired her as his own servant, with the fraudulent intent to obtain possession of her person and seduce her, this is no bar to the father's action, though she was of full age; provided she was in her father's family at the time of the hiring; for in such case, the hiring being fraudulent, the relation of master and servant was never contracted between them.[4]

§ 574. On the other hand, it has been decided, that where the daughter was in the domestic service of another person at the time of the injury, though with the intent to return to her father's house as soon as she should quit that service, unless she should go into another, the action cannot be maintained.[5] Much less can it be maintained, where she had no such intention of returning.[6]

§ 575. Though the slightest proof of the relation of master and servant will suffice, yet as the action is founded upon that relation, it must be shown to have existed at the time.

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[1] Carr *v.* Clarke, 2 Chitty, R. 261, per Abbott, C. J.; Blaymire *v.* Hayley, 6 M. & W. 56; Manvell *v.* Thompson, 2 C. & P. 304.

[2] Mann *v.* Barrett, 6 Esp. R. 32; Holloway *v.* Abell, 7 C. & P. 528. And see Anon. 1 Smith, R. 333; Harris *v.* Butler, 2 M. & W. 542; Martin *v.* Payne, 9 Johns. 387; Moran *v.* Dawes, 4 Cowen, R. 412; Nickleson *v.* Stryker, 10 Johns. 115; Hornketh *v.* Barr, 8 S. & R. 36.

[3] Carr *v.* Clarke, 2 Chitty, R. 260; Postlethwaite *v.* Parkes, 3 Burr. 1878.

[4] Speight *v.* Oliviera, 2 Stark. R. 493.

[5] Blaymire *v.* Hayley, 6 M. & W. 55. And see Postlethwaite *v.* Parkes, 3 Burr. 1878.

[6] Dean *v.* Peel, 5 East, 45; Anon. 1 Smith, 333

Therefore it has been held, that where the seduction took place in the lifetime of the father, the action could not be maintained by the mother, after his decease, though the expenses of the daughter's confinement fell upon the mother.[1] Nor can the mother maintain the action in any case, without proof of service.[2]

§ 576. Where the daughter was a minor, and under the father's control, proof of this alone will suffice to maintain this part of the issue, service in that case being presumed; but where she was of full age, the plaintiff ought to be provided with some additional evidence of service in fact, though, as has already been stated, slight evidence will suffice.[3]

§ 577. (2.) The *fact of seduction* may be proved by the testimony of the person herself; but it is not necessary to produce her, though the withholding of her is open to observation.[4] Her general character for chastity is considered to be involved in the issue, and may therefore be impeached by the defendant by general evidence, and supported by the plaintiff in the like manner; but she cannot be asked, whether she had not been previously criminal with other men.[5] But though the defendant cannot interrogate the party herself as to acts of unchastity with others, yet he may call those other persons to testify to their own criminal intercourse

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[1] Logan *v.* Murray, 6 S. & R. 175. But see Coon *v.* Moffet, 2 Penningt. 583.

[2] Satterthwaite *v.* Dewhurst, 4 Doug. 315; 5 East, 47, n.

[3] Nickleson *v.* Stryker, 10 Johns. 115; Martin *v.* Payne, 9 Johns. 387; Hornketh *v.* Barr, 8 S. & R. 36; Logan *v.* Murray, 6 S. & R. 177; Vanhorn *v.* Freeman, 1 Halst. 322; Mercer *v.* Walmsley, 5 Har. & Johns. 27.

[4] Revill *v.* Satterfit, Holt's Cas. 451; Cock *v.* Wortham, 2 Stra. 1054.

[5] Bamfield *v.* Massey, 1 Campb. 460; Dodd *v.* Norris, 3 Campb. 519; Bate *v.* Hill, 1 C. & P. 100; Ante, Vol. 1, § 54, 458. And see Magrath *v.* Browne, 1 Armstr. & Macartn. 136; Carpenter *v.* Wahl, 11 Ad. & El. 803.

with her, and the time and place; but notwithstanding this evidence, if the jury are satisfied, from the whole evidence, that the defendant was the father of the child, their verdict must be for the plaintiff, though perhaps for diminished damages.[1]

§ 578. In the *defence* of this action, under the general issue, the defendant may not only show, that the person seduced was not the servant of the plaintiff,[2] but he may also prove, in bar of the action, that the plaintiff was guilty of gross misconduct, in permitting the defendant to visit his daughter as a suitor, after he knew that he was a married man, and had received a caution against admitting him into his family, or in otherwise conniving at her criminal intercourse with him.[3]

§ 579. The *damages* in this action are given not only for the loss of service, but also for all that the plaintiff can feel from the nature of the injury. Therefore if the plaintiff is the parent of the seduced, the jury may consider his loss of the comfort as well as the service of the daughter, in whose virtue he can feel no consolation, and his anxiety as the parent of other children, whose morals may be corrupted by her example.[4] The plaintiff may give evidence of the terms on which the defendant visited his house, and that he was paying his addresses upon the promise or with intentions of marriage;[5] and the defendant, on the other hand, may give

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[1] Verry *v.* Watkins, 7 C. & P. 308.

[2] Holloway *v.* Abell, 7 C. & P. 528.

[3] Reddie *v.* Scoolt, 1 Peake, R. 240; Akerley *v.* Haines, 2 Caines, R. 292; Seagar *v.* Sligerland, Ibid. 219.

[4] Bedford *v.* McKowl, 3 Esp. R. 119. And see Tullidge *v.* Wade, 3 Wils. 18; Andrews *v.* Askey, 8 C. & P. 7; Irwin *v.* Dearman, 11 East, 24.

[5] Elliott *v.* Nicklin, 5 Price, 641; Tullidge *v.* Wade, 3 Wils. 18; Capron *v.* Balmond, 3 Steph. N. P. 2356; Watson *v.* Bayless, and Murga-

evidence not only of the loose character and conduct of the daughter, but also, as it seems, of the profligate principles and dissolute habits of the plaintiff himself.[1]

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troyd *v.* Murgatroyd, cited 2 Stark. on Evid. 722, note (*t*). But see Dodd *v.* Norris, 3 Campb. 519, contra.

[1] Dodd *v.* Norris, 3 Campb. 519.

SHERIFF.

§ 580. The law of evidence in actions against any officers, for misconduct in regard to civil process in their hands for service, will be treated under this head; the sheriff being the officer principally concerned in that duty. He is identified, in contemplation of law, with all his under officers, and is directly responsible, in the first instance, for all their acts, done in the execution of process.[1]

§ 581. Actions against sheriffs are either for non-feasance, or mere omission of duty; such as, (1.) not serving process; (2.) taking insufficient pledges or bail; (3.) not paying over money levied and collected; or, for misfeasance, or improperly doing a lawful act; such as, (4.) suffering the party arrested to escape; (5.) making a false return; or, for malfeasance, or doing an unlawful act, under color of process; such as, (6.) extortion; (7.) seizing the goods of one who is a stranger to the process. These will be considered briefly, in their order.

§ 582. Where the action for any of these causes is founded on the misconduct of an *inferior officer*, acting under the sheriff, his *connexion with the sheriff* must be proved. If he is an under-sheriff or deputy, recognized by statute as a public officer, it will be sufficient, *primâ facie*, to show that

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[1] Saunderson *v.* Baker, 2 W. Bl. 832; Jones *v.* Perchard, 2 Esp. R. 507; Smart *v.* Hutton, 2 N. & M. 426; 8 Ad. & El. 568, n., S. C.; Anon. Lofft, R. 81; Ackworth *v.* Kempe, 1 Doug. 40; Woodman *v.* Gist, 8 C. & P. 213; Watson *v.* Todd, 5 Mass. 271; Draper *v.* Arnold, 12 Mass. 449; Knowlton *v.* Bartlett, 1 Pick. 271; The People *v.* Dunning, 1 Wend. 16; Gorham *v.* Gale, 7 Cowen, R. 739; Walden *v.* Davison, 15 Wend. 575; M'Intyre *v.* Trumbull, 7 Johns. 35; Grinnell *v.* Phillips, 1 Mass. 530.

he has acted publicly and notoriously in that character.[1] But if he is only a private agent or servant of the sheriff, other evidence is necessary. In these cases, a warrant is delivered to the bailiff, authorizing him to serve the process in question; and as this is the most satisfactory evidence of his appointment, it is expedient to produce it, or to establish its loss, so as to admit secondary evidence of its existence and contents.[2] A paper, purporting to be a copy of the warrant left with the debtor by the bailiff, is not sufficient, it being the mere act of the bailiff, and of the nature of hearsay; nor will it suffice to produce a general bond of indemnity, given by the bailiff to the sheriff; for this does not make him the sheriff's general officer, but is only to cover each distinct liability that he may come under, in regard to every several warrant.[3] But any subsequent act of recognition of the bailiff's authority, by the sheriff, such as returning the process served by the bailiff, or giving instructions for that purpose, is admissible to establish the agency of the bailiff.[4] The bailiff himself is a competent witness to prove the warrant under which he acted; but it will seldom be expedient for the plaintiff to call him, as he will be liable to cross-examination by the defendant, in a cause which is virtually his own.[5]

§ 583. It may also here be stated, that the *admissions* of

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 83, 92. If the allegation is, that the defendant was sheriff on the day of delivery of the writ to him, and until the return day thereof, proof of the former averment is sufficient, the latter being immaterial. Jervis *v.* Sidney, 3 D. & R. 483.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 559 – 563, 574, 575, 84, n.

[3] Drake *v.* Sykes, 7 T. R. 113, as explained in Martin *v.* Bell, 1 Stark. R. 413.

[4] Martin *v.* Bell, 1 Stark. R. 413; Saunderson *v.* Baker, 3 Wils. 309; 2 W. Bl. 832; Jones *v.* Wood, 3 Campb. 228. The return of a person styling himself deputy-sheriff, is not of itself sufficient evidence against the sheriff, of the deputy's appointment. Slaughter *v.* Barnes, 3 A. K. Marsh. 413.

[5] Morgan *v.* Brydges, 2 Stark. R. 314. And see Ante, Vol. 1, § 445.

an under-sheriff, or deputy, tending to charge himself, are receivable in evidence against the sheriff, wherever the under-officer is bound by the record; and he is thus bound, and the record is conclusive evidence against him, both of the facts which it recites, and of the amount of damages, wherever he is liable over to the sheriff, and has been duly notified of the pendency of the action, and required to defend it.[1] This principle applies to all declarations of the under-officer, without regard to the time of making them. But in other cases, where the record is not evidence against the under-officer, his declarations seem to be admissible against the sheriff, only when they accompanied the act which he was then doing in his character of the sheriff's agent, and as part of the *res gestæ*,[2] or while the process was in his hands for service.[3] Upon the same general principle of identity in interest, the declarations of the creditor, who has indemnified the sheriff, are admissible in evidence against the latter in an action by a stranger for taking his goods.[4]

§ 584. (1.) Where the action is against the sheriff for *not serving mesne process*, it is incumbent on the plaintiff to prove the *cause of action;* for which purpose any evidence is competent, which would be admissible in the suit against the debtor.[5] Hence, the acknowledgment of the debtor, that the debt is justly due, is admissible against the sheriff.[6]

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 180, and note 8.

[2] Ibid. See also Vol. 1, § 113, 114; Bowsher *v.* Calley, 1 Campb. 391, n.; North *v.* Miles, Ibid. 389; Snowball *v.* Goodricke, 4 B. & Ad. 541.

[3] Jacobs *v.* Humphrey, 2 C. & M. 413; 4 Tyrw. 272, S. C.; Mott *v.* Kip, 10 Johns. 478; Mantz *v.* Collins, 4 H. & McHen. 216.

[4] Proctor *v.* Lainson, 7 C. & P. 629.

[5] Gunter *v.* Cleyton, 2 Lev. 85, approved in Alexander *v.* Macauley, 4 T. R. 611; Parker *v.* Fenn, 2 Esp. R. 477, note; Sloman *v.* Herne, Ibid. 695; Riggs *v.* Thatcher, 1 Greenl. 68.

[6] Gibbon *v.* Coggon, 2 Campb. 188; Williams *v.* Bridges, 2 Stark. R. 42; Sloman *v.* Herne, 2 Esp. R. 695; Kempland *v.* Macauley, 4 T. R. 436; Dyke *v.* Aldridge, 7 T. R. 665.

The plaintiff must also prove the *issuing of process*, and the *delivery* of it to the officer. If the process has been returned, the regular proof is by a copy; if not, its existence must be established by secondary evidence; and if it is traced to the officer's hands, he should be served with notice to produce it.[1] And here, and in all other cases, where the issuing of process is alleged, the allegation must be precisely proved, or the variance will be fatal.[2] Some evidence must also be given of the officer's *ability to execute* the process; such as, that he knew, or ought to have known, that the person against whom he held a *capias* was within his precinct; or, that goods, which he might and ought to have attached, were in the debtor's possession.[3] The averment of *neglect* of official duty, though negative, it seems ought to be supported by some proof on the part of the plaintiff, since a breach of duty is not presumed; but from the nature of the case, very slight evidence will be sufficient to devolve on the defendant the burden of proving, that his duty has been performed.[4] The *damages* will at least be nominal, wherever any breach of duty is shown; and may be increased, according to the evidence.[5]

§ 585. In *defence* of actions of this description, where the suit is for neglecting to attach or seize goods, the sheriff may show, that there were reasonable doubts as to the ownership

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 521, 560.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 63, 64, 70, 73; Phillipson *v.* Mangles, 11 East, 516; Bevan *v.* Jones, 4 B. & C. 403; Bromfield *v.* Jones, Ibid. 380; Webb *v.* Herne, 1 B. & P. 281. See further, Stoddart *v.* Palmer, 4 D. & R. 624; 3 B. & C. 2; Lewis *v.* Alcock, 6 Dowl. P. C. 78.

[3] Beckford *v.* Montague, 2 Esp. R. 475; Frost *v.* Dougal, 1 Day, R. 128.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 78 – 81.

[5] Baker *v.* Green, 2 Bing. 317. If the deputy-sheriff undertakes to receive the amount of the debt and costs, on mesne process, and stay the service of the writ, the sheriff is liable forthwith for the amount received, without any previous demand. Green *v.* Lowell, 3 Greenl. 373.

of the goods, and that the plaintiff refused to give him an indemnity for taking them;[1] or, that they did not belong to the debtor.[2] And where the neglect was in not serving a writ of execution, he may impeach the plaintiff's judgment by showing that it is founded in fraud;[3] first proving that he represents a judgment-creditor of the same debtor, by a legal precept in his hands.[4] He may also show, in defence of such action, that there were attachments on the same goods prior to that of the plaintiff, for which he stood liable to the attaching creditors, whose liens still existed, and that these would absorb the entire value of the goods.[5]

§ 586. (2.) As to the action for *taking insufficient pledges or bail.* Here also, though the allegation of the insufficiency of the sureties is negative in its terms, yet some evidence to support it must be produced by the plaintiff, though slight proof will suffice, the fact of their sufficiency being best known to the defendant, who took them;[6] and it is a legal maxim, that all evidence is to be weighed according to the proof which it is in the power of one side to produce, and in the power of the other to contradict.[7] To establish the fact of the insufficiency of sureties, it is admissible to prove, that they have been pressed for payment of their debts by the importunity of creditors, and have violated their repeated promises to pay.[8] It is not necessary for the plaintiff to aver and prove, that the sheriff knew the sureties to be insufficient; it is enough *primâ facie* to charge him, if it appears

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[1] Marsh *v.* Gold, 2 Pick. 285; Bond *v.* Ward, 7 Mass. 123; Perley *v.* Foster, 9 Mass. 112.

[2] Canada *v.* Southwick, 16 Pick. 556.

[3] Pierce *v.* Jackson, 6 Mass. 242. But he cannot impeach it on any other ground. Adams *v.* Balch, 5 Greenl. 188.

[4] Clark *v.* Foxcroft, 6 Greenl. 296. See *post*, § 593.

[5] Commercial Bank *v.* Wilkins, 9 Greenl. 28.

[6] Saunders *v.* Darling, Bull. N. P. 60.

[7] Per Ld. Mansfield, Cowp. 65.

[8] Gwyllim *v.* Scholey, 6 Esp. R. 100.

that they were in fact so at the time when he accepted them.[1] This liability the sheriff may avoid, by showing that they were at that time apparently responsible, and in good credit; or, that he exercised a reasonable and sound discretion in deciding upon their sufficiency; of which the Jury are to judge.[2] But their own statement to the sheriff as to their responsibility is not enough; though they are competent witnesses for him on the trial.[3] On the other hand, the plaintiff may show, that the sheriff had notice of their insufficiency, or did not act with due caution, under the circumstances of the case; or, that their pecuniary credit was low, in their own neighborhood.[4] And it is not necessary for the plaintiff to show, that he has taken any steps against the bail, in order to establish their insufficiency, as the fact may be proved by any other competent evidence.[5]

§ 587. (3.) As to the action for *not paying over money*

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[1] Concanen *v.* Lethbridge, 2 H. Bl. 36; Evans *v.* Brander, Ibid. 547; Yea *v.* Lethbridge, 4 T. R. 433; Sparhawk *v.* Bartlett, 2 Mass. 188. If the officer accepts a forged bail bond, he is liable to the plaintiff, though he believed it to be genuine. Marsh *v.* Bancroft, 1 Met. 497.

[2] Hindle *v.* Blades, 5 Taunt. 225; Jeffery *v.* Bastard, 4 Ad. & El. 823; Sutton *v.* Waite, 8 Moore, 27.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Scott *v.* Waithman, 3 Stark. R. 168. Bail is still regulated by the Statute 23 Hen. 6, c. 10, which has always been recognized in the United States as Common Law. The first branch of this statute, for it consists of only one section, requires the sheriffs to "let out of prison all manner of persons arrested, or being in their custody, by force of any writ, bill, or warrant, in any action personal, or by cause of indictment of trespass, upon reasonable sureties of sufficient persons having sufficient within the counties where such persons be so let to bail or mainprise," &c. This clause was introduced for the benefit of the sheriff; and therefore though he may insist upon two sureties, yet he may admit to bail upon a bond with one surety only. 2 Saund. 61 *d*, note (5), by Williams. But where he takes but one surety, the sheriff is responsible for his solvency, at all events. Long *v.* Billings, 9 Mass. 479; Rice *v.* Hosmer, 12 Mass. 129, 130; Glezen *v.* Rood, 2 Met. 490; Sparhawk *v.* Bartlett, 2 Mass. 194.

[5] Young *v.* Hosmer, 11 Mass. 89.

levied and collected. The money in this case, as soon as it comes into the officer's hands, is money had and received to the creditor's use; and where the precept does not otherwise direct him, he is bound to pay it over to the creditor on the return day of the process under which it was levied, without any demand, and earlier if demanded; upon failure of which an action lies.[1] The evidence on the part of the plaintiff consists of proof of the receipt of the money by the officer, and, where a demand is requisite, that it has been demanded. The most satisfactory proof of the receipt of the money is the officer's return on the writ of execution; which is shown by an examined copy, if the precept has been returned, and by secondary evidence, if it has not. The return is conclusive evidence against the sheriff, that he has received the money; but it does not prove, nor will it be presumed, that the money has been paid over to the creditor.[2] If the money was levied by an under officer or bailiff, his connexion with the sheriff must be established by farther evidence, as already has been stated.[3]

§ 588. In the *defence* of an action for this cause, the sheriff may show that the goods, out of which he made the money, were not the property of the judgment-debtor, but of a stranger to whom he is liable; or, that the judgment-debtor had become bankrupt, and that the money belonged to his assignees; and this, notwithstanding his return, that he had levied on the goods of the debtor.[4] He may also show, that the plaintiff had directed him to apply the money to

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[1] Dale *v.* Birch, 3 Campb. 347; Wilder *v.* Bailey, 3 Mass. 294, 295; Rogers *v.* Sumner, 10 Pick. 387; Longdill *v.* Jones, 1 Stark. R. 345. And see Morland *v.* Pellatt, 8 B. & C. 722, 725, 726, per Bayley, J.; Green *v.* Lowell, 3 Greenl. 373.

[2] Cator *v.* Stokes, 1 M. & S. 599.

[3] Ante, § 582; Wilson *v.* Norman, 1 Esp. R. 154; McNeil *v.* Perchard, Ibid. 263.

[4] Brydges *v.* Walford, 6 M. & S. 42; 1 Stark. R. 389, n.

another purpose, which he had accordingly done;[1] or, that it was absorbed in the expenses of keeping the goods.[2] The amount due to him for his collection fees or poundage is to be deducted from the gross amount in his hands.[3]

§ 589. (4.) In an action against the sheriff for an *escape*, the plaintiff must prove, first, his character of creditor; secondly, the delivery of the process to the officer; thirdly, the arrest; fourthly, the escape; and lastly, the damages or debt. If the escape was from an arrest upon *execution*, the plaintiff's *character of creditor* is proved by a copy of the judgment; and if the action is brought in *debt*, the plaintiff, by the Common Law, is entitled to recover the amount of the judgment, at all events, and without deduction, or regard to the circumstances of the debtor.[4] But where the action is brought in trespass on the case, as it must be where the arrest was upon *mesne process*, and it may be where the arrest was upon execution, the plaintiff must prove his debt, or cause of action, in the manner we have already stated, in actions for not serving process.[5] The *process* must be proved precisely as alleged, a material variance being fatal.[6] The *delivery* of the process to the officer will be proved by his return, if it has been returned; or by any other competent evidence, if it has not. The return of *cepi corpus* will be conclusive evidence of the *arrest;* and if there has been no return, the fact of arrest may be

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[1] Comm'rs *v.* Allen, 2 Rep. Const. Court S. Car. 88.

[2] Twombly *v.* Hunewell, 2 Greenl. 221.

[3] Longdill *v.* Jones, 1 Stark. R. 346.

[4] Hawkins *v.* Plomer, 2 W. Bl. 1048; Porter *v.* Sayward, 7 Mass. 277. The Common Law has been altered in this particular, in some of the United States, by statutes, which provide, that in an action of debt for an escape, the plaintiff shall recover no more than such actual damage as he may prove that he has sustained.

[5] Ante, § 584.

[6] Ante, § 584, Vol. 1, § 63, 64, 70, 73; Phillipson *v.* Mangles, 11 East, 516; Bromfield *v.* Jones, 4 B. & C. 380.

proved *aliunde*, and by parol.[1] The *escape* of the debtor is proved by any evidence, that he was seen at large after the arrest, for any time, however short, and even before the return of the writ.[2] The difficulty of defining the going at large, which constitutes an escape, has been felt and acknowledged by Judges.[3] Mr. Justice Buller said, that wherever the prisoner in execution is in a different custody from that which is likely to enforce payment of the debt, it is an escape;[4] which he illustrated by the case of a prisoner permitted to go to a horse-race, attended by a bailiff. And where a coroner having an execution against a deputy gaoler, arrested him, and left him in the gaol-house, neither the sheriff nor any other authorized person being there to receive him, it was held an escape in the sheriff; upon the principle, as laid down by Parsons, C. J., that every liberty given to a prisoner, not authorized by law, is an escape.[5] If the liberty was given through mistake, it seems it is still an escape;[6] but if he be taken from prison through necessity, and without his own agency, in case of sudden sickness, or go out for the preservation of life from danger by fire, and return as soon as he is able, it is not an escape.[7]

The damages in this case will hereafter be considered.

§ 590. The party escaping is a *competent witness* for either party, in an action for a voluntary escape, for he stands indifferent; but where the action is for a negligent escape, he is not a competent witness for the defendant, to disprove the

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[1] Fairlie *v.* Birch, 3 Campb. 397.

[2] Hawkins *v.* Plomer, 2 W. Bl. 1048; 3 Com. Dig. 642–646, tit. Escape, C. D.

[3] Per Eyre, C. J., 1 B. & P. 27.

[4] Benton *v.* Sutton, 1 B. & P. 24, 27.

[5] Colby *v.* Sampson, 5 Mass. 310, 312, per Parsons, C. J.

[6] See Call *v.* Hagger, 8 Mass. 429.

[7] Baxter *v.* Taber, 4 Mass. 361, 369; Cargill *v.* Taylor, 10 Mass. 207; 1 Roll. Abr. 808, pl. 5, 6.

escape, because he is liable over to the sheriff.[1] But though the count is for a voluntary escape, yet under it evidence of a negligent escape is admissible, for the substance of the issue is the escape, and not the manner.[2]

§ 591. In *defence* of the action for an escape, the sheriff will not be permitted to show, that the process was irregularly issued; nor, that the judgment was erroneous; nor, that the plaintiff knew of the escape, yet proceeded in his action to judgment, and had not charged the debtor in execution, though he had returned to the prison;[3] nor, that the plaintiff had arrested the debtor upon a second writ, by another sheriff, and had discharged him without bail.[4] But under the general issue, he may show that the Court from which the process was issued had no jurisdiction of the matter, and that therefore the process was void.[5] He may also show, that before the expiration of the term in which the writ was returnable, but not afterwards, the debtor did put in and perfect bail, or that he had put in bail, and seasonably rendered himself in their discharge, though no bond was taken;[6] or that the prisoner, while going to gaol on mesne process, was rescued; but not if he was taken in execution.[7] So he may show, that the escape was by fraud and covin of the plaintiff in interest.[8] If he pleads that there was no escape, this is an admission of the arrest as alleged.[9]

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[1] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 394, 404; Cass *v.* Cameron, 1 Peake, R. 124; Hunter *v.* King, 4 B. & Ald. 210; Sheriffs of Norwich *v.* Bradshaw, Cro. El. 53; Eyles *v.* Faikney, 1 Peake, R. 143, n.

[2] Bovey's case, 1 Ventr. 211, 217; Bonafous *v.* Walker, 2 T. R. 126.

[3] Bull. N. P. 66, 69.

[4] Woodman *v.* Gist, 2 Jur. 942.

[5] Bull. N. P. 65, 66.

[6] Pariente *v.* Plumtree, 2 B. & P. 35; Moses *v.* Norris, 4 M. & S. 397.

[7] May *v.* Proby, Cro. Jac. 419; 1 Stra. 435; Bull. N. P. 68.

[8] Hiscocks *v.* Jones, 1 M. & Malk. 269. See also Doe *v.* Trye, 5 Bing. N. C. 573.

[9] Bull. N. P. 67.

§ 592. (5.) As to the action for a *false return*. In the case of a false return to *mesne process*, the plaintiff must prove the cause of action,[1] the issuing of the process, and the delivery of it to the officer, in the same manner as has already been shown, in the action for not serving mesne process. If it was a writ of *execution*, he should produce a copy of the judgment, and prove the issuing of the execution; of which the clerk's certificate in the margin of the record is usually received as sufficient evidence. The officer's *return* must, in either case, be shown, and some evidence must be adduced of its falsity; but slight, or *primâ facie* evidence of its falsity will be sufficient to put the sheriff upon proof of the truth of his return; such, for example, as showing the execution-debtor to be in possession of goods and chattels, without proving the property to be in him, when the sheriff is sued for falsely making a return of *nulla bona*.[2] If the sheriff has omitted to seize the goods, in consequence of receiving an indemnity, the controversy being upon the title of the debtor, the plaintiff must be prepared with evidence of the debtor's property. And if the process was against several, and the allegation is, that they had goods which might have been seized, the allegation, being severable, will be supported by proof, that any one of them had such goods.[3]

§ 593. In the *defence* of the action for a false return of *nulla bona* to a writ of execution, the sheriff may show that the plaintiff assented to the return, after being informed of all the circumstances;[4] or, where part of the money only was levied, that the plaintiff accepted that part with intent

[1] See Parker *v.* Fenn, 2 Esp. R. 477, n.

[2] Magne *v.* Seymour, 5 Wend. 309. And see Stubbs *v.* Lainson, 1 M. & W. 728. The judgment-debtor is a competent witness against the sheriff, in an action for a false return of *nulla bona*. Taylor *v.* The Commonwealth, 3 Bibb, R. 356.

[3] Jones *v.* Clayton, 4 M. & S. 349.

[4] Stuart *v.* Whitaker, 2 C. & P. 100.

to waive all further remedy against the sheriff, and with full knowledge of the facts;[1] or, that the plaintiff has lost his priority, by ordering the levy of his execution to be stayed, another writ having been delivered to the sheriff;[2] or, that the first levy, for not returning which the action is brought, was fraudulently made, and so void;[3] or, that the plaintiff's judgment was entered up by fraud and collusion with the debtor, the sheriff first proving that he represents another creditor of the same debtor, by showing a legal precept in his hands.[4] He may also show, that the goods of the debtor were absorbed by a prior execution in his hands; and in such case, the plaintiff may rebut this evidence, by proving that the prior execution was concocted in fraud, and that the sheriff had previous notice thereof, and was required by the plaintiff not to pay over the proceeds to the prior creditor.[5] He may also prove, that the debtor had previously become bankrupt, for which purpose the petitioning creditor is a competent witness to prove his own debt; the commission being otherwise proved.[6] And if the assignees are the real defendants, the plaintiff may give in evidence the petitioning creditor's declarations in disparagement of his claim, though he has not been called as a witness by the defendant.[7]

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[1] Beynon *v.* Garrat, 1 C. & P. 154. Here, the officer levied a part, and returned *nulla bona* as to the residue, and the plaintiff accepted the part levied; which was held to be a waiver of all further claim on the sheriff, the plaintiff *having been previously advised that it would have that effect. Sed quære*, and see Holmes *v.* Clifton, 10 Ad. & El. 673, where it was held, that the mere receipt of the money levied will be no bar to the action.

[2] Smallcomb *v.* Cross, 1 Ld. Raym. 251; Kempland *v.* Macauley, 1 Peake, R. 65.

[3] Bradley *v.* Windham, 1 Wils. 44.

[4] Clark *v.* Foxcroft, 6 Greenl. 296; 7 Greenl. 348. And see Turvil *v.* Tipper, Latch, 222, admitted in Tyler *v.* Duke of Leeds, 2 Stark. R. 218, and in Harrod *v.* Benton, 8 B. & C. 217. See also Pierce *v.* Jackson, 6 Mass. 242; Ante, § 585.

[5] Warmoll *v.* Young, 5 B. & C. 660.

[6] Wright *v.* Lainson, 2 M. & W. 739. And see Brydges *v.* Walford, 6 M. & S. 42.

[7] Dowden *v.* Fowle, 4 Campb. 38.

§ 594. In answer to the defence of *nulla bona*, founded on an alleged sale and assignment of his goods by the debtor, the plaintiff may prove that the assignment or sale was fraudulent.[1] So, if the sheriff defends his return on the ground, that the debtor was an ambassador's domestic servant, the plaintiff, in reply, may show that his appointment was colorable and illegal.[2] Questions of this sort, though extremely embarrassing to the sheriff, the Common Law ordinarily obliges him to determine at his peril; but where there are reasonable doubts as to the property of the debtor in the goods in his possession, or which the sheriff is directed to seize, or in regard to the lawfulness of an arrest, he may refuse to act until he is indemnified by the creditor.[3] By the Common Law, he might also apply to the Court to enlarge the time for making his return, until an indemnity was given.[4] Where he is entitled to an inquisition, to ascertain whether the property in goods seized on execution is in the debtor or not, the finding is not conclusive for him; and in England it has been held inadmissible in his favor, unless upon an issue whether he has acted maliciously;[5] but in the United States, it has been admitted in evidence, and held

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[1] Dewey *v.* Bayntun, 6 East, 257.

[2] Delvalle *v.* Plomer, 3 Campb. 47.

[3] Bond *v.* Ward, 7 Mass. 123; Marsh *v.* Gold, 2 Pick. 285; Perley *v.* Foster, 9 Mass. 112, 114; Pierce *v.* Partridge, 3 Met. 44; King *v.* Bridges, 7 Taunt. 294; Shaw *v.* Tunbridge, 2 W. Bl. 1064.

[4] Watson on Sheriffs, p. 195; Sewell on Sheriffs, p. 285. In England, by the interpleader act, 1 & 2 W. 4, ch. 58, a summary mode is provided for the speedy determination of such questions. In some of the United States, there are statutory provisions for the like purpose, and for the sheriff's protection; but in others, where the Court has no power to enlarge the time of return, it being fixed by statute, it is conceived that the refusal of the party to indemnify the sheriff, in a case of reasonable doubt in regard to the service of process, would afford him a good defence to the action, or, at least, would reduce the damages to a nominal sum.

[5] Latkow *v.* Eamer, 2 H. Bl. 437; Glossop *v.* Poole, 3 M. & S. 175; Farr *v.* Newman, 4 T. R. 633; Sewell on Sheriffs, p. 243; Watson on Sheriffs, p. 198.

conclusive in his favor, in an action by the creditor for a false return of *nulla bona*, where he acted in good faith;[1] though it is no justification, but is only admissible in mitigation of damages, in an action of trespass by the true owner of the goods, for illegally taking them.[2]

§ 595. Where the action is for *refusing to take bail*, it is sufficient for the plaintiff to prove the arrest, the offer of sufficient bail, and the commitment. And it is not for the sheriff to say, that the plaintiff did not tender a bail bond; for it was his own duty to prepare the bond, though the party arrested is liable to pay him for so doing.[3]

§ 596. (6.) The sheriff is also liable to an action for *extortion;* which consists in the unlawful taking, by color of his office, either in money or other valuable thing, of what is not due, or before it is due, or of more than is due. If the money levied is not sufficient to satisfy the plaintiff's claim, the retaining of any part, which ought to have been paid over to the plaintiff, is an indirect receiving and taking from him.[4] In this action, the principal points to be proved by the plaintiff are, (1.) the process; and if it be an execution, he must prove the judgment also, on which it issued, if it is stated, though unnecessarily, in the declaration;[5] (2.) the connexion between the officer and the sheriff who is sued; and (3.) the act of extortion. The evidence to prove the two former of these points has already been considered.[6] The last is made out by any competent evidence of the amount paid, beyond the sum allowed by law.

§ 597. (7.) Where the action against the sheriff is for

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[1] Bayley *v.* Bates, 8 Johns. 185.

[2] Townsend *v.* Phillips, 10 Johns. 98.

[3] Millne *v.* Wood, 5 C. & P. 587.

[4] Buckle *v.* Bewes, 3 B. & C. 688.

[5] Savage *v.* Smith, 2 W. Bl. 1101, explained in 5 T. R. 498.

[6] See Ante, § 582, 584.

taking the goods of the plaintiff, he being a stranger to the process, the controversy is usually upon the validity of the plaintiff's title as derived from the judgment debtor, which is impeached on the ground, that the sale or assignment by the debtor to the plaintiff was fraudulent and void as against creditors. Here, if the plaintiff has never had possession of the goods, so that the sale, whatever it was, is incomplete, for want of delivery, the proof of this fact alone will suffice to defeat the action. But if the transaction was completed in all the forms of law, and is assailable only on the ground of fraud, the sheriff must first entitle himself to impeach it, by showing, that he represents a prior creditor of the debtor; and this is done by any evidence, which would establish this fact in an action by the creditor against the debtor himself, with the additional proof of the process in the sheriff's hands, in favor of that creditor, under which the goods were seized. This evidence has already been considered, in treating of actions for not executing process, and for an escape.[1] It is only necessary here to add, that, when the sheriff justifies under final process, he need not show its return, unless some ulterior proceeding is requisite to complete the justification; for, being final, and executed, the creditor has had the effect of his judgment; but in the case of mesne process, as the object of the writ is to enforce the appearance of the party, and to lay the foundation of further proceedings, the officer will not be permitted to justify under it, after it is returnable, unless he shows that he has fully obeyed it, in making a return.[2] The proofs in regard to fraud are considered as foreign to the design of this work.[3]

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[1] Ante, § 584, 589. And see Martyn *v.* Podger, 5 Burr. 2631, 2633; Lake *v.* Billers, 1 Ld. Raym. 733; Ackworth *v.* Kempe, 1 Doug. 40; Damon *v.* Bryant, 2 Pick. 411; Glasier *v.* Eve, 1 Bing. 209.

[2] Rowland *v.* Veale, Cowp. 18; Cheasley *v.* Barnes, 10 East, 73; Freeman *v.* Bluett, 1 Salk. 410; 1 Ld. Raym. 633, 634; Clark *v.* Foxcroft, 6 Greenl. 296.

[3] See Roberts on Fraudulent Conveyances, p. 542 – 590, 2 Kent, Comm. 532 – 536, where this subject is fully treated.

§ 598. In regard to the *competency of witnesses* for and against the sheriff, in addition to what has already been stated respecting his deputies and the execution creditor,[1] it may here further be observed, that, where the issue is upon a fraudulent conveyance by the judgment debtor, his declarations, made at the time of the conveyance, are admissible as part of the *res gestæ;* and that, where the question is wholly between his own vendee and the attaching creditor, his interest being balanced, he is a competent witness for either party;[2] but where a question remains between him and his vendee, as to the title, he is not a competent witness for the sheriff, to impeach it.[3] A surety is a competent witness for the sheriff, in an action for taking insufficient sureties.[4] The owner of goods, who has forcibly rescued them out of the sheriff's hands, is also a competent witness for the sheriff, in an action for falsely returning *nulla bona* on an execution; for such return precludes the sheriff from maintaining an action against him for the rescue.[5]

§ 599. The *damages* to be recovered in an action against the sheriff will, in general, be commensurate with the extent of the injury. But in debt, for an escape on execution, the measure of damages is the amount of the judgment, without abatement on account of the poverty of the debtor, or any other circumstances.[6] And where the sheriff has falsely re-

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[1] Ante § 583, 593.

[2] Ante, Vol. 1, § 397, 398.

[3] Bland *v.* Ansley, 2 New Rep. 331. In this case, the debtor had sold a house to the plaintiff, but whether he sold the goods in it also, was a matter in dispute between them; and he was therefore held incompetent to testify in favor of his own claim.

[4] 1 Saund. 195 *f*, note by Williams.

[5] Thomas *v.* Pearse, 5 Price, 547.

[6] Hawkins *v.* Plomer, 2 W. Bl. 1048; Alsept *v.* Eyles, 2 H. Bl. 108, 113; Ante, § 589; Bernard *v.* The Commonwealth, 4 Litt. R. 150; Johnson *v.* Lewis, 1 Dana, R. 183; Shewell *v.* Fell, 3 Yeates, R. 17; 4 Yeates, R. 47. Interest, from the date of the writ, may also be computed. Whitehead *v.* Varnum, 14 Pick. 523. In some of the United States, the rule

turned bail, when he took none, and an action is brought against him for refusing to deliver over the bail bond to the creditor, he is liable for the whole amount of the judgment, and cannot show, in mitigation of damages, that the debtor was unable to pay any part of the debt; for this would be no defence for the bail themselves, and the sheriff, by his false return, has placed himself in their situation.[1] But in other cases, though the judgment recovered by the plaintiff against the debtor is *primâ facie* evidence of the extent of the injury, which the plaintiff has sustained by the officer's breach of duty in regard to the service and return of the process, yet it is competent for the officer to prove, in mitigation of the injury, any facts showing that the plaintiff has suffered nothing or but little, by his *unintentional* default or breach of duty.[2] The Jury may give more than the amount of the judgment, if they believe that the wrong was wilful on the part of the officer, by adding to it the incidental expenses of the plaintiff, and the costs not taxable. On the other hand, if it should be apparent that the wrong done by the officer was not the result of a design to injure, and that by it the plaintiff is not placed in a worse situation than he would have been in, had the officer done his duty, the Jury will be at liberty, and it will be their duty, to see that a humane or mistaken officer is not made to pay greater damages than the party has actually suffered by his wrong.[3] In cases, therefore, of the latter description, the sheriff has been permitted to show, in mitigation of damages, that the debtor was poor, and unable to pay the debt;[4] or, that he might

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of the Common Law, that the whole sum must be given, has been altered by statutes abolishing the action of debt for an escape; and the rule is never applied, in any State, to an action of debt upon the sheriff's bond.

[1] Simmons *v.* Bradford, 15 Mass. 82.

[2] Evans *v.* Manero, 7 M. & W. 463, 473, per Ld. Abinger, C. B.; Williams *v.* Mostyn, 4 M. & W. 145. And see Weld *v.* Bartlett, 10 Mass. 470; Gerrish *v.* Edson, 1 New Hamp. R. 82; Burrell *v.* Lithgow, 2 Mass. 526; Smith *v.* Hart, 2 Bay, R. 395.

[3] Weld *v.* Bartlett, 10 Mass. 470, 473, per Parker, J.

[4] Brooks *v.* Hoyt, 6 Pick. 468.

still be arrested as easily as before, the sheriff having omitted to arrest him while sick and afflicted;[1] or that, for any other reason, the plaintiff has not been damnified.[2] If the action is for an escape on mesne process, and the sheriff afterwards had the debtor in custody, the plaintiff cannot maintain the action, without proof of actual damages.[3] In the action for taking insufficient sureties, the plaintiff can recover no more against the sheriff, than he could have recovered against the sureties.[4]

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[1] Weld *v.* Bartlett, 10 Mass. 470.

[2] Baker *v.* Green, 2 Bing. 317; Potter *v.* Lansing, 1 Johns. 215; Russell *v.* Turner, 7 Johns. 189; Young *v.* Hosmer, 11 Mass. 89; Nye *v.* Smith, Ibid. 188; Eaton *v.* Ogier, 2 Greenl. 46.

[3] Planck *v.* Anderson, 5 T. R. 37, confirmed in Williams *v.* Mostyn, 4 M. & W. 145, 154, where Baker *v.* Green, 2 Bing. 317, is, as to this point, overruled.

[4] Evans *v.* Brander, 2 H. Bl. 547, confirmed in Baker *v.* Garratt, 3 Bing. 56.

TENDER.

§ 600. The plea of *tender* admits the existence and validity of the debt or duty, insisting only on the fact, that there has been an offer to pay or perform it. And though the contract be one which the statute of frauds requires to be in writing, yet the plea of tender dispenses with the necessity of proving it.[1] The general proposition maintained in the plea is, that the defendant has done all that was in the power of any debtor alone to do, towards the fulfilment of his obligation; leaving nothing to be done towards its completion, but the act of acceptance on the part of the creditor. If the tender was of money, it is pleaded with an averment, that the defendant was always and still is ready to pay it, and the money is produced in Court. But if the obligation was for the delivery of specific chattels, other than money, a plea of the tender alone, without an averment of subsequent readiness to perform, is sufficient; the rule requiring only the averment of an offer and readiness to do that, which is a discharge of the obligation.[2]

§ 601. To support the issue of a tender of *money*, it is necessary for the defendant to show, that the precise sum, or more, was actually produced, in current money, such as is made a legal tender by statute, and actually offered to the plaintiff.[3] But if a tender is made in bank notes it is good, if

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[1] Middleton *v.* Brewer, 1 Peake, R. 15.

[2] 2 Roll. Abr. 523; Tout temps prist, A. pl. 1, 3, 5; Carley *v.* Vance, 17 Mass. 392.

[3] The current money of the United States, which is made a legal tender by statute, consists of all the gold and silver coins of the United States; together with Spanish milled dollars and their parts, at the rate of one hundred cents for a dollar weighing not less than seventeen pennyweights and seven grains; the dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chili and Central America, of not less weight than four hundred and fifteen grains each, at the same rate; those

the want of its being in current coins is waived; and if the creditor places his refusal to receive the money on some other ground, or even if he makes no objection to the tender on the express ground that it is in bank notes, it is held a waiver of this objection.[1] So, if the tender is made in a bank check, which is refused because it is not drawn for so much as the creditor demands, it is a good tender.[2]

§ 602. It must also appear, that the money, or other thing tendered, was *actually produced* to the creditor. It must be in sight, and capable of immediate delivery, to show that, if the creditor were willing to accept it, it was ready to be paid.[3] If it be in bags, held under the party's arm, and not laid on the table or otherwise actually offered to the creditor, it is not sufficient.[4] And if it be in the debtor's hand, and the sum is declared, and it is offered by way of tender, it is good, though it be in bank notes, twisted in a roll, and not displayed

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re-stamped in Brazil, of the like weight, of not less fineness than ten ounces and fifteen pennyweights of pure silver to the pound troy of twelve ounces of standard silver; and the five franc pieces of France, of not less fineness than ten ounces and sixteen pennyweights of pure silver to the like pound troy, and weighing not less than three hundred and eighty-four grains each, at ninety-three cents each. Stat. 1837, ch. 3, § 9, 10; Stat. 1834, ch. 71, § 1; Stat. 1806, ch. 22, § 2. Foreign gold coins ceased to be a legal tender, after November 1, 1819, by Stat. 1819, ch. 507, § 1. Copper cents and half-cents are established as part of the currency, and by implication made a legal tender, by Stat. 1792, ch. 39, § 2. A tender of the creditor's own promissory note, due to the debtor, is not good. Carey *v.* Bancroft, 14 Pick. 315; Hallowell & Augusta Bank *v.* Howard, 13 Mass. 235.

[1] Wright *v.* Reed, 3 T. R. 554; Snow *v.* Perry, 9 Pick. 542; Brown *v.* Saul, 4 Esp. R. 267; Polglase *v.* Oliver, 2 C. & J. 15; Warren *v.* Mains, 7 Johns. 476; Towson *v.* Havre De Grace Bank, 6 H. & J. 53; Coxe *v.* State Bank, 3 Halst. 72; Bank of the United States *v.* Bank of Georgia, 10 Wheat. 333.

[2] Jones *v.* Arthur, 4 Jur. 859; 8 Dowl. P. C. 442, S. C.

[3] Thomas *v.* Evans, 10 East, 101; Glasscott *v.* Day, 5 Esp. R. 48; Dickinson *v.* Shee, 4 Esp. R. 68; Bakeman *v.* Pooler, 15 Wend. 637; Kraus *v.* Arnold, 7 Moore, 59; Breed *v.* Hurd, 6 Pick. 356; Newton *v* Galbraith, 5 Johns. 119.

[4] Bull. N. P. 155; Wade's case, 5 Co. 115.

to the creditor.[1] But if the sum is not declared,[2] or the party says he will pay so much, putting his hand in his pocket to take it, but before he can produce it the creditor leaves the room;[3] it is not a good tender. Great importance is attached to the production of the money, as the sight of it might tempt the creditor to yield, and accept it.[4]

§ 603. The *production* of the money is *dispensed with*, if the party is ready and willing to pay the sum, and is about to produce it, but is prevented by the creditor's declaring that he will not receive it.[5] But his bare refusal to receive the sum proposed, and demanding more, is not alone sufficient to excuse an actual tender.[6] The money or other thing must be actually at hand and ready to be produced immediately, if it should be accepted; as, for example, if it be in the next room, or up stairs; for if it be a mile off, or can be borrowed and produced in five minutes, or being a bank check, it be not yet actually drawn, it is not sufficient.[7] The question whether the production of the money has been dispensed with, is a question for the Jury; and if they find the facts specially, but do not find the fact of dispensation, the Court will not infer it.[8]

§ 604. If the debtor *tendered a greater sum* than was due, it must appear that it was so made, as that the creditor might

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[1] Alexander *v.* Brown, 1 C. & P. 288.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Leatherdale *v.* Sweepstone, 3 C. & P. 342.

[4] Finch *v.* Brook, 1 Bing. N. C. 253, per Vaughan, J.

[5] Black *v.* Smith, 1 Peake R. 88; Read *v.* Goldring, 2. M. & S. 86; Barker *v.* Packenhorn, 2 Wash. C. C. R. 142; Calhoun *v.* Vechio, 3 Wash. 165; Blight *v.* Ashley, 1 Peters, C. C. R. 15; Slingerland *v.* Morse, 8 Johns. 474.

[6] Dunham *v.* Jackson, 6 Wend. 22.

[7] Harding *v.* Davies, 2 C. & P. 77; Dunham *v.* Jackson, 6 Wend. 22, 33, 34; Breed *v.* Hurd, 6 Pick. 356. And see Searight *v.* Calbraith, 4 Dall. 325, 327; Fuller *v.* Little, 7 N. Hamp. 535; Brown *v.* Gilmore, 8 Greenl. 107.

[8] Finch *v.* Brook, 1 Bing. N. C. 253.

take therefrom the sum that was actually due to him; as, if twenty dollars were tendered, when only fifteen were due; or else it must appear that the debtor remitted the excess.[1] And therefore it has been held, that, where the tender is to be made in bank notes, a tender of a larger note than the sum due, is bad.[2] But if the creditor does not object to it on that account, but only demands a larger sum, the tender will be good, though the debtor asked for change.[3]

§ 605. It must also appear, that the tender was *absolute;* for if it be coupled with a condition, as, for example, if a larger sum than is due be offered, and the creditor be required to return the change;[4] or if the sum be offered in full of all demands;[5] or if it be on condition, that the creditor will give a receipt or a release;[6] or if it be offered by way of boon, with a denial that any debt is due;[7] or if any other terms be added, which the acceptance of the money would cause the other party to admit, the tender is not good.[8] But if the cred-

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[1] Wade's case, 5 Co. 115; Douglas *v.* Patrick, 3 T. R. 683; Hubbard *v.* Chenango Bank, 8 Cowen, R. 88, 101; Dean *v.* James, 4 B. & Ad. 546; Bevan *v.* Rees, 7 Dowl. P. C. 510; Thorpe *v.* Burgess, 4 Jur. 799; 8 Dowl. P. C. 603.

[2] Betterbee *v.* Davis, 3 Campb. 70.

[3] Black *v.* Smith, 1 Peake, R. 88; Saunders *v.* Graham, Gow, R. 121; Cadman *v.* Lubbock, 5 D. & R. 289.

[4] Robinson *v.* Cook, 6 Taunt. 336; Betterbee *v.* Davis, 3 Campb. 70.

[5] Sutton *v.* Hawkins, 8 C. & P. 259; Mitchell *v.* King, 6 C. & P. 237; Cheminant *v.* Thornton, 2 C. & P. 50; Strong *v.* Harvey, 3 Bing. 304; Evans *v.* Judkins, 4 Campb. 156; Wood *v.* Hitchcock, 20 Wend. 47; Robinson *v.* Ferreday, 8 C. & P. 752.

[6] Ryder *v.* Ld. Townsend, 7 D. & R. 119, per Bayley, J.; Laing *v.* Meader, 1 C. & P. 257; Griffith *v.* Hodges, Ibid. 419; Thayer *v.* Brackett, 12 Mass. 450; Glasscott *v.* Day, 5 Esp. 48; Loring *v.* Cook, 3 Pick. 48; Hepburn *v.* Auld, 1 Cranch, 321; Higham *v.* Baddely, Gow, R. 213. But see Richardson *v.* Jackson, 8 M. & W. 298.

[7] Simmons *v.* Wilmott, 3 Esp. R. 94, per Ld. Eldon.

[8] Hastings *v.* Thorley, 8 C. & P. 573, per Ld. Abinger; Huxham *v.* Smith, 2 Campb. 21; Jennings *v.* Major, 8 C. & P. 61; Brown *v.* Gilmore, 8 Greenl. 107. But if the condition be, that the creditor shall do an act,

itor places his refusal to receive the money on some other ground than because it is coupled with a condition, this is evidence of a waiver of that objection, to be considered by the Jury.[1] If there be several debts, due from divers persons to the same creditor, and a gross sum be tendered for all the debts, this is not a good tender for any one of them.[2] But if there be several creditors, who are all present, and the debtor tenders a gross sum to them all, sufficient to satisfy all their demands, which they all refuse, insisting that more is due, it is a good tender to each one.[3]

§ 606. The tender must be *made to the creditor* himself, or to his *agent*, *clerk*, *attorney* or *servant*, who has authority to receive the money.[4] A tender to the attorney at law, to whom the demand has been entrusted for collection, or to his clerk or other person having charge of his office and business in his absence, is good, unless the attorney disclaims his authority at the time.[5] And generally, if a tender be made to a person whom the creditor permits to occupy his place of business, in the apparent character of his clerk or agent, it is a good tender to the creditor.[6] So, if it is sent by the debtor's house servant, who delivers it to a servant in

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which he is bound by law to do upon payment of the money, it is a good tender. Saunders *v.* Frost, 5 Pick. 259, 270.

[1] Ante, § 601, 604; Richardson *v.* Jackson, 8 M. & W. 298; 9 Dowl. P. C. 715, S. C.; Eckstein *v.* Reynolds, 7 Ad. & El. 80; Cole *v.* Blake, 1 Peake, R. 179.

[2] Strong *v.* Harvey, 3 Bing. 304.

[3] Black *v.* Smith, 1 Peake, R. 88.

[4] Goodland *v.* Blewith, 1 Campb. 477. If the clerk or servant is directed not to receive the money, because his master has left the demand with an attorney for collection, still the tender to him is a good tender to the principal. Moffat *v.* Parsons, 5 Taunt. 307.

[5] Wilmot *v.* Smith, 3 C. & P. 453; Crozer *v.* Pilling, 4 B. & C. 29; Bingham *v.* Allport, 1 Nev. & Man. 398. It is not necessary to tender also the amount of the attorney's charge for a letter to the debtor, demanding payment. Kirton *v.* Braithwaite, 1 M. & W. 310.

[6] Barrett *v.* Deere, 1 M. & M. 200.

the creditor's house, by whom it is taken in, and an answer returned as from the master, this is admissible evidence to the Jury, in proof of a tender.[1]

§ 607. As to the *time of tender*, it must in all cases, by the Common Law, be made at the time the money became due; a tender made after the party has broken his contract being too late, and therefore not pleadable in bar of the action;[2] though it stops the interest, and, by leave of Court, the money may be brought in upon the common rule. But where the defendant is not *in morâ*, as, for example, if no day of payment was agreed upon, and the money has not been demanded, or if amends are to be offered for an involuntary trespass, proof of a tender, made at any time before the suit is commenced, is sufficient to support the plea of tender.[3] In the case of damage-feasant, a tender is good, if made at any time before the beasts are impounded, though it be after they were distrained.[4]

§ 608. The plaintiff may avoid the plea of a tender of money, by replying a *subsequent demand and refusal;* the burden of proving which, if traversed, lies upon him. And he must show, that the demand was made of the precise sum mentioned in the replication, a variance herein being fatal.[5]

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[1] Anon. 1 Esp. R. 349.

[2] Hume *v.* Peploe, 8 East, 168, 170; City Bank *v.* Cutter, 3 Pick. 414, 418; Suffolk Bank *v.* Worcester Bank, 5 Pick. 108; Dewey *v.* Humphrey, Ibid. 187; Giles *v.* Harris, 1 Ld. Raym. 254; Savery *v.* Goe, 3 Wash. 140; Gould *v.* Banks, 8 Wend. 562. Aliter in Connecticut. Tracy *v* Strong, 2 Conn. 659. In several of the United States, provision has been made by statute for a tender of the debt and costs, even after action brought Rev. Stat. Mass. ch. 100, § 14, 15; Rev. Stat. Maine, p. 767. And see Hay *v.* Ousterout, 3 Ham. Ohio R. 585.

[3] Watts *v.* Baker, Cro. Car. 264.

[4] Pilkington *v.* Hastings, Cro. El. 813; The Six Carpenters' case, 8 Co. 147.

[5] Rivers *v.* Griffiths, 5 B. & Ald. 630; Spybey *v.* Hide, 1 Campb. 181 Coore *v.* Callaway, 1 Esp. R. 115.

He must also prove, that the demand was made either by himself in person, or by some one, authorized to receive the money and give a discharge for it.[1] A demand made by letter, to which an answer, promising payment, was returned, was in one case held sufficient;[2] but this has since been doubted, on the ground, that the demand ought to be so made as to afford the debtor an opportunity of immediate compliance with it.[3] If there be two joint debtors, proof of a demand made upon one of them will support the allegation of a demand upon both.[4]

§ 609. *Specific articles* are to be delivered at some particular *place*, and not, like money, to the person of the creditor wherever found. If no place is expressly mentioned in the contract, the place is to be ascertained by the intent of the parties, to be collected from the nature of the case and its circumstances.[5] If the contract is for the delivery of goods from the vendor to the vendee on demand, the vendor being the manufacturer of the goods, or a dealer in them, and no place being expressly named, the manufactory or store of the vendor will be understood to be the place intended, and a tender there will be good. And if the specific articles are at another place at the time of sale, the place where they are at that time is generally to be taken as the place of delivery.[6] But where the contract is for the payment of a debt in specific articles which are *portable*, such as cattle, and the like, at a time certain, but without any designation of the place, in the absence of other circumstances from which the intent of the parties can be collected, the creditor's place of abode at

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[1] Coles *v.* Bell, 1 Campb. 478, n.; Coore *v.* Callaway, 1 Esp. R. 115, Ante, § 606.

[2] Hayward *v.* Hague, 4 Esp. R. 93.

[3] Edwards *v.* Yeates, Ry. & M. 360.

[4] Peirse *v.* Bowles, 1 Stark. R. 323.

[5] 2 Kent, Comm. 505, 506; Poth. Obl. No. 512; Goodwin *v.* Holbrook, 4 Wend. 377; Howard *v.* Miner, 2 Applet. R. 325.

[6] Ibid.

the date of the obligation will be understood as the place of payment.[1] And on the same principle of intention, a note given by a farmer, payable in farm produce, without any designation of time or place, is payable at the debtor's farm. Indeed the same rule governs, in the case of a similar obligation to pay or deliver any other portable specific articles on demand; for the obligation being to be performed on demand, this implies that the creditor must go to the debtor to make the demand, before the latter can be in default.[2] But wherever specific articles are tendered, if they are part of a larger quantity, they should be so designated and set apart, as that the creditor may see and know what is offered to be his own.[3]

§ 610. If the goods are *cumbrous*, and the place of delivery is not designated, nor to be inferred from collateral circumstances, the presumed intention is, that they were to be delivered at any place which the creditor might reasonably appoint; and accordingly, it is the duty of the debtor to call upon the creditor, if he is within the State, and request him to appoint a place for the delivery of the goods. If the creditor refuses, or, which is the same in effect, names an unreasonable place, or avoids, in order to prevent the notice, the right of election is given to the debtor; whose duty it is to deliver the articles at a reasonable and convenient place, giving previous notice thereof to the creditor if practicable. And if the creditor refuses to accept the goods when properly tendered, or is absent at the time, the property, nevertheless, passes to him, and the debtor is forever absolved from the obligation.[4]

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[1] Ibid.; Chipman on Contracts, p. 24, 25, 26; Goodwin *v.* Holbrook, 4 Wend. 377, 380.

[2] 2 Kent, Comm. 508; Chipman on Contracts, p. 28, 29, 30, 49; Lobdell *v.* Hopkins, 5 Cowen, R. 516; Goodwin *v.* Holbrook, 4 Wend. 380.

[3] Veazy *v.* Harmony, 7 Greenl. 91.

[4] 2 Kent, Comm. 507, 508, 509; Co. Lit. 210, *b.*; Aldrich *v.* Albee, 1 Greenl. 120; Howard *v.* Miner, 2 Applet. R. 325; Chipman on Contracts, p. 51–56; Lamb *v.* Lathrop, 13 Wend. 95. Whether, if the creditor is

§ 611. By the Roman Law, where the house or shop of the creditor was designated or ascertained as the intended place of payment, and the creditor afterwards and before payment changed his domicil or place of business to another town or place, less convenient to the debtor, the creditor was permitted to require payment at his new domicil or place, making compensation to the debtor for the increased expense and trouble thereby caused to him. But by the law of France, the debtor may in such case require the creditor to nominate another place, equally convenient to the debtor; and on his neglecting so to do, he may himself appoint one; according to the rule, that *nemo, alterius facto, prægravari debet.*[1] Whether, in the case of articles not portable, but cumbrous, such removal of domicil may, at Common Law, be considered as a waiver of the place, at the election of the debtor, does not appear to have been expressly decided.[2]

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out of the State, no place of delivery having been agreed upon, this circumstance gives to the debtor the right of appointing the place, *quære;* and see Bixby *v.* Whitney, 5 Greenl. 192; in which, however, the reporter's marginal note seems to state the doctrine a little broader than the decision requires, it not being necessary for the plaintiff, in that case, to aver any readiness to receive the goods, at any place, as the contract was for the payment of a sum of money, in specific articles, on or before a day certain.

[1] Poth. on Oblig. No. 238, 239, 513.

[2] See Howard *v.* Miner, 2 Applet. R. 325, 330.

TRESPASS.

§ 612. The evidence in actions of trespass against the person having already been considered, under the head of Assault and Battery, it remains in this place to treat of the evidence applicable to actions of trespass upon property, whether real or personal.

§ 613. Though the right of *property* may and often does come in controversy in this action, yet the *gist* of the action is the injury done to the plaintiff's *possession*. The substance of the declaration, therefore, is, that the defendant has forcibly and wrongfully injured property, in the possession of the plaintiff; and under the general issue the plaintiff must prove, (1.) that the property was in his possession at the time of the injury, and this, rightfully, as against the defendant; and (2.) that the injury was committed by the defendant, with force.

§ 614. (1.) The *possession* of the plaintiff may be actual or constructive. And it is *constructive*, when the property is either in the actual custody and occupation of no one, but rightfully belongs to the plaintiff; or when it is in the care and custody of his servant, agent, or overseer, or in the hands of a bailee for custody, carriage, or other care or service, as depositary, mandatary, carrier, borrower, or the like, where the bailee or actual possessor has no vested interest or title to the beneficial use and enjoyment of the property, but on the contrary, the owner may take it into his own hands, at his pleasure. Where this is the case, the general owner may sue in trespass, as for an injury to his own actual possession, and this proof will maintain the averment.[1] The

[1] 1 Chitty on Plead. 188, 195 (7th ed.); Lotan *v.* Cross, 2 Campb. 464;

general property draws to it the possession, where there is no intervening adverse right of enjoyment. And this action may also be maintained by the actual possessor, upon proof of his possession *de facto*, and an authority coupled with an interest in the thing, as carrier, factor, pawnee, or sheriff.[1] A tenant at will, and one entitled to the mere profits of the soil, or *vestura terræ*, with the right of culture, may also sue in trespass, for an injury to the emblements, to which he is entitled.[2]

§ 615. The general owner has also a *constructive possession*, as *against* his *bailee or tenant* who, having a special property, has violated his trust by destroying that which was confided to him. Thus, if the bailee of a beast kill it, or if a joint tenant or tenant in common of a chattel destroy it, or if a tenant at will cuts down trees, the interest of the wrongdoer is thereby determined, and the possession, by legal intendment, immediately reverts to the owner or co-tenant, and proof of the wrongful act will maintain the allegation that the thing injured was in his possession.[3] So if one enters

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Bertie *v.* Beaumont, 16 East, 33; Aikin *v.* Buck, 1 Wend. 466; Putnam *v.* Wyley, 8 Johns. 432; Thorp *v.* Burling, 11 Johns. 285; Hubbell *v.* Rochester, 8 Cowen, R. 115; Root *v.* Chandler, 10 Wend. 110; Orser *v.* Storms, 9 Cowen, R. 687; Wickham *v.* Freeman, 12 Johns. 183; Smith *v.* Milles, 4 T. R. 480; Corfield *v.* Coryell, 4 Wash. 387; Hingham *v.* Sprague, 15 Pick. 102; Starr *v.* Jackson, 11 Mass. 519; Walcott *v.* Pomeroy, 2 Pick. 121.

[1] Wilbraham *v.* Snow, 2 Saund. 47; Ibid. 47, *a. b.*, note (1) by Williams; Colwill *v.* Reeves, 2 Campb. 575.

[2] Co. Litt. 4, *b.*; Wilson *v.* Mackreth, 3 Burr. 1824; Crosby *v.* Wadsworth, 6 East, 602; Stammers *v.* Dixon, 7 East, 200; Stewart *v.* Doughty, 9 Johns. 108; Stultz *v.* Dickey, 5 Binn. 285; Austin *v.* Sawyer, 9 Cowen, R. 39.

[3] Co. Litt. 57, *a.*; Ibid. 200, *a. b.*; Countess of Salop *v.* Crompton, Cro. El. 777, 784; 5 Co. 13, S. C.; Phillips *v.* Covert; 7 Johns. 1; Erwin *v.* Olmstead, 7 Cowen, R. 229; Campbell *v.* Procter, 6 Greenl. 12; Daniels *v.* Pond, 21 Pick. 367; Allen *v.* Carter, 8 Pick. 175; Keay *v.* Goodwin, 16 Mass. 1. A tenant at will, by refusing to quit the premises,

upon land, and cuts timber under a parol agreement, for the purchase of the land, which he afterwards repudiates as void under the Statute of Frauds, his right of possession also is thereby avoided *ab initio*, and is held to have remained in the owner, who may maintain trespass for cutting the trees.[1] And generally, where a right of entry, or other right of possession is given by law, and is afterwards abused by any act of unlawful force, the party is a trespasser *ab initio*;[2] but if the wrong consist merely in the detention of chattels, beyond the time when they ought to have been returned, the remedy is in another form of action.[3]

§ 616. But where the general owner has conveyed to another the exclusive right of present possession and enjoyment, retaining to himself only a *reversionary interest*, the possession is that of the lessee, or bailee, who alone can maintain an action of trespass for a forcible injury to the property; the remedy of the general owner or reversioner being by an action upon the case.[4] Thus, a tenant for years may have an action of trespass, for cutting down trees;[5] and a tenant at will may sue in this form for throwing down the fences erected by himself, and destroying the grass;[6] or the lessee of a chattel, for taking and carrying it away during the term;[7] the lessor or general owner never being permitted to maintain this action, for an injury done to the property while it was in the possession of the lessee, or

becomes a trespasser. Ellis *v.* Paige, 1 Pick. 43; Rising *v.* Stannard, 17 Mass. 282.

[1] Suffern *v.* Townsend, 9 Johns. 35.

[2] The Six Carpenters' Case, 8 Co. 145; Adams *v.* Freeman, 12 Johns. 408.

[3] Gardiner *v.* Campbell, 15 Johns. 401.

[4] 1 Chitty on Plead. 195, 196, (7th ed.); Lienow *v.* Ritchie, 8 Pick. 235.

[5] Evans *v.* Evans, 2 Campb. 491; Blackett *v.* Lowes, 2 M. & S. 499.

[6] Little *v.* Palister, 3 Greenl. 6.

[7] Corfield *v.* Coryell, 4 Wash. 371, 387; Ward *v.* Macauley, 4 T. R. 489; Gordon *v.* Harper, 7 T. R. 9.

of a bailee, entitled to the exclusive enjoyment.[1] But the existence of a mere easement in land will not impair or affect the possession of the owner of the soil. Thus, for example, the existence of a public way over the plaintiff's land, will not prevent him from maintaining an action of trespass against a stranger who digs up the soil, or erects a building within the limits of the highway;[2] and proof of the plaintiff's possession of the land adjoining the highway, is presumptive evidence of his possession of the soil *ad medium filum viæ*.[3]

§ 617. Where the subject of the action is a *partition fence* between the lands of two adjoining proprietors, it is presumed to be common property of both, unless the contrary is shown.[4] If it is proved to have been originally built upon the land of one of them, it is his; but if it were built equally upon the land of both, though at their joint expense, each is the owner in severalty of the part standing on his own land.[5] If the boundary is a hedge, and one ditch, it is presumed to belong to him on whose side the hedge is; it being presumed that he who dug the ditch, threw the earth upon his own land, which alone was lawful for him to do, and that the hedge was planted, as is usual, on the top of the bank thus raised.[6] But if there is a ditch on each side of the hedge, or no ditch at all, the hedge is presumed to be the common

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[1] Ibid.; Campbell *v.* Arnold, 1 Johns. 511; Tobey *v.* Webster, 3 Johns. 468.

[2] Cortelyou *v.* Van Brundt, 2 Johns. 357, 363; Gidney *v.* Earl, 12 Wend. 98; Grose *v.* West, 7 Taunt. 39; Stevens *v.* Whistler, 11 East, 51; Robbins *v.* Borman, 1 Pick. 122; Adams *v.* Emerson, 6 Pick. 57; Perley *v.* Chandler, 6 Mass. 454.

[3] Cook *v.* Green, 11 Price, 736; Headlam *v.* Headley, Holt, Cas. 463; Grose *v.* West, 7 Taunt. 39.

[4] Wiltshire *v.* Sidford, 8 B. & C. 259, note (a); Cubitt *v.* Porter, Ibid. 257.

[5] Matts *v.* Hawkins, 5 Taunt. 20.

[6] Vowles *v.* Miller, 3 Taunt. 138, per Lawrence, J.

property of both proprietors.[1] If a tree grows so near the boundary line, that the roots extend into the soil of each proprietor, yet the property in the tree belongs to the owner of the land in which the tree was originally sown or planted.[2]

§ 618. It may further be observed, that proof of an actual and exclusive *possession* by the plaintiff, even though it be *by wrong*, is sufficient to support this action *against a mere stranger* or wrong-doer, who has neither title to the possession in himself, nor authority from the legal owner.[3] So, the possession of her bedroom, by a female servant in the house, it seems will be sufficient to entitle her to maintain this action against a wrong-doer, who forces himself into it while she is in bed there.[4] The finder of goods, also, and the prior occupant of land, or its produce, has a sufficient possession to maintain this action, against any person except the true owner.[5] And the owner of the sea-shore has the possession of wrecked property, *ratione soli*, against a stranger.[6] The wrongful possessor, however, though he be tenant by sufferance, has no such remedy against the rightful owner, who resumes the possession;[7] though this resumption of possession will not defeat the prior possessor's action of trespass against a stranger.[8]

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[1] Archbold's N. P. 328.

[2] Holder *v.* Coates, 1 M. & Malk. 112; Masters *v.* Pollie, 2 Roll. Rep. 141. See also Dig. lib. xlvii. tit. 7, l. 6, § 2, with which agrees the Instit. lib. ii. tit. 1, § 31, *as expounded* by Professor Cooper. See Cooper's Justinian, p. 80.

[3] Graham *v.* Peat, 1 East, 244; Harker *v.* Birkbeck, 3 Burr. 1556, 1563; Catteris *v.* Cowper, 4 Taunt. 547; Revett *v.* Brown, 5 Bing. 9; Townsend *v.* Kerns, 2 Watts, 180; Barnstable *v.* Thacher, 3 Met. 239; Shrewsbury *v.* Smith, 14 Pick. 297.

[4] Lewis *v.* Ponsford, 8 C. & P. 687.

[5] 2 Saund. 47, *b. c. d.*, note by Williams; Rackham *v.* Jessup, 3 Wils. 332.

[6] Barker *v.* Bates, 13 Pick. 255.

[7] Taunton *v.* Costar, 7 T. R. 431; Turner *v.* Meymott, 1 Bing. 158; Sampson *v.* Henry, 13 Pick. 36.

[8] Cutts *v.* Spring, 15 Mass. 235.

§ 619. But though such proof of possession, actual or constructive, will maintain the averment, yet a mere *right of entry* on lands is not sufficient. Hence a disseisee, though he may maintain trespass for the original act of disseisin, cannot have this action for any subsequent injury, until he has acquired the possession by re-entry; which will relate back to the original disseisin, and entitle him to sue in trespass for any intermediate wrong to the freehold.[1]

§ 620. If animals *feræ naturæ* are the subject of this action, the plaintiff must show, either that they were already captured, or domesticated, and of some value; or, that they were dead; or, that the defendant killed or took them on the plaintiff's ground; or, that the game was started there, and killed or captured elsewhere, the plaintiff asserting his local possession and property by joining in the pursuit.[2]

§ 621. (2.) The plaintiff must, in the next place, prove, that the injury was *committed by the defendant*, with force. And the defendant will be chargeable, if it appear that the act was done by his direction or command, or by his *servant* in the course of his master's business, or while executing his orders with ordinary care; or if it be done by his domestic or reclaimed animals.[3] So, if the defendant participated with others in the act, though it were but slightly; or, if he pro-

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[1] Liford's Case, 11 Co. 51; 3 Bl. Comm. 210; Bigelow *v.* Jones, 10 Pick. 161; Blood *v.* Wood, 1 Met. 528; Kennebec Prop'rs *v.* Call, 1 Mass. 486. And see Taylor *v.* Townsend, 8 Mass. 411, 415.

[2] Ireland *v.* Higgins, Cro. El. 125; Grymes *v.* Shack, Cro. Jac. 262; Churchward *v.* Studdy, 14 East, 249; 6 Com. Dig. 386, Trespass, A. (1.); Sutton *v.* Moody, 2 Salk. 556; Pierson *v.* Post, 3 Caines, 175.

[3] Gregory *v.* Piper, 9 B. & C. 591; Broughton *v.* Whallon, 8 Wend. 474; 6 Com. Dig, 392, Trespass, C. (1.); Root *v.* Chandler, 10 Wend. 110. Where the allegation was, that the defendant struck the plaintiff's cow several blows, whereof she died, and the evidence was, that after the beating, which was unmerciful, the plaintiff killed the cow to shorten her miseries, it was held no variance. Hancock *v.* Southall, 4 D. & R. 202.

cured the act to be done, by inciting others.[1] But it seems that persons, entering a dwelling-house in good faith, to assist an officer in the service of legal process, are not trespassers, though he entered unlawfully, they not knowing how he entered.[2] So, if the defendant unlawfully exercised an authority over the goods, in defiance or exclusion of the true owner, as where, being a constable, he levied an execution on the plaintiff's goods in the hands of the execution debtor, who was a stranger, taking an inventory of them, and saying he would take them away unless security were given; though he did not actually touch the goods, he is a trespasser.[3] So, if the defendant were one of several *partners in trade*, and the act were done by one of the firm, provided it were of the nature of a taking, available to the partnership, and they all either joined in ordering it, or afterwards knowingly participated in the benefit of the act, this is evidence of a trespass by all.[4] But if a servant were ordered to take the goods of another, instead of which he took the goods of the defendant, the master will not be liable; unless in the case of a sheriff's deputy, which the law, on grounds of public policy, has made an exception.[5]

§ 622. It will not be necessary for the plaintiff to prove, that the act was done with any *wrongful intent;* it being sufficient, if it was without a justifiable cause or purpose, though it were done accidentally, or by mistake.[6] And though

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[1] Flewster *v.* Royle, 1 Campb. 187; Stonehouse *v.* Elliot, 6 T. R. 315; Parsons *v.* Loyd, 3 Wils. 341; Barker *v.* Braham, Ibid. 368.

[2] Oystead *v.* Shed, 13 Mass. 520, 524.

[3] Wintringham *v.* Lafoy, 7 Cowen, R. 735; Miller *v.* Baker, 1 Met. 27; Gibbs *v.* Chase, 10 Mass. 125; Robinson *v.* Mansfield, 13 Pick. 139.

[4] Petrie *v.* Lamont, 1 Car. & Marsh. 93.

[5] McManus *v.* Crickett, 1 East, 106; Germantown Railroad Co. *v.* Wilt, 4 Whart. 143; Fox *v.* Northern Liberties, 3 Watts & Serg. 123; Saunderson *v.* Baker, 3 Wils. 312; Ackworth *v.* Kempe, 1 Doug. 40; Grinnell *v.* Phillips, 1 Mass. 530.

[6] 1 Chitty on Plead. 192, (7th ed.); Covell *v.* Laming, 1 Campb. 497; Colwill *v.* Reeves, 2 Campb. 575; Basely *v.* Clarkson, 3 Lev. 37; Higginson

the original entry or act of possession were by authority of law, yet if a subsequent act of force be unlawfully committed, such as would have made the party a trespasser if no authority or right existed, he is a trespasser *ab initio*.[1] If the authority were a license in fact, the remedy is not in trespass, but in an action upon the case.[2] Nor is it necessary, in an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, to prove that the defendant *actually entered* upon the land; for evidence that he stood elsewhere, and shot game on the plaintiff's land, will support the averment of an entry.[3] And after a wrongful entry and the erection of a building, for which the owner has already recovered damages, the *continuance* of the building, after notice to remove it, is a new trespass, for which this action may be maintained.[4]

§ 623. It is essential to this form of remedy, that the act be proved to have been done with *force directly applied*, this being the criterion of trespass. While the original force or *vis impressa* continues, so as to become the proximate cause of the injury, the effect is immediate, and the remedy may be in trespass; but where the original force had ceased before the injury commenced, trespass cannot be maintained, and the only remedy is by an action on the case.[5]

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v. York, 5 Mass. 341; Hayden *v.* Shed, 11 Mass. 500, per Jackson, J.; Ibid. 507. See Guille *v.* Swan, 19 Johns. 381, where the owner of a balloon, which accidentally descended into the defendant's garden, was held liable in trespass.

[1] The Six Carpenters' Case, 8 Co. 145; Shorland *v.* Govett, 5 B. & C. 485. Ante, § 615; Dye *v.* Leatherdale, 3 Wils. 20.

[2] Ibid.; Cushing *v.* Adams, 18 Pick. 110. Trespass does not lie against a tenant by sufferance, until after entry upon him by the lessor. Rising *v.* Stannard, 17 Mass. 282; Dorrell *v.* Johnson, 17 Pick. 263. Nor can the landlord expel him by force, and thereby acquire a lawful possession to himself. Newton *v.* Harland, 1 Man. & Grang. 644.

[3] Anon. cited per Ld. Ellenborough in Pickering *v.* Rudd, 1 Stark. R. 56, 58. But see Keble *v.* Hickringill, 11 Mod. 74, 130.

[4] Holmes *v.* Wilson, 10 Ad. & El. 503.

[5] 1 Chitty on Plead. 140, 141, 199, (7th ed.); Smith *v* Rutherford, 2 S. & R. 358.

§ 624. The allegation of the *time* when the trespass was committed is not ordinarily material to be proved; the plaintiff being at liberty to prove a trespass at any time before the commencement of the action, whether before or after the day laid in the declaration. But in trespass with a *continuando*, the plaintiff ought to confine himself to the time in the declaration; yet he may waive the *continuando*, and prove a trespass on any day before the action brought; or, he may give in evidence only part of the time in the *continuando*.[1] So, where a trespass is alleged to have been done between a certain day, and the day of the commencement of the action, the plaintiff may prove either one trespass before the certain day mentioned, or as many as he can within the period of time stated in the declaration, but he cannot do both, and must waive one or the other.[2] And in trespass against sev-

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[1] Co. Lit. 283, *b.*; Bull. N. P. 86; Webb *v.* Turner, 2 Stra. 1095; Hume *v.* Oldacre, 1 Stark. R. 351.

[2] 2 Selw. N. P. 1341, per Gould, J.; Pierce *v.* Pickens, 16 Mass. 470, 472. In this case, the law on this subject was thus stated by Jackson, J. "Originally every declaration in trespass seems to have been confined to one single act of trespass. When the injury was of a kind that could be continued without intermission, from time to time, the plaintiff was permitted to declare with a *continuando*, and the whole was considered as one trespass. In more modern times, in order to save the trouble and expense of a distinct writ, or count, for every different act, the plaintiff is permitted to declare, as is done in this case, for a trespass on divers days and times between one day and another; and, in that case, he may give evidence of any number of trespasses within the time specified. Such a declaration is considered as if it contained a distinct count for every different trespass. This is for the advantage and ease of the plaintiff; but he is not obliged to avail himself of the privilege, and may still consider his declaration as containing one count only, and as confined to a single trespass. When it is considered in that light, the time becomes immaterial, and he may prove a trespass at any time before the commencement of the action, and within the time prescribed by the statute of limitations.

"But it would be giving an undue advantage to the plaintiff if he could avail himself of the declaration in both of these modes, and would frequently operate as a surprise on the defendant. He is, therefore, bound to make his election before he begins to introduce his evidence. He must waive the advantage of this peculiar form of declaration, before he can be permitted

eral, the plaintiff, having proved a joint trespass by all, will not be permitted to waive that, and give evidence of another trespass by one only;[1] nor will he be permitted, where the declaration contains but one count, after proof of one trespass, to waive that and prove another.[2] So, where the action is against three, for example, and the plaintiff proves a joint trespass by two only, he will not be allowed to give evidence of another trespass by all the three, even as against those two alone.[3]

§ 625. In the *defence* of this action, the general issue is *not guilty;* under which the defendant may give evidence of any facts, tending to disprove either of the propositions, which, as we have seen, the plaintiff is obliged to make out in order to maintain the action. Every defence which admits the defendant to have been *primâ facie* a trespasser, must be specially pleaded; but any matters which go to show that he never did the acts complained of, may be given in evidence under the general issue. Thus, for example, under this issue may be proved, that the plaintiff had no property in the goods; or, that the defendant did not take them; or, that he did not enter the plaintiff's close. So, the defendant may show, under this issue, that the freehold and immediate right of possession is in himself, or in one under whom he claims title; thus disproving the plaintiff's allegation, that the right of possession is in him.[4] But if he acted by license,

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to offer evidence of a trespass at any other time. The rule, therefore, on this subject was mistaken on the trial. It is not that the plaintiff shall not *recover* for any trespass within the time specified, and also for a trespass at another time; but he shall not *give evidence* of one or more trespasses within the time, and of another at another time."

[1] Tait *v.* Harris, 1 M. & Rob. 282. See also Wynne *v.* Anderson, 3 C. & P. 596.

[2] Stante *v.* Pricket, 1 Campb. 473.

[3] Hitchen *v.* Teale, 2 M. & Rob. 30; Sedley *v.* Sutherland, 3 Esp. R. 202.

[4] 1 Chitty on Plead. 437; Dodd *v.* Kyffin, 7 T. R. 354; Argent *v.* Durrant, 8 T. R. 403. See also Monumoi *v.* Rogers, 1 Mass. 159; Raw-

even from the plaintiff, without claiming title in himself;[1] or, if he would justify under a custom to enter;[2] or, under a right of way;[3] or, if the injury was occasioned by the plaintiff's own negligence, or was done by the defendant from any other cause, short of such extraneous force as deprived him of all agency in the act, it cannot be shown under this issue, but must be specially pleaded.[4] So, a *distress* for rent, when made on the demised premises, may be shown under this issue; but if it were made elsewhere, or for any other cause, it must be justified under a special plea.[5] Matters in *discharge* of the action must be specially pleaded; but matters in *mitigation* of the wrong and damages, which cannot be so pleaded, may be given in evidence under the general issue.[6] And it seems, that a *variance* in the description of the *locus in quo*, is available to the defendant under this issue, as the allegation of place, in an action of trespass *quare clausum fregit*, is essentially descriptive of the particular trespass complained of.[7] But the variance, to be fatal, must be in some essential part of the description; and even the abuttals will not be construed very strictly. Thus, if the close be described as bounded on the east by another close, and the proof be, that the other close lies on the north, with a point

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son *v.* Morse, 4 Pick. 127. But where the plaintiff is in the actual possession and occupation of the close, the defendant will not be permitted, under the general issue, to prove title in a stranger, under whom he does not justify. Philpot *v.* Holmes, 1 Peake, R. 67; Carter *v.* Johnson, 2 M. & Rob. 263.

[1] Milman *v.* Dolwell, 2 Campb. 378; Philpot *v.* Holmes, 1 Peake, R. 67; Ruggles *v.* Lesure, 24 Pick. 187.

[2] Waters *v.* Lilley, 4 Pick. 145.

[3] Strout *v.* Berry, 7 Mass. 385.

[4] 1 Chitty on Plead. 437, 438; Ante, § 94; Knapp *v.* Salsbury, 2 Campb. 500.

[5] 1 Chitty on Plead. 439.

[6] Ibid. p. 441, 442.

[7] 3 Stephens, N. P. 2642; Webber *v.* Richards, 10 Law Journ. 203; 1 Salk. 452, per Holt, C. J.; Taylor *v.* Hooman, 1 Moor, 161; Harris *v.* Cook, 8 Taunt. 539.

or two towards the east; or, if it be on the north-east, or south-east;[1] or if it be described as abutting on a windmill, and the proof be, that a highway lies between it and the windmill;[2] it will be sufficient.

§ 626. The plea of *liberum tenementum* admits the fact, that the plaintiff was in possession of the close described in the declaration; and that the defendant did the acts complained of; raising only the question, whether the close described was the defendant's freehold or not.[3] And his title must be proved either by deed, or other documentary evidence, or by an actual, adverse, and exclusive possession for twenty years; inasmuch as, under this issue, he undertakes to show a title in himself, which shall do away the presumption arising from the plaintiff's possession.[4] Proof of a tenancy in common with the plaintiff is not admissible under this issue.[5] If the defendant succeeds in establishing a title to that part of the close on which the trespass was committed, he is entitled to recover, though he does not prove a title to the whole close; the words "the close in which," &c., constituting a divisible allegation.[6]

§ 627. The plea of *license* may be supported by proof of a license in law, as well as in fact; and it is immaterial whether it be expressed, or implied from circumstances. Thus, an

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[1] Mildmay *v.* Dean, 2 Roll. Abr. 678; Roberts *v.* Karr, 1 Taunt. 495, 501, per Heath, J.

[2] Nowell *v.* Sands, 2 Roll. Abr. 677, 678. And see Doe *v.* Salter, 13 East, 9; Brownlow *v.* Tomlinson, 1 M. & G. 484; Walford *v.* Anthony, 8 Bing. 75; Lethbridge *v.* Winter, 2 Bing. 49; Doe *v.* Harris, 5 M. & S. 326.

[3] Cocker *v.* Crompton, 1 B. & C. 489; Lempriere *v.* Humphrey, 3 Ad. & El. 181; Caruth *v.* Allen, 2 McCord, 126; Doe *v.* Wright, 10 Ad. & El. 763.

[4] Brest *v.* Lever, 7 M. & W. 593.

[5] Voyce *v.* Voyce, Gow, R. 201.

[6] Smith *v.* Royston, 8 M. & W. 381; Richards *v.* Peake, 2 B. & C. 918.

entry to execute legal process, or to distrain for rent, or for damage feasant; or an entry by a remainder-man, or a reversioner, to see whether waste has been done, or repairs made; or by a commoner, to view his cattle; or by a traveller, into an inn; or by a landlord, to take possession, after the expiration of the tenant's lease; or an entry into another's house at usual and reasonable hours, and in the customary manner, for any of the ordinary purposes of life, may be given in evidence under this plea.[1] Evidence of a familiar intimacy in the family, may also be given in support of this plea.[2] So, if the plaintiff's goods, being left in the defendant's building, were an incumbrance, and he removed them to the plaintiff's close; or, if the plaintiff unlawfully took the defendant's goods, and conveyed them within the plaintiff's close, and the defendant thereupon, making fresh pursuit, entered and retook them; the facts in either case furnish, by implication, evidence of a license to enter.[3] But the mere circumstance, that the defendant's goods were upon the plaintiff's close, and therefore he entered and took them, is not alone sufficient to justify the entry.[4] The evidence must cover all the trespasses proved, or it will not sustain the justification.[5] So, if a license to erect and maintain a wall be pleaded, and the evidence be of a license to erect only, the plea is not supported.[6] Evidence of a verbal agreement for the sale of the land by the plaintiff to the defendant, is admissible under a plea of license to enter, and may suffice to support the plea as to the entry only; but it is not sufficient to maintain the

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[1] 5 Com. Dig. 805, tit. Pleader, 3 M. 35; Ditcham *v.* Bond, 3 Campb. 524; Feltham *v.* Cartwright, 5 Bing. N. C. 569.

[2] Adams *v.* Freeman, 12 Johns. 408.

[3] Rex *v.* Sheward, 2 M. & W. 424; Patrick *v.* Colerick, 3 M. & W. 483.

[4] Anthony *v.* Harreys, 8 Bing. 186; Williams *v.* Morris, 8 M. & W. 488. And see Wood *v.* Manley, 11 Ad. & El. 34.

[5] Barnes *v.* Hunt, 11 East, 451; Symons *v.* Hearson, 12 Price, 369, 390, per Hullock, B.

[6] Alexander *v.* Bonnin, 4 Bing. N. C. 799, 813.

plea, in respect to any acts which a tenant at will may not lawfully do.[1] Nor will such license avail to justify acts done after it has been revoked.[2]

§ 628. Under the plea of a *license in law*, the plaintiff cannot give in evidence a subsequent act of the defendant, which rendered him a trespasser *ab initio;* but it must be specially replied.[3] So, if the defendant justifies as preventing a tortious act of the plaintiff, and the plaintiff relies on a license to do the act, he cannot give the license in evidence under the general replication of *de injuria*, but must allege it in a special replication.[4]

§ 629. Where the trespass is justified under *civil or criminal process*, whether it be specially pleaded, or given in evidence under a brief statement, filed with the general issue, the party must prove every material fact of the authority under which he justifies. If the action is by the person against whom the process issued, it is sufficient for the officer who served it, to prove the process itself, if it appear to have issued from a Court of competent jurisdiction, under its seal, and to be tested by the Chief Justice, or other other magistrate whose attestation it should bear, and be signed by the clerk or other proper officer. And if it is mesne process and is returnable, he should in ordinary cases show that it is returned; unless he is a mere bailiff or servant, who is not bound to make a return.[5] But in trespass against the plaintiff

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[1] Carrington *v.* Roots, 2 M. & W. 248; Cooper *v.* Stower, 9 Johns. 331; Suffern *v.* Townsend, Ibid. 35.

[2] Cheever *v.* Pearson, 16 Pick. 266.

[3] Aitkenhead *v.* Blades, 5 Taunt. 198. And see Taylor *v.* Cole, 3 T. R. 292, 296, per Buller, J.; Six Carpenters' Case, 8 Co. 146.

[4] Taylor *v.* Smith, 7 Taunt. 156. See post, § 632, 633.

[5] Britton *v.* Cole, 1 Salk. 408; 1 Ld. Raym. 305; Barker *v.* Miller, 6 Johns. 195; Blackley *v.* Sheldon, 7 Johns. 32; Crowther *v.* Ramsbottom, 7 T. R. 654; Cheasley *v.* Barnes, 10 East, 73; Middleton *v.* Price, 1 Wils. 17; Rowland *v.* Veale, Cowp. 20.

in a former action, or against a stranger, or where the action is brought by a stranger whose goods have been wrongfully taken by the sheriff, under an execution issued against another person, the sheriff or his officers, justifying under the process, will be held also to prove the judgment upon which it issued.[1] If the defendant in fact had the process in his hands at the time, he may justify under it, though he then declared that he entered the premises for another cause.[2]

§ 630. If the defendant justifies the destruction of the plaintiff's property by the *defence of his own*, he must aver and prove, that he could not otherwise preserve his own property.[3] If, however, the plaintiff's dog were killed in the act of pursuing the defendant's deer in his park, or rabbits in his warren, or poultry within his own grounds, this will justify the killing, without proof of any higher necessity.[4]

§ 631. Where the issue is upon a *right of way*, the defendant must prove either a deed of grant to him, or those under whom he claims, or an exclusive and uninterrupted enjoyment for at least twenty years.[5] If the issue is upon a *right to dig and take gravel* or other material for necessary *repairs*, the defendant must allege and prove, that the repairs were necessary, and that the materials were used or in the process of being used for that purpose.[6]

§ 632. If a *right of way*, or any other *easement* is pleaded

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[1] Martyn *v.* Podger, 5 Burr. 2631; Lake *v.* Billers, 1 Ld. Raym. 733; Britton *v.* Cole, 1 Salk. 408, 409.

[2] Crowther *v.* Ramsbottom, 7 T. R. 654.

[3] Wright *v.* Ramscott, 1 Saund. 84; Vere *v.* Cawdor, 11 East, 568; Janson *v.* Brown, 1 Campb. 41.

[4] Barrington *v.* Turner, 3 Lev. 28; Wadhurst *v.* Damme, Cro. Jac. 45; Janson *v.* Brown, 1 Campb. 41; Vere *v.* Cawdor, 11 East, 568, 569.

[5] Hewlins *v.* Shippam, 5 B. & C. 221; Cocker *v.* Cowper. 1 Cr. M. & R. 418. See Ante, tit. PRESCRIPTION, § 537–546.

[6] Peppin *v.* Shakespear, 6 T. R. 748.

in justification of a trespass on lands, whether it be in the defendant himself, or in another under whose command he acted, the plaintiff cannot controvert this right by evidence under the general replication of *de injuria sua*, but must *specifically traverse* the right as claimed.[1] And where a right of way is claimed, under a non-existing grant from a person who was seised in fee, and the plaintiff traverses the grant, he cannot, under this issue, dispute the seisin in fee for the purpose of rebutting the presumption of a grant, for it is impliedly admitted by the replication.[2]

§ 633. Wherever the defendant pleads matter of fact in justification, as distinguished from mere matter of record, title, or authority, it may be traversed by the plaintiff, by the general replication *de injuriâ sua, absque tali causâ*.[3] This replication being a traverse of the whole plea, the plaintiff is at liberty under it to adduce any evidence disproving the facts alleged in the plea. But he cannot go into any evidence of new matter, which shows that the defendant's allegation, though true, does not justify the trespass. Thus, in an action for trespass and false imprisonment, if the defendant justifies the commitment as a magistrate, for an offence which is bailable, to which the plaintiff replies *de injuria*, he cannot, under this replication, avoid the justification by evidence of a tender and refusal of bail.[4] So, if the defendant justifies an assault and battery by the plea of *son assault demesne*, and the plaintiff replies *de injuria*, he will not be permitted to show that the defendant, having entered the plaintiff's house, misbehaved there.[5] Thus, also, in trespass by a tenant, against his landlord, for turning him out of possession, where the defendant pleaded a fact by which the lease was forfeited, to which the plaintiff replied

[1] Crogate's Case, 8 Co. 66. And see Lowe *v.* Govett, 3 B. & Ad. 863.
[2] Cowlishaw *v.* Cheslyn, 1 Cr. & J. & 48.
[3] See Gould on Pleading, ch. vii. § 26 – 30.
[4] Sayre *v.* E. of Rochford, 2 W. Bl. 1165, 1169, per De Grey, C. J.
[5] King *v.* Phippard, Carth. 280.

de injuriâ, it was held, after proof of the fact of forfeiture, that the plaintiff under this replication could not prove the acceptance of rent by the defendant, as a waiver of the forfeiture, for he should have replied it specially, in avoidance of the plea.[1] The general rule is, that all matters which confess and avoid, whether alleged by the plaintiff or defendant, must be specially pleaded; otherwise, the proof of them is not admissible.[2]

§ 634. The same principle applies to all cases, where the defendant justifies the trespass by a plea answering the gist of the action, and the plaintiff would avoid the plea by proving, that the defendant exceeded the authority under which he acted, and thus became a trespasser *ab initio*. In such cases the plaintiff cannot show the *excess* under a general replication; but must distinctly allege it in a special replication, in the nature of a *new assignment*.[3] Thus, in trespass for taking and impounding the plaintiff's cattle, where the defendant justifies for that he took them *damage feasant*, the plaintiff will not be permitted, under a general replication, to prove that the defendant abused one of the beasts, so that it died, whereby he became a trespasser *ab initio;* for he should have specially replied the excess.[4] So, in trespass for breaking and entering the plaintiff's house, and expelling him from it, where the defendant justified the breaking and entering, under a writ of *fieri facias*, which, it was held, covered the expulsion, it was also held, that the plaintiff could not be permitted to rely on the expulsion as an excess, without specially replying it.[5] The replication of excess

[1] Warrall *v.* Clare, 2 Campb. 629.

[2] 2 Stark. Evid. 825.

[3] Gould on Pleading, ch. vi. part 2, § 110; 1 Chitty on Pleading, p. 512, 513, 542–552; Monprivatt *v.* Smith, 2 Campb. 175; Warrall *v.* Clare, Ib. 629.

[4] Gates *v.* Bayley, 2 Wils. 313; Gargrave *v.* Smith, 1 Salk. 221; Bull. N. P. 81; Moore *v.* Taylor, 5 Taunt. 69.

[5] Taylor *v.* Cole, 3 T. R. 292, 296.

admits the justification as alleged, and precludes the plaintiff from offering any evidence to disprove it.[1]

§ 635. If a justification is pleaded, and thereupon the plaintiff makes a *new assignment*, to which the defendant pleads not guilty, if the plaintiff proves only one trespass, he must also clearly show, that the trespass proved is a different one from that mentioned in the plea; for if the circumstances are alike, the Jury will be instructed to presume it to be the same.[2]

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[1] Pickering *v.* Rudd, 1 Stark. R. 56; 4 Campb. 219.

[2] Darby *v.* Smith, 2 M. & Rob. 184.

TROVER.

§ 636. This action, the form of which is fictitious, is in substance a remedy to recover the value of personal chattels, wrongfully converted by another to his own use. To entitle the plaintiff to recover, two points are essential to be proved; — (1.) property in the plaintiff,[1] and a right of possession at the time of the conversion; and (2.) a conversion of the thing by the defendant to his own use. Whether the defendant originally came to the possession of the thing by right or by wrong, is not material. The plaintiff should also be prepared to prove the value of the goods at the time and place of the conversion; though this is not essential to the maintenance of the action.

§ 637. (1.) The *property* in the plaintiff may be either general and absolute, or only special; the latter of these interests being sufficient for the purpose.[2] And where the plaintiff has a special property, he may maintain this action against even the general owner, if he wrongfully deprives him of the possession.[3] Special property, in a strict sense, may be said to consist in the lawful custody of the goods, with a right of detention against the general owner;[4] but a

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[1] Per Ld. Mansfield, 1 T. R. 56. See also 2 Saund. 47 *a* to 47 *k*, note (1.)

[2] Webb *v.* Fox, 7 T. R. 398, per Lawrence, J.

[3] Roberts *v.* Wyatt, 2 Taunt. 268; Spoor *v.* Holland, 8 Wend. 445.

[4] The nature of special property is thus discussed by Mr. Justice Story. "What is meant by a special property in a thing? Does it mean a qualified right or interest in the thing, a *jus in re*, or a right annexed to the thing? Or does it mean merely a lawful right of custody or possession of the thing, which constitutes a sufficient title to maintain that possession against wrongdoers by action or otherwise? If the latter be its true signification, it is little more than a dispute about terms; as all persons

lower degree of interest will sometimes suffice, against a stranger; for a mere wrongdoer is not permitted to question

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will now admit, that every bailee, even under a naked bailment from the owner, and every rightful possessor by act or operation of law, has in this sense a special property in the thing. But, this certainly is not the sense, in which the phrase is ordinarily understood. When we speak of a person's having a property in a thing, we mean, that he has some fixed interest in it, (*jus in re*,) or some fixed right attached to it, either equitable or legal; and when we speak of a special property in a thing, we mean some special fixed interest, or right therein, distinct from, and subordinate to, the absolute property or interest of the general owner. Thus, for example, if goods are pledged for a debt, we say, that the pledgee has a special property therein; for he has a qualified interest in the thing, coextensive with his debt, as owner *pro tanto*. So we say, that artificers and workmen, who work on or repair a chattel, and warehousemen, and wharfingers, and factors, and carriers, have a special property in the chattel confided to them for hire, for the particular purpose of their vocation, because they have a lien thereon for the amount of the hire due to them, and a rightful possession in virtue of that lien, even against the general owner, which he cannot displace without discharging the lien. So the sheriff, who has lawfully seized goods on an execution, may in this sense be said, without, perhaps, straining the propriety of language, to have a special property in the goods, although, more correctly speaking, the goods should be deemed to be in the custody of the law, and his possession a lawful possession, binding the property for the purposes of the execution against the general owner, as well as against wrongdoers. But, it seems a confusion of all distinctions, to say, that a naked bailee, such as a depositary, has a special property, when he has no more than a lawful custody or possession of the thing, without any vested interest therein, for which he can detain the property, even for a moment, against the lawful owner. It might, with far more propriety, be stated, that a gratuitous borrower has a special property in the thing bailed to him, because, during the time of the bailment, he has a right to the use of the thing, and seems thus clothed with a temporary ownership for the purposes of the loan. Yet, this has sometimes been a matter denied or doubted.

"Mr. Justice Blackstone has defined an absolute property to be, 'Where a man has solely and exclusively the right, and also the occupation, of any movable chattels, so that they cannot be transferred from him, or cease to be his, without his own act or default;' and qualified, limited, or special property to be such, 'as is not in its nature permanent, but may sometimes subsist, and at other times not subsist.' And, after illustrating this doctrine by cases of qualified property in animals *fera naturæ*, and in the elements of fire, light, air, and water, he then proceeds; 'These kinds of qualifi-

the title of a person in the actual possession and custody of the goods, whose possession he has wrongfully invaded. The

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cation in property depend upon the peculiar circumstances of the subject-matter, which is not capable of being under the absolute dominion of any proprietor. But property may also be of a qualified or special nature, on account of the peculiar circumstances of the owner, when the thing itself is very capable of absolute ownership. As in case of bailment, or delivery of goods to another person for a particular use ; as to a carrier to convey to London, to an innkeeper to secure in his inn, or the like. Here there is no absolute property in either the bailor or the bailee, the person delivering, or him to whom it is delivered ; for the bailor hath only the right, and not the immediate possession ; the bailee hath the possession, and only a temporary right. But it is a qualified property in them both ; and each of them is entitled to an action, in case the goods be damaged or taken away ; the bailee, on account of his immediate possession ; the bailor, because the possession of the bailee is, immediately, his possession also. So also in case of goods pledged or pawned upon condition, either to repay money or otherwise ; both the pledgor and pledgee have a qualified, but neither of them an absolute, property in them ; the pledgor's property is conditional, and depends upon the performance of the condition of repayment, &c. ; and so, too, is that of the pledgee, which depends upon its non-performance. The same may be said of goods distrained for rent, or other cause of distress ; which are in the nature of a pledge, and are not, at the first taking, the absolute property of either the distrainor, or the party distrained upon ; but may be redeemed, or else forfeited, by the subsequent conduct of the latter. But a servant, who hath the care of his master's goods or chattels, as a butler of plate, a shepherd of sheep, and the like, hath not any property or possession, either absolute or qualified, but only a mere charge or oversight.' The cases, here put by the learned Commentator, of qualified property, are clearly cases, where the bailee has an interest or lien *in rem*. Mr. Justice Lawrence, on one occasion, said ; 'Absolute property is, where one, having the possession of chattels, has also an exclusive right to enjoy them, and which can only be defeated by some act of his own. Special property is where he, who has the possession, holds them subject to the claims of other persons. There may be special property in various instances. There may be special property without possession ; or there may be special property, arising simply out of a lawful possession, and which ceases, when the true owner appears. Such was the case of Armory *v.* Delamirie.'

"Now, with reference to the case in judgment, the language of the learned judge may be strictly correct ; for it is by no means clear, that the bankrupt had not an absolute property in the chattels, good against all the world, until his assignees asserted some title to it. The case cited, of

naked possession of goods with claim of right, is sufficient evidence of title, against one who shows no better right.[1]

Armory *v.* Delamirie, was the case of goods coming to the party's possession by finding, where he might justly be said to be entitled to it, as well as possessed of it, as absolute owner, against all the world, until the rightful owner appeared and claimed it; and if it was never claimed, his title as finder remained absolute. The case of a naked depositary does not seem to have been here presented to the mind of the learned judge. Indeed, there is no small refinement and subtilty in suggesting, that a person, lawfully in possession of a thing, has, at the same time, a special property therein against strangers, and no property at all against the true owner. What sort of special property is that, which has no existence against the owner of the thing, and yet, at the same time, has an existence against other persons? Can there be property, and no property, at the same time? If the language were, that, when a party has a right of possession, that right cannot lawfully be violated by mere wrongdoers; but, if violated, it may be redressed by an action of trespass or trover, it would be intelligible. If the language were, that a person may have a present temporary or defeasible property in a thing, subject to be devested by the subsequent claim of the rightful owner under his paramount title, (such as in the case of the finder of chattels,) or a temporary property not special, which is to become absolute, or extinguished, by future events, (such as the possession of an abstract of the title of the vendor by the vendee, under a contract for a sale and conveyance of real estate,) there would be little difficulty in comprehending the nature and quality of the right, as a *jus in re.* It would be a present fixed right of property, subject to be devested or destroyed by matters *in futuro.* In short, it would be a defeasible, but vested interest *in rem.* But in the case of a naked deposit, by the very theory of the contract, the bailor never means to part for a moment with his right of property, either generally or specially, but solely with his present possession of it; and the undertaking of the bailee is not to restore any right of property, but the mere possession to the bailee. It is this change of possession, which constitutes the known distinction between the custody of a bailee, and that of a mere domestic servant; for, in the latter case, there is no change whatever of possession of the goods, but the possession remains in the master, and the servant has but a charge, or oversight; whereas, in the case of a bailee, there is a positive change of possession. The true description of the right conferred on a naked bailee, is that, which Mr. Justice Blackstone, in the passage before cited, calls a 'possessory interest,' or right of possession, in contradistinction to a general or special property." See Story on Bailments, § 93 *g*, *h*, *i*.

[1] Sutton *v.* Buck, 2 Taunt. 302; Armory *v.* Delamirie, 1 Str. 505; Burton *v.* Hughes, 2 Bing. 173; Giles *v.* Grover, 6 Bligh, 277; Story on

Hence the sheriff, who has attached goods, may maintain this action against one who takes them from his possession, or from that of his bailee for mere custody.[1]

§ 638. Where the plaintiff claims title to goods under a *sale*, and a question is made as to the time when the property passed, it will be material for him to prove, that everything that the seller had to do was already done, and that nothing remained to be done on his own part, but to take away the specific goods. They must have been weighed or measured, and specifically designated and set apart by the vendor, subject to his control, the vendor remaining, at most, but a mere bailee.[2] If they were sold at auction, the property passes to the vendee, although the goods were not to be delivered to him until the auctioneer had paid the duties to the government; or although they were to be kept by the auctioneer as a warehouseman, for a stipulated time.[3] If, before the terms of sale are complied with, the vendor's servant delivers them to the vendee by mistake, no property passes.[4] Nor does any property pass by a verbal contract of sale, which the statute of frauds requires to be in writing.[5] If a specific article, such as a ship, for example, is to be built, and the price is to be paid by instalments as the work ad-

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Bailments, § 93 *d*, *e*, *f*; Duncan *v.* Spear, 11 Wend. 54; Faulkner *v.* Brown, 13 Wend. 63.

[1] Wilbraham *v.* Snow, 2 Saund. 47; Story on Bailments, § 93 *e*, *f*; § 132 - 135; Brownell *v.* Manchester, 1 Pick. 232; Badlam *v.* Tucker, Ibid. 389. Whether the sheriff's bailee for safe keeping can maintain trover, is a point upon which the decisions are not uniform. See Story on Bailments, § 133; Ludden *v.* Leavitt, 9 Mass. 104; Poole *v.* Symonds, 1 New Hamp. R. 289; Odiorne *v.* Colley, 2 New Hamp. R. 66.

[2] Tarling *v.* Baxter, 6 B. & C. 360; Bloxam *v.* Saunders, 4 B. & C. 948; Simmons *v.* Swift, 5 B. & C. 857.

[3] Hinde *v.* Whitehouse, 7 East, 558, 571; Phillimore *v.* Barry, 1 Campb. 513.

[4] Bishop *v.* Shillito, 2 B. & Ald. 329, note (*a*), per Bayley, J. And see Brandt *v.* Bowlby, 2 B. & Ad. 932.

[5] Bloxsome *v.* Williams, 3 B. & C. 234.

vances, the payment of the instalments as they fall due vests the property of the ship in the vendee; but if the contract is general, without instalments, it is otherwise.[1] But though the property thus passes by the contract of sale, in the manner above stated, yet by rescinding the contract the property of the vendee is divested, and the vendor is remitted to his former right.[2] If the sale is fraudulent, or illegal, or if the goods were obtained by false pretences, or were stolen and sold by the thief to an innocent purchaser, no property passes.[3]

§ 639. Where the plaintiff claims title as the holder of a *bank note, bill of exchange, promissory note, exchequer bill,*[4] government bond made payable to the holder,[5] or other *negotiable security,* whether payable to bearer, or to order, and indorsed in blank; it is sufficient for him to show, that he took it *boná fide* and for a valuable consideration; for this vests the title in him, without regard to the title or want of title in the person from whom he received it. It was formerly held, that if the latter came to the possession by felony, or fraud, or other *mala fides,* it was incumbent on the plaintiff to show, that he had used due and reasonable caution in taking it; but though gross negligence in the transferee may still be shown, as evidence of fraud, though not equivalent to it, yet his title is now held to depend, not on the degree of caution which he used, but on his good faith in the transaction.[6] If the

[1] Woods *v.* Russell, 5 B. & Ald. 942; Clarke *v.* Spence, 4 Ad. & El. 448; Goss *v.* Quinton, 3 M. & G. 825; Bishop *v.* Crawshay, 3 B. & C. 419; Mucklow *v.* Mangles, 1 Taunt. 318.

[2] Pattison *v.* Robinson, 5 M. & S. 105; Ante, § 615.

[3] Wilkinson *v.* King, 2 Campb. 335; Noble *v.* Adams, 7 Taunt. 59; Packer *v.* Gillies, 2 Campb. 336, *n.*; Peer *v.* Humphrey, 2 Ad. & El. 495.

[4] Wookey *v.* Pole, 4 B. & Ald. 1.

[5] Gorgier *v.* Mieville, 3 B. & C. 45.

[6] Story on Bills, § 415, 416; Story on Promissory Notes, § 193 – 197, 382; Bayley on Bills, p. 130, 131, 524, 531 (5th ed.); Chitty & Hulme on Bills, p. 254 – 257; Goodman *v.* Harvey, 4 Ad. & El. 870; Uther *v.* Rich, 10 Ad. & El. 784.

security was lost by the plaintiff, and has been found and converted by the defendant, who has paid part of the proceeds to the plaintiff; the acceptance of such part is no waiver of the tort, but trover still lies for the security.[1]

§ 640. There must also be shown in the plaintiff a right to the *present possession* of the goods. If he has only a special property, there must, ordinarily, be evidence of actual possession;[2] but the general property has possession annexed to it, by construction of law.[3] If, however, there is an intermediate right of possession in another person as lessee, the general owner cannot maintain this action. Therefore a lessor of chattels cannot have an action of trover against one who has taken them from the possession of his lessee, so long as the right of the lessee remains in force.[4] But if the interest of the tenant or possessor is determined, whether by forfeiture or otherwise, the general owner may sue. Thus, if the tenant has unlawfully sold the machinery demised with a mill;[5] or, if a stranger cuts down and removes a tree,

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[1] Burn *v.* Morris, 4 Tyrw. 485.

[2] Coxe *v.* Harden, 4 East, 211; Hotchkiss *v.* M'Vickar, 12 Johns. 407; Sheldon *v.* Soper, 14 Johns. 352; Dennie *v.* Harris, 9 Pick. 364. A factor to whom goods have been consigned, but which have not yet come to hand, may maintain trover for them; and this is said to contradict, or at least to form an exception to the rule stated in the text. See Fowler *v.* Down, 1 B. & P. 47, per Eyre, C. J. But the possession of the carrier being the possession of the factor, whose servant he is for this purpose, the case would seem, on this ground, to be reconcilable with the rule. Bull. N. P. 36; Dutton *v.* Solomonson, 3 B. & P. 584; Dawes *v.* Peck, 8 T. R. 330; Chitty on Contr. p. 384; Story on Contr. § 509.

[3] Gordon *v.* Harper, 7 T. R. 12, per Grose, J.; 2 Saund. 47 *a*, note (1); Ayer *v.* Bartlett, 9 Pick. 156; Foster *v.* Gorton, 5 Pick. 185.

[4] Ibid. Smith *v.* Plomer, 15 East, 607; Wheeler *v.* Train, 3 Pick. 255; Pain *v.* Whittaker, Ry. & M. 99; Fairbank *v.* Phelps, 22 Pick. 535; Ante, § 616. And see Farrant *v.* Thompson, 5 B. & A. 826. But an intervening right by way of lien, such as that of a carrier, will not deprive the general owner of this remedy, against a wrongdoer. Gordon *v.* Harper, 7 T. R. 12; Nicolls *v.* Bastard, 2 C. M. & R. 659.

[5] Farrant *v.* Thompson, 5 B. & A. 826.

during the term;[1] the general owner may maintain this action against the purchaser or stranger. Upon the same general principle of right to the immediate possession, the purchaser of goods, not sold on credit, has no right to this form of remedy, until he has paid or tendered the price;[2] even though he has the key of the apartment where the goods are stored, if the vendor still retains the general control of the premises.[3] So, if the purchaser of lands, being permitted to occupy until default of payment, the title remaining in the vendor for his security, cuts down and sells timber without leave from the vendor, the latter may have trover against the purchaser.[4] And if the bailee of goods for a special purpose, transfers them to another in contravention of that purpose, the remedy is the same.[5] The bailee of materials to be manufactured, may also have this action against a stranger, though the goods were taken by the defendant from the possession of a third person, whom the plaintiff had hired to perform the work.[6] So, a ship-owner may maintain trover for the goods shipped, against the sheriff who attaches them without payment or tender of the freight due.[7]

§ 641. An *executor* or *administrator* has the property of the goods of his testator or intestate vested in him before his actual possession; and therefore may have trover or trespass against one who has previously taken them. And though he does not prove the will, or receive letters of administration, for a long time after the death of the testator or intestate, yet

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[1] Berry *v.* Heard, Cro. Car. 242; Palm. 327; 7 T. R. 13; Blaker *v.* Anscombe, 1 New Rep. 25.

[2] Bloxam *v.* Saunders, 4 B. & C. 941; Miles *v.* Gorton, 4 Tyrw. 295.

[3] Milgate *v.* Kebble, 3 Man. & Gr. 100.

[4] Moores *v.* Wait, 3 Wend. 104.

[5] Wilkinson *v.* King, 2 Campb. 335; Loeschman *v.* Machin, 2 Stark. R. 311. But if a consignee of goods for sale, at a price not less than a certain sum, sells them for a less sum, it is not a conversion, but the remedy is by a special action on the case. Sarjeant *v.* Blunt, 16 Johns. 74.

[6] Eaton *v.* Lynde, 15 Mass. 242.

[7] De Wolf *v.* Dearborn, 4 Pick. 466.

the property will be adjudged to have been in him, by relation, immediately upon the decease.[1]

§ 642. (2.) The plaintiff must in the next place show, that the defendant has *converted* the goods to his own use. A *conversion* in the sense of the law of trover, consists either in the appropriation of the thing to the party's own use and beneficial enjoyment, or, in its destruction, or in exercising dominion over it, in exclusion or defiance of the plaintiff's right, or, in withholding the possession from the plaintiff, under a claim of title, inconsistent with his own.[2] It may, therefore be either direct, or constructive; and of course is proved either directly, or by inference. Every *unlawful taking*, with intent to apply the goods to the use of the taker, or of some other person than the owner, or having the effect of destroying or altering their nature, is a conversion.[3]

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[1] 1 Com. Dig. 341, tit. Administration, B. 10; Ibid. 311, tit. Action upon the Case upon Trover, B; Rex *v.* Horsley, 8 East, 410, per Ld. Ellenborough; Doe *v.* Porter, 3 T. R. 13, 16; Long *v.* Hebb, Sty. 341; Locksmith *v.* Creswell, 2 Roll. Abr. 399, pl. 1; Anon. Comb. 451, per Holt, C. J; 2 Selw. N. P. 777, 10th ed.; Patten *v.* Patten, 1 Alcock & Napier, R. 493, 504. In Woolley *v.* Clark, 5 B. & Ald. 744, it was said, that, as to the administrator, his title being derived wholly from the Ecclesiastical Court, no right vested in him until the grant of letters of administration; but the resolution of this point was not essential to the decision in that case, as the defendant, who sold the goods as administrator, sold them after notice of the existence of the will, by which the plaintiff was appointed executrix.

[2] Fouldes *v.* Willoughby, 8 M. & W. 546–551; Keyworth *v.* Hill, 3 B. & Ald. 685; Bristol *v.* Burt, 7 Johns. 254; Murray *v.* Burling, 10 Johns. 172. But the mere cutting down of trees, without taking them away, is not a conversion. Mires *v.* Solebay, 2 Mod. 245.

[3] Bull. N. P. 44; 2 Saund. 47 *g*, by Williams; Prescott *v.* Wright, 6 Mass. 20; Peirce *v.* Benjamin, 14 Pick. 356; Thurston *v.* Blanchard, 22 Pick. 18. But if a tortious taking has been subsequently assented to by the owner, the remedy in trover is gone. Hewes *v.* Parkman, 20 Pick. 90; Rotch *v.* Hawes, 12 Pick. 136; Clarke *v.* Clarke, 6 Esp. 61; Brewer *v.* Sparrow, 7 B. & C. 310. Taking the plaintiff's goods by mistake, supposing them to be defendant's own, and a subsequent promise to restore them, the performance of which was neglected, have been held sufficient evidence of a conversion. Durell *v.* Mosher, 8 Johns. 445. See further, Harrington *v.* Payne, 15 Johns. 431.

But if it does not interfere with the owner's dominion over the property, nor alter its condition, it is not. Upon these principles, it has been held, that if a ferryman wrongfully put the horses of a passenger out of the boat, without farther intent concerning them, it may be a trespass, but is not a conversion; but if he make any farther disposition of them, inconsistent with the owner's rights, it is a conversion.[1] So, the taking possession of the bankrupt's goods, by his assignees, is a conversion, as against him, for which he may maintain trover, to try the validity of the commission, without making a demand.[2] So, using a thing, without license of the owner, is a conversion; as is also the misuse or detention of a thing, by the finder, or other bailee.[3] So, the adulteration of wine or other liquor by putting water into it, is a conversion of the whole quantity; but the taking away of part is not so, if the residue remains in the same state as before, and is not withheld from the owner.[4] And though a factor, entrusted with goods for sale, may in many cases lawfully deliver them over to another for the same purpose; yet if a bailee of goods deliver them over to another, in violation of the orders of the bailor, it is a conversion.[5] A mis-delivery of goods, also, by a wharfinger, carrier, or other bailee, is a conversion;[6] but the accidental loss of them by the carrier is not.[7] A wrongful sale of another's goods, is also

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[1] Fouldes *v.* Willoughby, 8 M. & W. 540.

[2] Summersett *v.* Jarvis, 3 Brod. & Bing. 2.

[3] Mulgrave *v.* Ogden, Cro. El. 219; Ld. Peter *v.* Heneage, 12 Mod. 519; Wheelock *v.* Wheelwright, 5 Mass. 104; Story on Bailm. § 188, 233, 241, 269, 396; Portland Bank *v.* Stubbs, 6 Mass. 422, 427.

[4] Richardson *v.* Atkinson, 1 Stra. 576; Philpott *v.* Kelley, 3 Ad. & El. 306; Dench *v.* Walker, 14 Mass. 500; Young *v.* Mason, 8 Pick. 551. The mere fact of a bailee's bottling a cask of wine, is not evidence of a conversion. Ibid

[5] Bromley *v.* Coxwell, 2 B. & P. 438; Seyds *v.* Hay, 4 T. R. 260.

[6] Devereux *v.* Barclay, 2 B. & Ald. 702; Youl *v.* Harbottle, 1 Peake, R. 49; Stephenson *v.* Hart, 4 Bing. 483; Story on Bailm. § 450, 451, 545 *b*.

[7] Ross *v.* Johnson, 5 Burr. 2825; Kirkman *v.* Hargreaves, 1 Selw. N.

a conversion of them;[1] and though the custody of the goods remains unaltered, yet the delivery of the documentary evidence of title, and the receipt of the value, completes the act of conversion;[2] but a mere purchase of goods, in good faith, from one who had no right to sell them, is not a conversion of them, against the lawful owner, until his title has been made known and resisted.[3] Nor is the averment of a conversion supported by evidence of nonfeasance alone; as, if a factor, employed to sell goods, neglects to sell them, or sells them without taking the requisite security.[4]

§ 643. On the other hand, though there has been an actual use or disposition of the goods of another, yet if it was done under the pressure of moral *necessity*, a *license* will sometimes be presumed, and it will not be a conversion. Such is the case, where a shipmaster throws goods into the sea, to save the ship from sinking.[5] So it is, if the thing was taken to do a work of *charity*, or to do a *kindness* to the owner, and without any intention of injury to it, or of converting it to his own use.[6]

P. 425; Dwight *v.* Brewster, 1 Pick. 50, 53; Owen *v.* Lewyn, 1 Ventr. 223; Anon. 2 Salk. 655. There are two cases seeming to the contrary of this; but in one of them, (Greenfield Bank *v.* Leavitt, 17 Pick. 1,) this point was not raised, but the defendant's liability for a loss was assumed, the case turning wholly on the question of damages; and in the other, (La Place *v.* Aupoix, 1 Johns. Cas. 406,) the case sufficiently shows, that there was an actual conversion.

[1] Edwards *v.* Hooper, 11 M. & W. 363; Featherstonhaugh *v.* Johnston, 8 Taunt. 237; Lovell *v.* Martin, 4 Taunt. 799; Alsager *v.* Close, 10 M. & W. 576; Robson *v.* Rolls, 1 M. & Rob. 239; Everett *v.* Coffin, 6 Wend. 603.

[2] Jackson *v.* Anderson, 4 Taunt. 24.

[3] McCombie *v.* Davies, 6 East, 538; Baldwin *v.* Cole, 6 Mod. 212.

[4] Bromley *v.* Coxwell, 2 B. & P. 438; Cairnes *v.* Bleecker, 12 Johns. 300; Jenner *v.* Joliffe, 6 Johns. 9.

[5] Bird *v.* Astcock, 2 Bulstr. 280. See also Clarke *v.* Clarke, 6 Esp. R. 81.

[6] Drake *v.* Shorter, 4 Esp. R. 165.

§ 644. Where the circumstances do not, of themselves, amount to an actual conversion, it will be incumbent on the plaintiff to give evidence of a *demand and refusal*, at any day prior to the commencement of the action, the time not being material, and also to show that the defendant, at the time of the demand, had it in his power to give up the goods.[1] But the demand and refusal are only *evidence of a prior conversion*, not in itself conclusive, but liable to be explained and rebutted by evidence to the contrary.[2] The refusal, moreover, must be absolute, amounting to a denial of the plaintiff's title to the possession; and not a mere excuse or apology for not delivering the goods at present;[3] but it need not be expressed; it may be inferred from non-compliance with a proper demand.[4] If the demand was made by an agent, the plaintiff must also prove his authority to make it; otherwise, the refusal will be no evidence of a conversion.[5] And if the demand is made upon a bailee of goods, entrusted to him to keep on the joint account of several owners, a demand by one alone, without the authority of the others, is not sufficient.[6] So also, if goods are bailed to two, a demand on one alone is not sufficient to charge the other

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[1] Bull. N. P. 44; Vincent *v.* Cornell, 13 Pick. 294; Nixon *v.* Jenkins, 2 H. Bl. 135; Edwards *v.* Hooper, 11 M. & W. 366, per Parke, B.; Smith *v.* Young, 1 Campb. 441. See Kinder *v.* Shaw, 2 Mass. 398; Chamberlain *v.* Shaw, 18 Pick. 278; Leonard *v.* Tidd, 2 Met. 6; Jones *v.* Fort, 9 B. & C. 764; Anon. 2 Salk. 655.

[2] 2 Saund. 47 *e*, by Williams; Wilton *v.* Girdlestone, 5 B. & Ald. 847, per Cur. Ordinarily, the Jury are instructed to find a conversion, upon evidence of a demand and refusal; but it will not be inferred by the Court, as a deduction of law. Mires *v.* Solebay, 2 Mod. 244; 10 Co. 56, 57; 2 Roll. Abr. 693; Jacoby *v.* Laussat, 6 S. & R. 300.

[3] Severin *v.* Keppell, 4 Esp. R. 156. And see Addison *v.* Round, 7 C. & P. 285; Philpott *v.* Kelley, 3 Ad. & El. 106; Pattison *v.* Robinson, 5 M. & S. 105.

[4] Watkins *v.* Woolley, 1 Gow, R. 69; Golightly *v.* Ryn, Lofft, R. 88; Davies *v.* Nicholas, 7 C. & P. 339. A demand in writing, left at the defendant's house, is sufficient. Ibid.; Logan *v.* Houlditch, 1 Esp. 22.

[5] Gunton *v.* Nurse, 2 Brod. & Bing. 447.

[6] May *v.* Harvey, 13 East, 197.

in trover, though it may suffice to charge him in an action *ex contractu*.[1]

§ 645. Even an absolute refusal is not always evidence of a conversion. Thus, where the plaintiff's goods were attached in the hands of his bailee, who on that account refused to deliver them, it was held no conversion.[2] So it is, where the possessor of goods refuses to deliver them up, until some ownership is shown in the claimant;[3] and where a servant, having the custody of goods apparently his master's, refuses to deliver them without an order from his master;[4] and where the principal refers the claimant to his agent, in whose hands the goods actually are at the time;[5] and where a general agent refuses to deliver the goods, the refusal not having been directed by his principal.[6] But where the refusal is within the scope of the agent's authority, it is otherwise. Thus a refusal by a pawnbroker's servant has been held evidence of a conversion by his master.[7] If, however, the servant actually disposes of the property, or withholds it, though for his master's use, as, if he sells it, or tortiously takes it, or, it being a negotiated bill of exchange delivered to him by an agent for discount, he passes it to the agent's credit in his master's books, and afterwards refuses to restore it to the principal, it is a conversion by the servant.[8]

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[1] Nicoll *v.* Glennie, 1 M. & S. 588; White *v.* Demary, 2 N. Hamp. 546; Griswold *v.* Plumb, 13 Mass. 298; Ante, Vol. 1, § 112, 174.

[2] Verrall *v.* Robinson, 2 C. M. & R. 495.

[3] Solomons *v.* Dawes, 1 Esp. 82, per Ld. Kenyon; Green *v.* Dunn, 3 Campb. 215, *n.*

[4] Alexander *v.* Southey, 5 B. & Ald. 247; Coles *v.* Wright, 4 Taunt. 198; Shotwell *v.* Few, 7 Johns. 302. But see Judah *v.* Kemp, 2 Johns. Cas. 411.

[5] Canot *v.* Hughes, 2 Bing. N. C. 448.

[6] Pothonier *v.* Dawson, Holt, Cas. 383.

[7] Jones *v.* Hart, 2 Salk. 441. And see Catterall *v.* Kenyon, 6 Jur. 507.

[8] Cranch *v.* White, 1 Bing. N. C. 414; Perkins *v.* Smith, 1 Wils. 328; Stephens *v.* Elwall, 4 M. & S. 260.

So, if the demand is qualified by the claimant's requiring that the goods be restored in their original plight, a general refusal is not evidence of a conversion.[1]

§ 646. If the parties are *tenants in common* of the chattel which is the subject of this action, it will not be sufficient for the plaintiff to prove, that the defendant has taken the chattel into his exclusive custody, and withholds the possession from the plaintiff; for this either party may lawfully do, each being equally entitled to the possession and use.[2] And for the like reason, this action will not lie against one part-owner who has changed the form of the chattel, by converting it to its ultimately intended and profitable use.[3] But the plaintiff, in such cases, must prove that the act of the defendant was tortious, having the effect, so far as the plaintiff is concerned, of a total destruction of the property.[4]

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[1] Rushworth *v.* Taylor, 6 Jur. 945; 3 Ad. & El. N. S. 699, S. C.

[2] Barnardiston *v.* Chapman, cited 4 East, 120; Holliday *v.* Camsell, 1 T. R. 658; Daniels *v.* Daniels, 7 Mass 137, per Parsons, C. J.

[3] Fennings *v.* Ld. Grenville, 1 Taunt. 241.

[4] 1 Taunt. 249; Co. Litt. 200 *a*, *b*; Bull. N. P. 34, 35; 2 Saund. 47 *h*, by Williams. Whether the absolute sale of the whole of the entire chattel by one of several owners in common, is of itself sufficient evidence of a conversion, to make him liable in trover at the suit of his co-tenant, is a point upon which there is some difference of opinion. The rule of the Common Law, that trespass lies, where one party destroys the thing owned in common, is not controverted. And it is generally conceded, that the party is equally liable in trover for an actual conversion of the property to his own use, at least, where the act of appropriation is such, as finally, by its nature, to preclude the other party from any future enjoyment of it. Such is the case where it is consumed in the use. And upon the same principle, where the sale is one of a series of acts, whether by the vendor or vendee, which result in putting the property forever out of the reach of the other party, it is a conversion. Such was the case of Barnardiston *v.* Chapman, 4 East, 121, where the defendants forcibly took the ship, owned in common, from the plaintiff's possession, changed her name, and sold her to a stranger, in whose possession she was lost in a storm at sea. Here the Court resolved, that the taking from the plaintiff's possession was not a conversion; but left it to the Jury to find, from the circumstances, that the ship was destroyed by the defendants' means; which they did, and it was

§ 647. If trover is brought by *husband and wife*, for goods which were the sole property of the feme, and were taken

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held well. But a sale alone was deemed insufficient to establish a conversion, by the opinion of the whole Court, in Heath *v.* Hubbard, 4 East, 110, 128, though the case itself was decided on the ground, that in the instance before them there was not a legal sale. Such also was the opinion of Best, J. in Barton *v.* Williams, 5 B. & Ald. 395; to which Holroyd, J. inclined; though Bayley, J. was of a different opinion, and Abbott, C. J. was inclined to think with him, that the sale in that case, which was of India warrants, was a conversion. But afterwards, in the same case, upon a writ of error in the Exchequer Chamber, 1 M'Cl. & Y. 406, 415, 416, the Court observed, that there was "great weight in the argument," that the original plaintiffs, being tenants in common with the defendants, could not maintain trover in a Court of law on the ground of a sale; but they did not decide the cause on that point, being of opinion that the tenancy in common had been previously severed by the parties. In this country, in a case where two being tenants in common of a quantity of wool, one of them, having the possession, sold a part of it, and retained the residue, claiming the whole as his own, and refusing to deliver up any part to the other, this was held not such a conversion of the property as to sustain an action of trover. Tubbs *v.* Richardson, 6 Verm. R. 442. See also Selden *v.* Hickock, 2 Caines, R. 166. The same doctrine was held in Oviatt *v.* Sage, 7 Conn. 95, where one tenant in common of a quantity of cheese, had sold the whole to a stranger. That there must either be "a destruction of the chattel, or something that is equivalent to it," was the opinion of Chambre, J. in Fennings *v.* Ld. Grenville, 1 Taunt. 249. And accordingly in this case it was resolved, that the conversion of the chattel into its ultimately destined and profitable material, as, of a whale, into oil, was no severance of the tenancy in common. On the same principle, namely, that while the thing substantially exists within the reach of the party, the tenancy in common remains unchanged, it has been repeatedly held, that a sale of the entire chattel, by the sheriff, on an execution against one of the owners, does not sever the tenancy, or devest the property of the others. St. John *v.* Standring, 2 Johns. 468; Mersereau *v.* Norton, 15 Johns. 179. But a disposition of a perishable article by one joint-owner, which prevents the other from recovering the possession, is deemed equivalent to its destruction. Lucas *v.* Wasson, 3 Dev. Rep. 398; confirmed in Cole *v.* Terry, 2 Dev. & Bat. 252, 254. See also Farrar *v.* Beswick, 1 M. & W. 688.

But there are cases, on the other hand, in which it has been said that a sale alone, by one tenant in common, is sufficient to charge him in trover, for a conversion of the entire chattel. The earliest and leading case to this effect, is that of Wilson et al. *v.* Reed, 3 Johns. 175; in which it appeared, that the plaintiffs and one Gibbs were joint-owners of a hogshead of rum and

before the marriage, proof of a conversion before or after the marriage will support the action; but if the husband sues

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a pair of scale beams, which the sheriff seized and sold *in toto* to the defendant, by virtue of an execution against Gibbs. The defendant sold the rum at retail to his customers; and in an action of trover brought against him for the goods, by the other two owners, the Judge at *nisi prius* instructed the Jury, that the retailing of the rum by the defendant was in law a destruction, so as to enable the plaintiffs to maintain the action to this extent; and his instructions were held correct. The learned Judge, who delivered the opinion of the Court in bank, placed it, as to this point, on the general ground, that a sale was a conversion of the property. But as in this case the property had actually been consumed by the vendee, beyond the power of recovery, it was to all intents an actual conversion, and the general remark was wholly uncalled for by the case in judgment. The same doctrine, however, was recognised in Hyde *v.* Stone, 9 Cowen, R. 230. This was an action of trover for certain articles of household furniture, farming utensils, and other personal property, of which the plaintiff was tenant in common with his step-father, the defendant. It was admitted by the defendant, that some of these articles had been sold by him, at different times since his marriage, during a period of six or seven years; and that others had been destroyed, and others nearly worn out; of all which it appeared that he had exhibited an account, estimating the value of the several articles, and charging the plaintiff for the value of his board, &c., leaving a balance due to the plaintiff, for which he admitted himself liable, and promised to pay. Hereupon the Judge instructed the Jury, that the plaintiff was entitled to recover the value of his share of the goods; and these instructions were held correct. Here, also, it is manifest, that the articles which had been sold, were utterly and forever gone beyond the reach of the plaintiff, by means of the wrongful act of the defendant; and that as to these, as well as those destroyed, the proof of actual conversion was complete. The remark, therefore, of the learned Judge, who delivered the opinion of the Court, that for a sale, trover will lie by one tenant in common against another, referring to the case of Wilson *v.* Reed, was not called for by the case before him, and may be regarded as an *obiter dictum*. A new trial having been granted, upon other grounds, the Jury were again instructed, that the plaintiff was entitled to recover the value of his two thirds of all the property sold, lost or destroyed. But it is observable, that the Court, in their final judgment, (7 Wend. 356 – 358,) regarded the property as wholly lost to the plaintiff, by the fault of the defendant; the only proposition laid down as the basis of their judgment being the settled doctrine, that trover will lie by one tenant in common, against another, for the loss or destruction of the chattel, while in his possession. Of a similar character was the case of Mumford *v.* McKay, 8 Wend. 442, which was a

alone, he must prove a conversion after the marriage.[1] If the action is against the husband and wife, the plaintiff must aver and prove, either a conversion by the wife alone, before the marriage, or a subsequent conversion by the joint act of both; and it seems, that in the latter case the evidence ought to show some act of conversion other than that which merely goes to the acquisition or detention of the property to their use; for if the goods remain in specie in their hands, it is a conversion only by the husband.[2]

§ 648. The DEFENCE of this action, in the United States, when it does not consist of matters of law, is almost universally made under the general issue of *not guilty;* a special plea in trover being as seldom seen here, as it was in England under the old rules of practice. And though in the latter country, this plea is now held, and perhaps wisely, to put in issue only the fact of conversion, and not its character, as rightful or otherwise, nor any other matter of inducement

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sale of wheat, in the grain; and of Farr *v.* Smith, 9 Wend. 338, which was a sale of wheat in the sheaf; in both of which cases the conversion was actual; though in both also, and apparently without much consideration, a sale seems to have been taken as in itself, and in all circumstances, a conversion. But the point was subsequently brought directly before the Supreme Court of the same State, in White *v.* Osborn, 21 Wend. 72, which was the sale of an entire sloop plying on Lake Champlain; which was held a conversion. The decision of the Court in this case was placed partly on the ground of the *dicta* above quoted, and partly on the decisions in Wilson *v.* Reed, Mumford *v.* McKay, and Hyde *v.* Stone, which have just been considered. Subsequently, it has been held in New York, that if the sheriff sells the entire property in goods owned by two, on an execution against one of them only, it is an abuse of his legal authority, which renders him liable as a trespasser *ab initio*. Waddell *v.* Cook, 2 Hill, N. Y. Rep. 47. See also Melville *v.* Brown, 15 Mass. 82, which, though briefly reported, was in fact very elaborately argued and well considered. But this point stands entirely clear of the question, whether one tenant in common may have trover for a sale only by the other.

[1] 2 Saund. 47 *g*, by Williams.

[2] 2 Saund. 47 *h*, *i*, by Williams; Draper *v.* Fulkes, Yelv. 165, and note (1), by Metcalf; Keyworth *v.* Hill, 3 B. & Ald. 685.

in the declaration, such as the title of the plaintiff, nor any matter of title or claim in the defendant, or of subsequent satisfaction or discharge of the action; yet in this country, as formerly in England, this plea still puts the whole declaration in issue.[1] Under it, therefore, the defendant may prove, by any competent evidence, that the title to the goods was in himself, either absolutely, as general owner, or as joint-owner with the plaintiff, or specially, as bailee, or by way of lien;[2] or that he took the goods for tolls, or for rent in arrear;[3] or he may disprove the plaintiff's title by showing a paramount title in a stranger, or otherwise;[4] or he may prove facts showing a license;[5] or, that the plaintiff has discharged other joint parties with the defendant, in the wrongful act complained of.[6] It has been said, that a release is the only special plea in trover;[7] but the statute of limitations, also, is usually pleaded specially;[8] and indeed there seems to be no reason why the same principle should not be admitted here, which prevails in other actions, namely, that the defendant may

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[1] 2 Selw. N. P. 1068, [2d Am. ed.]; 1 Chitty, Pl. 436, [5th Am. ed.]; Bull. N. P. 48.

[2] Skinner *v.* Upshaw, 2 Ld. Raym. 752; Bull. N. P. 45.
But to rebut the evidence of a demand and refusal, he must show, that he mentioned his lien at the time of refusal. Boardman *v.* Sill, 1 Campb. 410, *n.* See further, Laclough *v.* Towle, 3 Esp. 114, and the cases of lien collected in Roscoe on Evid. 408–412, [1st Am. ed.], 517–524, [6th Lond. ed.]

[3] Wallace *v.* King, 1 H. Bl. 13; Kline *v.* Husted, 3 Caines, R. 275; Shipwick *v.* Blanchard, 6 T. R. 298.

[4] Dawes *v.* Peck, 8 T. R. 330; Schermerhorn *v.* Van Volkenburgh, 11 Johns. 529; Kennedy *v.* Strong, 14 Johns. 128; Rotan *v.* Fletcher, 15 Johns. 207.

[5] Clarke *v.* Clarke, 6 Esp. R. 61; Bird *v.* Astcock, 2 Bulstr. 280.

[6] Dufresne *v.* Hutchinson, 3 Taunt. 117.

[7] Per Twisden, J. in Devoe *v.* Corydon, 1 Keb. 305.

[8] Bull. N. P. 48; Wingfield *v.* Stratford, Sayer, R. 15, 16; Swayn *v.* Stephens, Cro. Car. 245; Granger *v.* George, 5 B. & C. 150; 1 Campb. 558, per Ld. Ellenborough; 1 Danv. Abr. 25.

plead specially any thing, which, admitting that the plaintiff had once a cause of action, goes to discharge it.[1]

§ 649. The measure of *damages* in this action has already been considered under its appropriate head.[2] It may be added, that special damages are recoverable, if particularly alleged.[3] If the subject is a bill of exchange, or other security, the plaintiff is ordinarily entitled to the sum recoverable upon it, though the defendant may have sold it for a less sum.[4] And though the defendant cannot, under the general issue, show the non-joinder of another part-owner, to defeat the action, yet he may give that fact in evidence, in order to reduce the plaintiff's damages to the value of his own interest or share in the property.[5] The general measure of damages is the value of the thing taken;[6] but it has been held in England, that the Jury are not bound to find the value at the time of the conversion, but they may find, as damages, the value at a subsequent time, at their discretion.[7] In this country, however, the courts are inclined to adhere to the value at the time of the conversion, unless this value has subsequently been enhanced by the defendant.[8] Where the action is against an executor *de son tort*, proof that the goods have been applied in payment of debts of the intestate is admis-

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[1] 1 Tidd's Pr. 598. See Yelv. 174 *a*, note (1), by Metcalf.

[2] Ante, tit. DAMAGES, § 276. See further, Countess of Rutland's case, 1 Roll. Abr. 5.

[3] Davis *v.* Oswell, 7 C. & P. 804; Moon *v.* Raphael, 2 Bing. N. C. 310.

[4] Alsager *v.* Close, 10 M. & W. 576; McLeod *v.* M'Ghie, 2 Man. & Gr. 326; Mercer *v.* Jones, 3 Campb. 477.

[5] Bloxam *v.* Hubbard, 5 East, 420; Nelthorpe *v.* Dorrington, 2 Lev. 113; Wheelwright *v.* Depeyster, 1 Johns. 471.

[6] Finch *v.* Blount, 7 C. & P. 478, per Patteson, J.; Johnson *v.* Sumner, 1 Metc. 172.

[7] Greening *v.* Wilkinson, 1 C. & P. 625. And see Cook *v.* Hartle, 8 C. & P. 568; Whitehouse *v.* Atkinson, 3 C. & P. 344.

[8] Ante, tit. DAMAGES, § 276.

sible to reduce the damages; but he cannot retain for his own debt; nor, as it seems, for monies of his own which he has expended in payment of other debts of the intestate, if the goods still remain in his hands.[1]

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[1] Bull. N. P. 48; Whitehall *v.* Squire, Carth. 104; Mountford *v.* Gibson, 4 East, 441, 447.

WASTE.

§ 650. WASTE is "a spoil or destruction in corporeal hereditaments, to the disherison of him that hath the remainder or reversion in fee simple or fee tail."[1] It includes every act of lasting damage to the freehold or inheritance; and is punishable either by an action of waste, or by an action on the case. The former is a mixed action, in which the plaintiff generally recovers possession of the place wasted, which is forfeited by the tenant, together with damages for the injury; but in the latter action, damages only are recovered.

§ 651. The old action of waste still lies in some of the United States, the statute of Gloucester, 6 Edw. 1, c. 5, having been brought over and adopted in those States as part of the Common Law;[2] though it is seldom resorted to; but in others, it has never been recognised; the only remedy being either an action on the case, or an injunction.[3]

§ 652. The *action of waste* lies against a tenant for life or for years, in favor of him only who has the next immediate estate of inheritance, in reversion or remainder. The material averments in the declaration, and which the plaintiff must be prepared to prove, are, (1.) the title of the plaintiff, in stating which he must show how he is entitled to the inheritance, as fully and correctly as in a writ of entry on

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[1] 2 Bl. Comm. 281; Co. Lit. 52 *b*, 53.

[2] Jackson on Real Actions, p. 340; Carver *v.* Miller, 4 Mass. 559; Randall *v.* Cleaveland, 6 Conn. R. 329.

[3] Shult *v.* Baker, 12 S. & R. 273; Findlay *v.* Smith, 6 Munf. 134; Bright *v.* Wilson, 1 Cam. & Norw. 24; Sheppard *v.* Sheppard, 2 Hayw. 382.

intrusion, or any other writ in which an estate for life or years is set forth in the tenant; (2.) the demise, if there be one, or other title of the tenant, but with no more particularity than is necessary in stating an adversary's title; (3.) the quality, quantity and amount of the waste, and the place in which it was committed, as, whether in the whole premises, or in a distinct part of them, and whether it were done *sparsim*, as by cutting trees in different parts of a wood, or totally, as by prostrating an entire building. The averment of tenure may be either in the *tenet*, "which the said *T. holds*," or in the *tenuit*, "which he *held*," as it has reference to the time of the waste done, and not to the time of bringing the action. In the former case, the plaintiff will recover the place wasted, namely, that part of the premises in which the waste was exclusively done, if it were done in a part only, together with treble damages. But in the latter case, the tenancy being at an end, he will have judgment for his damages alone. If the waste was committed by an assignee of a tenant in dower or by the curtesy, the action, if brought by the heir of the husband or feme, must be against the original tenant, the assignee being regarded only as his bailiff or servant. But if the reversioner has also assigned his inheritance, and the assignee of the tenant for life has attorned, the latter is considered as the tenant, and he alone is liable for waste done by himself. So, if any lessee for life or years commits waste, and afterwards assigns his whole estate, the action of waste lies against the original tenant, and the place wasted may be recovered from the assignee, though he is not a party to the suit, the title of his assignor having been forfeited previous to the assignment. But if the assignee himself committed the waste, he alone is liable to the action. It follows, that a general plea of *non-tenure* is not a good plea to this action; but the defendant may plead a special non-tenure, as, for example, if he was lessee for life, and not a tenant in dower or by the curtesy, he may plead, that he assigned over all his estate, previous to

which no waste was committed; or, if he was the assignee, he may plead the assignment, and that no waste had subsequently been committed.[1]

§ 653. The plea usually termed the *general issue*, in the action of waste, is, that the defendant "did not make any waste, sale, or destruction in the messuage and premises aforesaid, as the plaintiff in his writ and declaration has supposed." This plea has been said to put in issue the whole declaration;[2] but the better opinion seems to be, that it puts in issue only the fact and circumstances of the waste done, to which point alone, therefore, is any evidence admissible. If the defendant would contest the plaintiff's title, or would show any matter in justification or excuse, such as, that he cut the timber for repairs, or the wood for fuel, or, that his lease was without impeachment of waste, or, that he has subsequently repaired the damage, prior to the commencement of the action, or, that he did the act by license from the plaintiff, or has any other like ground of defence, he must plead it specially.[3]

§ 654. In an *action on the case*, in the nature of waste, brought by a landlord, whether lessor, heir, or assignee, against his tenant, whether lessee or assignee, their respective titles are not set out with so much precision as in the action of waste, but their relations to each other are stated in a more general manner, namely, that the defendant was possessed of the described premises during the period mentioned, and held

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[1] See Jackson on Real Actions, p. 329 – 337, where also may be found precedents of the various counts in this action. See also 2 Inst. 301, 302; 2 Saund. 252 *a*, note (7), by Williams.

[2] This opinion of Sergeant Williams, 2 Saund. 238, note (5), founded on an implied admission of the point in a case in 2 Lutw. 1547, is shown to be not well founded, in Jackson on Real Actions, p. 338, 339.

[3] 2 Saund. 238, note (5), by Williams; Jackson on Real Actions, p. 339, 340.

and occupied them as tenant to the plaintiff, to whom the reversion during the same period belonged, under a certain demise previously made, and for a certain rent payable therefor to the plaintiff. But if the defendant is tenant for life, and the plaintiff is remainder-man or reversioner, it seems necessary to set forth the quantity of the defendant's estate; but it is not necessary to state the quantity of the estate of the plaintiff; nor is it expedient; for if he does state it, and mistakes it, the variance will be fatal.[1]

§ 655. In *both these kinds of action*, it seems necessary to state in the declaration the *special waste* complained of, as, whether it were voluntary or not, and whether in the house, and in what part thereof, or whether in the fences or trees, and the like; and the plaintiff will not be allowed to give evidence of one kind of waste, under an averment of another; as, if the defendant is charged with uncovering the roof of the house, the plaintiff will not be permitted to prove waste in the removal of fixtures; and if the averment is, that the defendant permitted the premises to be out of repair, evidence of acts of voluntary waste is inadmissible.[2] But it is not necessary, in either form of action, for the plaintiff to prove the whole waste stated; nor in an action on the case, is there any need that the Jury should find the particular circumstances of the waste, or find for the defendant as to so much of the waste as the plaintiff fails to

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[1] 2 Saund. 252 *c*, *d*, note by Williams.

[2] 2 Saund. 252 *d*, note by Williams; Edge *v.* Pemberton, 12 M. & W. 187; Ante, Vol. 1, § 52. If the waste is only permissive, it seems, that an action on the case in the nature of waste does not lie, the remedy, if any, being only in contract. Countess of Pembroke's case, 5 Co. 13; Gibson *v.* Wells, 1 New Rep. 290; Herne *v.* Bembow, 4 Taunt. 764; Jones *v.* Hill, 7 Taunt. 392; Martin *v.* Gillam, 7 Ad. & El. 540. But this action lies for waste done by a tenant, holding over after the expiration of his lease. Kinlyside *v.* Thornton, 2 W. Bl. 1111; Burchell *v.* Hornsby, 1 Campb. 360.

prove; for in this action the plaintiff goes only for his damages.[1]

§ 656. Under the *general issue, of not guilty*, in the action on the case, the entire declaration being open, the *plaintiff* must prove, (1.) his title, and the holding by the defendant, as alleged; (2.) the waste complained of; and (3.) the damages. But it is to be observed, that in the United States the law of waste is not held precisely in the same manner as in England; but it is accommodated to the condition and circumstances of a new country, still in the progress of settlement. Therefore, to cut down trees is not always held to be waste here, in every case where, by the Common Law of England, it would be so held; but regard is had to the condition of the land, and to the object of felling the trees, and whether good husbandry required that the land should be cleared and reduced to tillage; and generally, whether the tenant has, in the act complained of, conformed to the known usage and practice of the country in similar cases.[2] And to what extent wood and timber may be felled without waste, is a question of fact for the Jury to decide, under the direction of the Court.[3] Under this issue, therefore, it would seem, that the *defendant* may show that the act done was according to the custom of the country, and for the benefit of the land, it being virtually to show that it is no waste; though by the Common Law of England, such a defence, being matter in justification or excuse, must be specially pleaded.[4] But it is no defence, to show that the defendant was bound by covenant to yield up the premises in good repair at the end of the term, and that therefore the plaintiff should resort to

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[1] 2 Saund. 252 *d*, *e*, note by Williams.

[2] Findlay *v.* Smith, 6 Munf. 134; Jackson *v.* Brownson, 7 Johns. 227, 233; Parkins *v.* Cox, 2 Hayw. 339; Hastings *v.* Crunkleton, 3 Yeates, 261.

[3] Jackson *v.* Brownson, 7 Johns. 227, 233.

[4] Ibid. See Simmons *v.* Norton, 7 Bing. 640; 5 Moore & P. 645, S. C.

his remedy on the covenant; for he may have remedy in either mode, at his election; otherwise, he might lose his recompense, by being obliged to wait until the end of the term.[1]

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[1] 2 Saund. 252 *c*, note by Williams; Kinlyside *v.* Thornton, 2 W. Bl. 1111; Jefferson *v.* Jefferson, 3 Lev. 130.

WAY.

§ 657. A PRIVATE right of way may be said to exist only by grant, or agreement; for prescription is but a conclusive presumption of an original grant or right; and necessity, such as creates a right of way, may be regarded as a conclusive presumption of a grant or a license.[1] The nature of a prescription, whether for a right of way, or other incorporeal franchise, has already been considered, under that title.[2]

§ 658. Where one has a *way of necessity* over another's land, the party, while the way remains undefined, may pass over any part of the land, in the course least prejudicial to the owner and passable with reasonable convenience. But it is the right of the owner of the land to designate the particular course of such way; and he is bound to designate a convenient course. And if the way of necessity results from successive levies of executions upon the debtor's land, the land taken by the creditor, whose levy creates the necessity, must be burdened with the easement.[3]

§ 659. The *proof of a private way* must correspond with the description, whether it be in the declaration in an action for disturbance of the right, or in a special plea in trespass. Evidence of user of a right of way for all manner of carriages, is not sufficient to support an allegation of such right for all manner of cattle, though it is admissible under that issue; nor does evidence of a user of a way with horses,

[1] Nichols *v.* Luce, 24 Pick. 102; Woolrych on Ways, p. 72, note (*q.*)

[2] Ante, § 537–546.

[3] Farnum *v.* Platt, 8 Pick. 339; Russell *v.* Jackson, 2 Pick. 574, 578. And see Pernam *v.* Weed, 2 Mass. 203; Taylor *v.* Townsend, 8 Mass. 411.

carts and carriages, for certain purposes, necessarily prove a right of way for all purposes.[1] But the allegation of a foot-way, is supported by evidence of a carriage-way; and the allegation of a private way is supported by evidence of a public way; for in these cases the latter includes the former.[2] The extent of the right is a question for the Jury, under all the circumstances proved. But a user for all the purposes for which the party had occasion, is evidence of a general right of way.[3] The *termini* of the way are also material to be proved as alleged; for if the proof stops short of either, it is fatal, unless the pleadings are amended.[4] But the words "towards and unto" do not necessarily bind the party to the proof of a straight road;[5] nor is it a fatal variance, if it appear that the way, in its course, passes over an intermediate close of the party himself who claims it.[6]

§ 660. In an action on the case for *disturbance of a way*, or other easement, the defendant, on a traverse of the right, may show, that it has ceased to exist; or that, during the period of the supposed acquisition of a way by user, the land was in the possession of a tenant of the plaintiff; or, that the way was only by sufferance, during his own pleasure, for which the plaintiff paid him a compensation, or submitted to the condition of a gate across it;[7] or, that the plaintiff had submitted to an obstruction upon it for more than twenty

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[1] Ballard *v.* Dyson, 1 Taunt. 279; Cowling *v.* Higginson, 4 M. & W. 245. And see Brunton *v.* Hall, 1 Ad. & El. 792, N. S.; Higham *v.* Rabett, 3 Jur. 588; 5 Bing. N. C. 622, S. C.

[2] Davies *v.* Stephens, 7 C. & P. 570, per Ld. Denman; Brownlow *v.* Tomlinson, 1 Man. & Gr. 484.

[3] Cowling *v.* Higginson, 4 M. & W. 245; Allan *v.* Gomme, 11 Ad. & El. 759.

[4] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 58, 62, 63, 71, 72; Wright *v.* Rattray, 1 East, 377.

[5] Rex *v.* Marchioness of Downshire, 4 Ad. & El. 232.

[6] Jackson *v.* Shillito, cited 1 East, 381, 382. See Simpson *v.* Lewthwaite, 3 B. & Ad. 226.

[7] Reignolds *v.* Edwards, Willes, R. 282.

years;[1] or, that the right has been extinguished by unity of title and possession in the same person;[2] or, that the right is released and gone, by reason of an extinction or abandonment of the object for which it was granted; as, if it be a way to a warehouse, and the house is afterwards pulled down, and a dwelling-house is built upon the place.[3] And if the way is claimed by necessity, he may show, that the plaintiff can now approach the place by passing over his own land.[4]

§ 661. In *trespass*, also, if the defendant pleads a right of way, which is traversed, the same evidence is admissible on the part of the plaintiff, by way of rebutting the defence. So, under this issue, in any action, it may be shown, that the way has been duly discontinued or stopped.[5] But under a traverse of the right of way pleaded, it is not competent for the plaintiff to show, that the trespass complained of was committed beyond the limits of the right alleged; for it is irrelevant to the issue, and should be shown either by a replication of *extra viam*, or by a new assignment.[6]

§ 662. The existence of a *public way* is proved, either by a copy of the record, or by other documentary evidence of the original laying out by the proper authorities, pursuant to statutes; or, by evidence either of immemorial usage,[7] or, of *dedica-*

[1] Bower *v.* Hill, 1 Bing. N. C. 549, 555, per Tindal, C. J.; Rex *v.* Smith, 4 Esp. 109.

[2] Woolrych on Ways, p. 70, 71; Onley *v.* Gardiner, 4 M. & W. 496; Thomas *v.* Thomas, 2 C. M. & R. 34; Clayton *v.* Corby, 2 Ad. & El. 813, N. S.

[3] Allan *v.* Gomme, 11 Ad. & El. 759.

[4] Holmes *v.* Goring, 2 Bing. 76.

[5] Davison *v.* Gill, 1 East, 64.

[6] Stott *v.* Stott, 16 East, 343, 349.

[7] Commonwealth *v.* Low, 3 Pick. 408; Stedman *v.* Southbridge, 17 Pick. 162; Valentine *v.* Boston, 22 Pick. 75; Reed *v.* Northfield, 13 Pick. 94; Odiorne *v.* Wade, 5 Pick. 421; Young *v.* Garland, 6 Shepl. 409. Long use of a way by the public is *primâ facie* evidence that it was duly laid out as a public highway; and for this purpose, twelve years have been held

tion of the road to public use. In the latter case, two things are essential to be proved; the *act of dedication*, and the *acceptance* of it on the part of the public; and this may be either limited and partial, as, of a way excluding carriages, or it may be absolute and total.[1] Nor is it necessary that the dedication be made specifically, to a corporate body, capable of taking by grant; it may be to the general public, and limited only by the wants of the community.[2] If accepted and used by the public in the manner intended, it works an estoppel *in pais*, precluding the owner, and all claiming in his right, from asserting any ownership inconsistent with such use. The right of the public does not rest upon a grant by deed, nor upon a twenty years' possession; but upon the use of the land, with the assent of the owner, for such a length of time, that the public accommodation and private rights might be materially affected by an interruption of the enjoyment.[3] The issue is therefore a mixed question, of law and fact, to be found by the Jury, under the direction of the Court, upon consideration of all the circumstances. The length of the time of enjoyment furnishes no rule of law on the subject, which the Court can pronounce without the aid of a Jury, unless it amounts to twenty years; but it is a fact for the Jury to consider, as tending to prove an actual dedication, and an acceptance by the public. Hence the Jury have been held justified in finding a dedication after "four or five years" of

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sufficient. Colden *v.* Thurber, 2 Johns. 424. So has "a considerable time." Pritchard *v.* Atkinson, 3 New Hamp. R. 335, 339. And see The State *v.* Campton, 2 New Hamp. R. 513; Sage *v.* Barnes, 9 Johns. 365.

[1] Marq. of Stafford *v.* Coyney, 7 B. & C. 257; The State *v.* Trask, 6 Verm. R. 355.

[2] New Orleans *v.* The United States, 10 Pet. 662; Bryant *v.* McCandless, 7 Ohio R. (Part 2), 135; Pawlet *v.* Clark, 9 Cranch, 292, 331.

[3] Cincinnati *v.* White, 6 Peters, R. 431, 437, 438, 439, 440; The State *v.* Catlin, 3 Verm. R. 530; Jarvis *v.* Dean, 3 Bing. 447; Brown *v.* Manning, 6 Ohio R. 298, 303; LeClerq *v.* Gallipolis, 7 Ohio R. 217, 219; Lade *v.* Shepherd, 2 Stra. 1004; Pawlet *v.* Clark, 9 Cranch, 331; Olcott *v.* Banfill, 4 N. Hamp. 537, 545, 546; Abbot *v.* Mills, 3 Verm. R. 519.

enjoyment.[1] In another great case, which was much contested, six years were held sufficient;[2] and in others it has been held, that after a user of "a very few years," without prohibition, or any visible sign that the owner meant to preserve his rights, the public title was complete.[3] It is a question of intention, and therefore may be proved or disproved by the acts of the owner, and the circumstances under which the use has been permitted.[4] It does not follow, however, that, because there is a dedication of a public way by the owner of the soil, and the public use it, the town or parish or county is therefore bound to repair. To bind the corporate body to this extent, it is said, that there must be some evidence of acquiescence or adoption by the corporation itself; such as, having actually repaired it, or erected lights or guide posts thereon, or having assigned it to the proper surveyor of highways for his supervision, or the like.[5]

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[1] Jarvis *v.* Dean, 3 Bing. 447; Poole *v.* Huskinson, 11 M. & W. 830. See Best on Presumptions, p. 133, 134, § 101.

[2] Per Ld. Kenyon, in 11 East, 376, *n.* Eight years were held sufficient by Ld. Kenyon, in Rugby Charity *v.* Merryweather, 11 East, 375, *n.*; but both these cases were questioned by Mansfield, C. J. in 5 Taunt. 142, though Chambre, J. was of Ld. Kenyon's opinion. Ibid. 137. See also 5 B. & Ald. 457, per Holroyd, J.; Rex *v.* Hudson, 2 Stra. 909; Hobbs *v.* Lowell, 19 Pick. 405. "Six or seven years" were recognised as sufficient, in Barclay *v.* Howell, 6 Peters, R. 498, 513.

[3] British Museum *v.* Finnis, 5 C. & P. 460; Rex *v.* Lloyd, 1 Campb. 260. See also Best on Presumptions, p. 133–137, § 101, 102; Lade *v.* Shepherd, 2 Stra. 1004; Commonwealth *v.* McDonald, 16 S. & R. 392; Hobbs *v.* Lowell, 19 Pick. 405; Springfield *v.* Hampden, 10 Pick. 59; Cleaveland *v.* Cleaveland, 12 Wend. 172; Denning *v.* Roome, 6 Wend. 651.

[4] Barraclough *v.* Johnson, 8 Ad. & El. 99; Woodyer *v.* Hadden, 5 Taunt. 125; Rex *v.* Wright, 3 B. & Ad. 681; Surrey Canal Co. *v.* Hall, 1 Man. & Gr. 392; Rex *v.* Benedict, 4 B. & Ald. 447; Hannum *v.* Belchertown, 19 Pick. 311; Sprague *v.* Waite, 17 Pick. 309.

[5] Rex *v.* Benedict, 4 B. & Ald. 447, per Bayley, J. But see Rex *v.* Leake, 5 B. & Ad. 469; Hobbs *v.* Lowell, 19 Pick. 410. See also Todd *v.* Rome, 2 Greenl. 55; Estes *v.* Troy, 5 Greenl. 368; Rowell *v.* Montville, 4 Greenl. 270; Moor *v.* Cornville, 1 Shepl. 293; The State *v.* Campton, 2 N. Hamp. 513.

§ 663. The dedication, however, must have been made by the *owner of the fee*, or, at least, with his assent. The act of the tenant will not bind the landlord; though after a long lapse of time, and a frequent change of tenants, the knowledge and assent and concurrence of the landlord may be presumed from the notorious and uninterrupted use of the way by the public.[1]

§ 664. The evidence of dedication of a way may be *rebutted* by proof of any acts on the part of the owner of the soil, showing that he only intended to give license to pass over his land, and not to dedicate a right of way to the public. Among acts of this kind may be reckoned putting up a bar, though it be for only one day in a year, or excluding persons from passing through it by positive prohibition.[2] But the erection of a gate is not conclusive evidence of a prohibition, since it may have been an original qualification of the grant.[3]

§ 665. In the case of a *public way*, no length of time, during which it may not have been used, will operate of itself to prevent the public from resuming the right, if they think proper.[4] But in regard to private easements, though generally they are not lost by non-user for twenty years, unless the right as well as the possession is interrupted,[5] yet in

[1] Baxter *v.* Taylor, 1 Nev. & Man. 13; Wood *v.* Veal, 5 B. & Ald. 454; Rex *v.* Bliss, 7 Ad. & El. 550; Davies *v.* Stephens, 7 C. & P. 570; Rex *v.* Barr, 4 Campb. 16; Harper *v.* Charlesworth, 4 B. & C. 574.

[2] Best on Presumptions, p. 134, § 101; Rex *v.* Lloyd, 1 Campb. 260; Roberts *v.* Karr, Ibid. 261, *n.*; British Museum *v.* Finnis, 5 C. & P. 465, per Patteson, J.

[3] Davies *v.* Stephens, 7 C. & P. 570. But see Commonwealth *v.* Newbury, 2 Pick. 57.

[4] Per Gibbs, J. in Rex *v.* St. James, 2 Selw. N. P. 1334, (10th ed.); Vooght *v.* Winch, 2 B. & Ald. 667, per Abbott, C. J.; Best on Presumptions, p. 137, § 103. But see Commissioners *v.* Taylor, 2 Bay, 286.

[5] Ante, tit. PRESCRIPTION AND CUSTOM, § 545; Emerson *v.* Wiley, 10 Pick. 310, 316; Yelv. 142, note (1) by Metcalf; White *v.* Crawford, 10 Mass. 183, 189.

the case of a *private way*, or other intermittent easement, it is said, that, though slight intermittence of the user, or slight alterations in the mode of enjoyment, will not be sufficient to destroy the right, when circumstances do not show any intention of relinquishing it, yet a much shorter period than twenty years, when it is accompanied by circumstances, such as disclaimer, or other evidence of intention to abandon the right, will be sufficient to justify the Jury in finding an extinguishment.[1]

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[1] Gale & Whatley on Easements, p. 381, 382; Norbury *v.* Meade & al. 3 Bligh, 241; Harmer *v.* Rogers, 3 Bligh, N. S. 447; Best on Presumptions, p. 137, 140, § 104, 106; Doe *v.* Hilder, 2 B. & Ald. 791, per Abbott, C. J.; Hoffman *v.* Savage, 15 Mass. 130, 132.

WILLS.

§ 666. In order to ascertain the quantity and kind of proof necessary to establish a will, regard is to be had either to the law of the domicil of the testator, or to the law of the country where the property is situated, and sometimes to both. The mode of proof is also affected by the nature of the proceedings, under which it is offered. In some cases, it is necessary to prove the concurrence of all the circumstances essential to a valid will, by producing all the subscribing witnesses, after due notice to the parties in interest; while in others, it is sufficient for the occasion, to prove it by a single witness. There is also a diversity in the effect of these different modes of proof, the one being in certain cases conclusive, and the other not. There is, moreover, a diversity of rule, arising from the nature of the property given by the will; a few States still recognizing the distinction between a will of personalty, at Common Law, and a devise of lands, under the Statute of Frauds, in regard to the formalities of their execution; and others having by statute established one uniform rule, in all cases. These varieties of law and practice create great embarrassments in the attempt to state any general rules on the subject. But still it will be found that, on the question as to what law shall govern, in the requisites of a valid will, there is great uniformity of opinion; and that the several United States, in their legislation respecting wills, have generally adopted the provisions of the statute of 29 Car. 2, ch. 3, commonly called the Statute of Frauds.

§ 667. It will therefore be attempted, first to consider by what law wills are governed, and then to state the formalities generally required in the execution of wills, noting some local exceptions as we proceed. Thus it will be seen to what extent the evidence must be carried, in the complete and formal proof of any will.

§ 668. (1.) As to *what law is to govern* the formalities of a will, a distinction is to be observed between a will of personalty or movables, and a will of immovable or real property. In regard to a will of *personal or movable property*, the doctrine is now fully established, that the law of the actual domicil of the testator is to govern; and if the will is void by that law, it is a nullity everywhere, though executed with the formalities required by the law of the place where the personal property is locally situate. There is no difference in this respect, between cases of succession by testament, and by intestacy, both being alike governed by the rule, *Mobilia personam sequuntur.*[1] And if, after making a valid will, the testator changes his domicil to a place by whose laws the will thus made is not valid, and there dies, his will cannot be established; but if, still surviving, he should return to and resume his former domicil, or should remove to another place having similar laws, the original validity of his will or testament will be revived.[2] It results, that a will of personalty may be admitted to probate, if it is valid by the law of the testator's last domicil at the time of his decease, though it is not valid by the law of the place of the probate.[3]

§ 669. From this rule it would seem to follow, almost as a matter of necessity, that the *same evidence* must be admitted to establish the validity and authenticity of wills of *movables*, made abroad, as would establish them in the domicil of the testator; for otherwise the general rule above stated might be sapped to its very foundation, if the law of evidence in any country, where the movable property was

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[1] Story, Confl. Laws, § 467, 468, 469; Stanley *v.* Barnes, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 373; Dessebats *v.* Berquier, 1 Binn. 336; Crofton *v.* Ilsley, 4 Greenl. 134; Vattel, b. 2, ch. 8, § 110, 111; 4 Kent, Comm. 513; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 2 – 6, and notes by Perkins.

[2] Story, Confl. Laws, § 473; 4 Burge on Colon. and For. Law, p. 580, 591.

[3] In re De Vera Maraver, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 498.

situate, was not precisely the same as in the place of the testator's domicil. And therefore parol evidence has been admitted, in Courts of Common Law, to prove the manner in which a will is made and proved in the place of the testator's domicil, in order to lay a suitable foundation to establish the will elsewhere.[1]

§ 670. But in regard to wills of *immovable* or *real property*, it is equally well established, that the law of the place, where the property is locally situated, is to govern, as to the capacity or incapacity of the testator, the extent of his power to dispose of the property, and the forms and solemnities to give the will its due attestation and effect.[2]

§ 671. In the *interpretation* of wills, whether of movable or immovable property, where the object is merely to ascertain the meaning and intent of the testator, if the will is made at the place of his domicil, the general rule of the Common Law is, that it is to be interpreted by the law of that place. Thus, for example, if the question be, whether the terms of a foreign will include the "real estate" of the testator, or what he intended to give under those words; or whether he intended, that the legatee should take an estate in fee or for life only; or who are the proper persons to take, under the words "heirs at law," or other *designatio personarum*, recourse is to be had to the law of the place where the will was made and the testator domiciled.[3] And if the will is made in the place of his actual domicil, but he is in

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[1] Story, Confl. Laws, § 636; De Sobry *v.* De Laistre, 2 Har. & Johns. 191, 195; Clark *v.* Cochran, 3 Martin, R. 353, 361, 362. And see Wilcox *v.* Hunt, 13 Peters, R. 378, 379; Don *v.* Lippmann, 5 Cl. & Fin. 15, 17; Yates *v.* Thompson, 3 Cl. & Fin. 544, 574.

[2] Story, Confl. Laws, § 474, and authorities there cited; 4 Burge on Colon. & For. Law, p. 217, 218; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 1, 2, and notes by Perkins; 4 Kent, Comm. 513.

[3] Story, Confl. Laws, § 479 *a*, *b*, *c*, *e*, *h*, *m*; Harrison *v.* Nixon, 9 Peters, R. 483.

fact a native of another country; or if it is made in his native country, but in fact his actual domicil at the time is in another country; still it is to be interpreted by reference to the law of the place of his actual domicil.[1] The question, whether, if the testator makes his will in one place, where he is domiciled, and afterwards acquires a new domicil in another country, where he dies, the rule of interpretation is changed by his removal, so that if the terms have a different meaning in the two countries, the law of the new domicil shall prevail, or whether the interpretation shall remain as it stood by the law of the domicil where the will was made, is a question, which does not seem yet to have undergone any absolute and positive decision in the Courts acting under the Common Law.[2]

§ 672. In determining the *effect of the probate* of wills, regard is to be had to the jurisdiction of the Court where the will is proved, and to the nature of the proceedings. For, as we have heretofore seen, it is only the judgments of Courts of exclusive jurisdiction, directly upon the point in question, that are conclusive everywhere, and upon all persons.[3] In England, the Ecclesiastical Courts have no jurisdiction whatsoever over wills, except those of personal estate; and hence the probate of wills, by the sentence or decree of those Courts, is wholly inoperative and void, except as to personal estate; being, as to the realty, not even evidence of the execution of the will. The validity of wills of real estate is there cognizable only in the Courts of Common Law, and in the ordinary forms of suits; and the verdict and judgment are conclusive only upon the parties and privies, as in other cases. But as far as the personal estate is concerned, the sentence or decree of the proper Ecclesiastical Court, as to the validity or

[1] Story, Confl. Laws, § 479 *f*; 4 Burge on Colon. and For. Law, 590, 591; Anstruther *v.* Chalmer, 2 Sim. R. 1; Ante, Vol. 1, § 282, 287-292; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 5-8.

[2] Harrison *v.* Nixon, 9 Peters, R. 483, 505; Story, Confl. Laws, § 479 *g*.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 528, 550.

invalidity of the will, is final and conclusive upon all persons, because it is in the nature of proceedings *in rem*, in which all persons may appear and be heard upon the question, and it is the judgment of a Court of competent jurisdiction, directly upon the subject-matter in controversy.[1] But in many of the United States, Courts are constituted by statute, under the title of Courts of Probate, Orphans' Courts, or other names, with general power to take the probate of wills, no distinction being expressly mentioned between wills of personalty, and wills of real estate; and where such power is conferred in general terms, it is understood to give to those Courts complete jurisdiction over the probate of wills as well of real as of personal estate, and therefore to render their decrees conclusive upon all persons, and not re-examinable in any other Court.[2]

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[1] 1 Williams on Executors, b. 6, ch. 1, p. 339–348, [1st Am. ed.]; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 22, 23, and notes by Perkins; Tompkins *v.* Tompkins, 1 Story, R. 547.

[2] Such is the law in Maine and Massachusetts. Potter *v.* Webb, 2 Greenl. 257; Small *v.* Small, 4 Greenl. 220, 225; Osgood *v.* Breed, 12 Mass. 533, 534; Dublin *v.* Chadbourn, 16 Mass. 433, 441; Laughton *v.* Atkins, 1 Pick. 548, 549; Brown *v.* Wood, 17 Mass. 68, 72. So, in Rhode Island, Tompkins *v.* Tompkins, 1 Story, R. 547. So, in New Hampshire. Poplin *v.* Hawke, 8 New Hamp. 124. So, in Connecticut. Judson *v.* Lake, 3 Day, R. 318; Bush *v.* Sheldon, 1 Day, R. 170. So, in Ohio. Bailey *v.* Bailey, 8 Ohio R. 239, 246. So, in Louisiana. Lewis's Heirs *v.* His Ex'rs, 5 Louis. R. 387, 393, 394; Donaldson *v.* Winter, 1 Louis. R. 137, 144. So, in Virginia. Bagwell *v.* Elliott, 2 Rand. 190, 200. So, in Alabama, after five years. Toulmin's Dig. 887; Tarver *v.* Tarver, 9 Peters, R. 180.

In Pennsylvania and North Carolina, the probate of a will of lands is *primâ facie* evidence of the will, but not conclusive. Smith *v.* Bonsall, 5 Rawle, 80, 83; Coates *v.* Hughes, 3 Binn. 498, 507; Stanley *v.* Kean, 1 Taylor, 93.

In several other States, the English rule is followed; as, in New York; Jackson *v.* Le Grange, 19 Johns. 386; Jackson *v.* Thompson, 6 Cowen, R. 178; Rogers *v.* Rogers, 3 Wend. 514, 515; and in New Jersey; Harrison *v.* Rowan, 3 Wash. 580; and in Maryland; Smith *v.* Steele, 1 Har. & McH. 419; Darby *v.* Mayer, 10 Wheat. 470; and in South Carolina; Crossland *v.* Murdock, 4 McCord, 217.

Whether a will of lands, duly proved and recorded in one State, so as to

§ 673. (2.) The highest degree of solemnity, which is required in the *formal execution* of wills, is that which is required in a will of lands, by the statute of frauds ;[1] and this chiefly respects the *signature* and the *attestation by witnesses.* These formalities, all of which are ordinarily required to be shown upon the probate of wills in the Courts of Probate in the United States, we now proceed to state.

§ 674. And first, as to the *signature by the testator.* A "signature" consists both of the *act of writing* the party's name, and of the *intention* of thereby finally authenticating the instrument. It is not necessary, that the testator should write his entire name. His *mark* is now held sufficient, even though he was able to write.[2] And if the signature is made by another person guiding his hand, with his consent, it is sufficient.[3] But sealing alone, without signing, will not suffice ; nor is a seal necessary in any case, unless it is required by an express statute.[4] One signature by the testator is enough, though the will is written upon several sheets of

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be evidence in the Courts of that State, is thereby rendered evidence in the Courts of another State, under the Constitution of the United States, Art. 4, does not appear to have been decided. See Darby *v.* Mayer, 10 Wheat. 465. In Ohio, it is made evidence by statute. Bailey *v.* Bailey, 8 Ohio R. 239, 240.

[1] 29 Car. 2, c. 3, § 5. By Stat. 7 W. 4 & 1 Vict. c. 26, § 9, it is now provided, that no will, whether of real or personal estate, (except certain wills of soldiers and sailors,) shall be valid, "unless it shall be in writing, and signed at the foot or end thereof by the testator, or some other person in his presence and by his direction; and unless such signature be made or acknowledged by him in the presence of two or more witnesses present at the same time, and unless such witnesses attest and subscribe the will in his presence ; and no publication, other than is implied in the execution so attested, shall be necessary."

[2] Baker *v.* Dening, 8 Ad. & El. 94 ; 3 Nev. & Per. 228 ; Jackson *v.* Van Dusen, 5 Johns. 144 ; In re Field, 3 Curt. 752.

[3] Stevens *v.* Vancleve, 4 Wash. 262, 269.

[4] Pratt *v.* McCullough, 1 M'Lean, R. 69. And see Avery *v.* Pixley, 4 Mass. 460, 462 ; Hight *v.* Wilson, 1 Dall. 94 ; Doe d. Knapp *v.* Pattison, 2 Blackf. 355 ; Ante, Vol. 1, § 272.

paper; and if the *testimonium*-clause refers to the preceding sheets as severally signed with his name, whereas he has signed at the end only, this will suffice, if it appears to have been in fact intended to apply to the whole.[1] Such intention would probably be presumed from his acknowledgment of the instrument, to the attesting witnesses, as his will, without alluding to any farther act of signing.[2] Nor is it material on what part of the document the signature is written, if it was made with the design of completing the instrument, and without contemplating any further signature. On this ground, a will written by the testator, and beginning — "I A. B. do make," &c., has been held, under the circumstances, sufficiently signed.[3]

§ 675. *Publication* is defined to be that, by which the party designates that he means to give effect to the paper, as his will.[4] A *formal publication* of the will by the testator, is not now deemed necessary, it being held, that the will may be good, under the Statute of Frauds, without any words of the testator, declaratory of the nature of the instrument, or any formal recognition of it, or allusion to it.[5] But though sanity is generally presumed, yet it is incumbent on the party, asking for the probate of a will, affirmatively to establish that the testator, at the time of executing it, knew that it was his

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[1] Winsor *v.* Pratt, 2 B. & B. 650.

[2] 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 70, 71.

[3] Lemayne *v.* Stanley, 3 Lev. 1; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 70, and note (3) by Perkins; Right *v.* Price, 1 Dougl. 241; Doe *v.* Evans, 1 C. & M. 42; 3 Tyrw. 56; Sarah Miles's Will, 4 Dana, 1. In New York and in Arkansas, the signature is by statute required to be placed at the end of the will. 2 Rev. Stat. N. Y. p. 63; Watts *v.* The Public Administrator, 4 Wend. 168; Rev. Stat. Ark. ch. 157, § 4.

[4] Per Gibbs, C. J. in Moodie *v.* Reid, 7 Taunt. 362.

[5] Ibid.; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 71; White *v.* The British Museum, 6 Bing. 310; Wright *v.* Wright, 7 Bing. 457. And see 4 Kent, Comm. p. 515, 516. Small *v.* Small, 4 Greenl. 220. This question is now settled accordingly, in England, by Stat. 1 Vict. ch. 26, § 9, 11, 12, 13.

will.[1] It is not necessary, however, that this knowledge be proved by direct evidence; it may be inferred from his observance of the forms and solemnities required by statute for the due execution of a will.[2] And, where the testator, knowing the instrument to be his will, produced it to three persons, asking them to attest it as witnesses; and they did so in his presence, and returned it to him, this was considered as a sufficient acknowledgment to them, in fact, that the will was his.[3]

§ 676. Nor is it deemed necessary, that the witnesses should *actually see* the testator sign his name. The statute does not in terms require this, but only directs that the *will* be "attested and subscribed in the presence of the testator by three or four credible witnesses." They are witnesses of the entire transaction; and therefore it is held, that an acknowledgment of the instrument, by the testator, in the presence of the witnesses, whom he requests to attest it, will suffice; and that this acknowledgment need not be made simultaneously to all the witnesses, but is sufficient if made separately to each one, and at different times.[4]

§ 677. The will must also be attested and subscribed by at least three competent *witnesses*.[5] And here also, as in the

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[1] White *v.* The British Museum, 6 Bing. 310; Swett *v.* Boardman, 1 Mass. 258; 4 Dane, Abr. p. 568; Gerrish *v.* Nason, 9 Shepl. 438. In New York, a declaration of the testator, that the instrument is his will, is required, by 2 Rev. Stat. p. 63, § 40. See Brinckerhoof *v.* Remsen, 8 Paige, 488; 26 Wend. 325, 330, S. C. So in North Carolina. 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 71, note (1) by Perkins.

[2] Ray *v.* Walton, 2 A. K. Marsh. 71. And see Trimmer *v.* Jackson, 4 Burn's Eccl. L. p. 130, (8th ed.)

[3] White *v.* The British Museum, 6 Bing. 310.

[4] 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 71, 72, and note (1) by Perkins; Grayson *v.* Atkinson, 2 Ves. 454, 460; Hall *v.* Hall, 17 Pick. 373; Dewey *v.* Dewey, 1 Metc. 349; Gaze *v.* Gaze, 3 Curt. 551; Keigwin *v.* Keigwin, Ibid. 607. It is held otherwise in New Jersey, under the act of 1714. Den *v.* Matlock, 2 Harrison, R. 86; 4 Kent, Comm. 514, n.; Johnson *v.* Johnson, 1 Cr. & M. 140; Hall *v.* Hall, 17 Pick. 373; Ante, § 295.

[5] "By the New York Revised Statutes (Vol. 2, p. 63, § 40, 41), the tes-

case of the testator, a *mark*, made by the witness as his signature, is a sufficient attestation.[1] No particular form of

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tator is to subscribe the will at the end of it, in the presence of at least two witnesses, who are to write their places of residence opposite their names, under the penalty of fifty dollars; but the omission to do it will not affect the validity and efficiency of their attestation. Three witnesses, as in the English Statute of Frauds, are required in Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Maryland, Florida, Wisconsin, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and Michigan. Two witnesses only are required in New York, Ohio, Delaware, Virginia, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee and Arkansas. In some of the States, the provision as to attestation is more special. In Pennsylvania, a devise of lands in writing will be good without any subscribing witnesses, provided the authenticity of it can be proved by two witnesses; and if the will be subscribed by witnesses, proof of it may be made by others. Hight *v.* Wilson, 1 Dallas, 94; Per Huston, J., 1 Watts, 463. Proof of the signature of the testator to a will by two witnesses, is *primâ facie* evidence of its execution, although the body of it be not in the handwriting of the testator. Weigel *v.* Weigel, 5 Watts, 486. In North Carolina two witnesses are required to a will of real estate, unless the will is in the handwriting of the deceased person, and is found among his valuable papers, or lodged with some person for safe keeping. The name of the testator in such case must be proved by the opinion of three witnesses. 1 Rev. Laws, N. C. 619, 620, ch. 122, § 1. So in Tennessee. In Virginia, if the will is not wholly written by the testator, it must be attested by two or more credible witnesses, &c. 1 Rev. Code, Virg. 375. In Mississippi, there must be three witnesses to a will of real, and one to a will of personal estate, unless wholly written and subscribed by the testator. Howard & Hutch. Dig. Laws Mis. (1840), p. 386, ch. 36, § 2. In Arkansas, a will written through by the testator, needs no subscribing witness, but the will must be proved in such case by three disinterested witnesses, swearing to their opinion. Still, a will in due form subscribed, will be effectual as against one not so subscribed. Rev. Stat. ch. 157, § 4, § 5. Every person in that State who subscribes the testator's name, shall sign as witness, and state that he signed the testator's name at his request. Ib. A will executed in South Carolina in the presence of two witnesses, who alone subscribe it, is not sufficiently executed under the statute to pass real estate, although the scrivener was also present at the execution, and a codicil exe-

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 272; Harrison *v.* Harrison, 8 Ves. 185; Addy *v.* Grix, Ibid. 504; George *v.* Surrey, 1 M. & Malk. 516; Jackson *v.* Van Deusen, 5 Johns. 144; Adams *v.* Chaplin, 1 Hill, S. Car. Rep. 266; 9 Louis. R. 512; 4 Kent, Comm. 514, n.; Harrison *v.* Elvin, 3 Ad. & El. 117, N. S.

words is necessary in the attestation-clause, nor need it express, that the witnesses signed in the presence of the testator, it being sufficient if this is actually proved. It may also be inferred, from the regular appearance of the instrument, or other circumstances in the case.[1]

§ 678. The requisition that the witnesses should subscribe their names *in the presence of the testator*, is in order that he may have occular evidence of the identity of the instrument attested as his will, and to prevent the fraudulent substitution of another. To constitute this "presence" it is necessary, not only that the testator be corporally present, but that he be mentally capable of recognizing, and be actually conscious of, the act which is performed before him. Therefore if, after he has signed and published his will, and before the witnesses subscribe it, he falls into a state of insensibility, whether temporary or permanent;[2] or, if the will is subscribed by the witnesses in a secret and clandestine manner, without his knowledge, though it be in the same apartment; in both cases it is alike void.[3] To be corporally present, it is not essential that the testator be in the same apartment; for if the situation and circumstances of the parties are such, that the testator, in his actual position, might have seen the act of attestation, it is enough, though they are not in the

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cuted in the presence of two subscribing witnesses, one of whom was different from the two witnesses to the will, does not give effect to the will, as to the real estate. Dunlap *v.* Dunlap, 4 Desaus. 305. The laws of South Carolina, at the time of the above decision, required three witnesses to a will of real estate only; but now they require three witnesses to a will of personal estate also. Statutes at Large of S. Car. Vol. 3, p. 342, No. 544, § 2; Ibid. Vol. 4, p. 106, No. 1455, § 2; Ibid. Vol. 6, p. 238, No. 2334, § 8." See 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 69 *a*, note by Perkins; 4 Kent, Comm. 514; Ante, Vol. 1, § 272, n. (1.)

[1] Handy *v.* James, 2 Com. R. 531; Croft *v.* Pawlett, 2 Stra. 1109; Jackson *v.* Christman, 4 Wend. 277.

[2] Right *v.* Price, 1 Doug. 241. In New York, the statute has not made it necessary, that the witnesses should subscribe in the presence of the testator. 4 Kent, Comm. 514, 515.

[3] Longford *v.* Eyre, 1 P. Wms. 740.

same apartment,[1] nor even in the same house;[2] and, on the other hand, if his view of the proceedings is necessarily obstructed, the mere proximity of the places of his signature and of their attestation, will not suffice, even though it were in the same apartment.[3] An attestation, made in the same room with the testator, is presumed to have been made in his presence, until the contrary is shown; and an attestation, not made in the same room, is presumed not to have been made in his presence, until it is shown to have been otherwise.[4] In the absence of opposing evidence, it will also be presumed, that the attestation was subscribed in the most convenient part of the room for that purpose, taking into consideration the kind and the ordinary or actual position of the furniture therein.[5]

§ 679. It is proper here to add, that, after the lapse of *thirty years*, with possession of the estate according to the tenor of the will, its regular execution will be presumed, without proof by subscribing witnesses.[6] Whether the thirty years are to be computed from the date of the will, or from the

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[1] Shires *v.* Glascock, 2 Salk. 688; 1 Ld. Raym. 507, S. C.; Winchilsea *v.* Wauchope, 3 Russ. 441, 444; Tod *v.* E. of Winchelsea, 2 C. & P. 488, S. C.; Davy *v.* Smith, 3 Salk. 395. In Russell *v.* Falls, 3 Har. & McHen. 463, 464, which was very much considered, it was held, that it was necessary that the testator should have been able to see the attestation, without leaving his bed. And see, to the same effect, Doe *v.* Manifold, 1 M. & S. 294.

[2] Casson *v.* Dade, 1 Bro. Ch. Cas. 99; Dewey *v.* Dewey, 1 Metc. 349.

[3] Edlestone *v.* Speake, 1 Show. 89; Eccleston *v.* Petty al. Speke, Carth. 79, S. C.; Edelen *v.* Hardey, 7 Har. & J. 61; Russell *v.* Falls, 3 Har. & McHen 457. The cause of the witnesses' absence does not affect the rule, even though it were at the request of the testator. Broderick *v.* Broderick, 1 P. Wms. 239; Machell *v.* Temple, 2 Show. 288.

[4] Neil *v.* Neil, 1 Leigh, R. 6.

[5] Winchilsea *v.* Wauchope, 3 Russ. 441. The will of a blind man is valid, notwithstanding his blindness, if it clearly appears that no imposition was practised upon him, and that all other legal formalities were observed. 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 29, 30; Longchamp *v.* Fisk, 2 New Rep. 415; Boyd *v.* Cook, 3 Leigh, R. 32; Lewis *v.* Lewis, 6 S. & R. 489.

[6] Ante, Vol. 1, § 21, 142–144, 570; Croughton *v.* Blake, 12 M. & W. 205, 208; Jackson *v.* Thompson, 6 Cowen, R. 178, 180; Fetherly *v.* Waggoner, 11 Wend. 599.

death of the testator, is a question upon which learned Judges are not agreed; some holding the former, which is now considered the better opinion, upon the ground, that the rule is founded on the presumption that the witnesses are dead, and the consequent impossibility of proving the execution of the will;[1] and others holding the latter, on the ground, that it is the accompanying possession alone which establishes the presumption of authenticity in an ancient deed.[2]

§ 680. A will of lands, thus proved to have been made with all the legal formalities, is presumed to have existed until the death of the testator;[3] but this presumption may be rebutted by proof of its subsequent *revocation*. And this revocation may be proved by evidence of an *express* act of revocation by the testator, such as *cancelling*, *obliterating*, or *destroying* the instrument, or executing some other will or codicil, or *writing* of revocation; or it may be *implied* from other acts and circumstances, inconsistent with the continuance of any intention that the will should stand, such as *alienation* or *alteration of the estate*, *marriage and the birth of issue*, or other sufficient material change in the relations and condition of the testator. The former class falls under the Statute of Frauds, which enacts, that "no devise of lands, tenements or hereditaments, nor any clause thereof, shall be revocable, otherwise than by some other will or codicil, in writing, or other writing, declaring the same; or by burning, cancelling, tearing or obliterating the same, by the testator himself, or in his presence, and by his directions and consent."[4] And to such writing of revocation, the attestation of three witnesses, at least, is required.

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[1] Jackson *v.* Blanshan, 3 Johns. 292, 295, per Spencer, J. See accordingly, Oldnall *v.* Deakin, 3 C. & P. 402; Gough *v.* Gough, 4 T. R. 707, *n.*; McKenire *v.* Frazer, 9 Ves. 5; Doe *v.* Wolley, 8 B. & C. 22; Ante, § 310; and Vol. 1, § 570.

[2] Jackson *v.* Blanshan, 3 Johns. 292, 298, per Kent, C. J. and Van Ness, J.; Shaller *v.* Brand, 6 Binn. 435, 439, 444, 447.

[3] Jackson *v.* Betts, 9 Cowen, R. 208; Irish *v.* Smith, 8 S. & R. 573.

[4] Stat. 29 Car. 2, ch. 3, § 6. Such is in general the language of the American statutes on this subject. 4 Kent, Comm. 514, 520, 521, n. The

§ 681. The acts of *express revocation* are therefore of three classes. First, by a subsequent will or codicil, inconsistent with the former, or plainly intended as a substitute for it; and this must be executed in the manner we have already considered. If the subsequent instrument, whether it be a will or a codicil, though it professed an intent to make a different disposition of the whole estate, does in fact so dispose of a part only, it is but a revocation *pro tanto*.[1] Secondly, by a written instrument of revocation; which, it is to be observed, the statute does not require should be attested in the presence of the testator, like a will; but, to take effect as a revocation only, it must contain an express declaration of an intention to revoke. If the instrument purports to be a subsequent will, and is well executed to take effect as a will, it will also have effect as a revocation of all former wills touching the same matter, without any words of revocation; but if it does not contain any testamentary disposition, then, though it is well executed as a revocation, it will not so operate, unless such intention is expressed.[2] Thirdly, by some act of reprobation, spoliation, or destruction, done upon the instrument, *animo revocandi*. But if the act be done without such intention, or not in the presence of the testator,

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difference between wills of land and of personal property, in regard to the evidence of revocation, as well as the formalities of execution, is now admitted in so few, if any, of the United States, that it is deemed inexpedient here to advert to it.

[1] Brant *v.* Willson, 8 Cowen, R. 56; Harwood *v.* Goodright, Cowp. 87. See also Hearle *v.* Hicks, 1 Cl. & Fin. 20. The republication of a former inconsistent will, is also a revocation of a subsequent will. Havard *v.* Davis, 2 Binn. 406.

[2] Roberts on Frauds, 463 – 466; Onions *v.* Tyrer, 1 P. Wms. 343; Limbery *v.* Mason, 2 Com. R. 451; Bethell *v.* Moore, 2 Dev. & Bat. 311; 1 Jarm. on Wills, 121, 122, 129, 155, 156. The same principle applies to an intended revocation by obliteration; if it be not duly attested, it has no effect. Ibid.; Kirke *v.* Kirke, 4 Russ. 435. But though the second will should fail of taking effect, yet if it is perfectly executed, and the failure arises merely from some incapacity of the party for whose benefit it is made, to take under it, the second will may still operate as a revocation of the first. Laughton *v.* Atkins, 1 Pick. 535, 543.

though by his direction, it is of no force.[1] It has accordingly been held, that slightly tearing the will, and throwing it on the fire, though it were only singed,[2] or a partial burning of the paper,[3] or tearing off a seal, though superfluous,[4] the intention thereby to revoke being clear, was a sufficient revocation. So, if a material part of a devise or bequest be obliterated by the testator, it is a sufficient revocation *pro tanto*, although it be merely by drawing the pen across, and the writing be still legible.[5] But if it be an obliteration of the name of a devisee or legatee, in some parts of the will, while in other parts it is left standing, the Court will not, ordinarily, feel warranted in holding that the bequest is thereby revoked.[6] So, if the obliteration is on the envelope only, it is not sufficient.[7] And if the will is proved to have been in the testator's possession, and cannot afterwards be found, it will be presumed that he destroyed it, *animo revocandi;* but if it is shown out of his possession, the party asserting the revocation must show that it came again into his custody, or was actually destroyed by his direction.[8]

§ 682. If the will was *executed in duplicate*, and the tes-

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[1] Onions *v.* Tyrer, 1 P. Wms. 343, 345; Scruby *v.* Fordham, 1 Add. 74; Trevelyan *v.* Trevelyan, 1 Phillim. 149; Haines *v.* Haines, 2 Vern. 441; Dan *v.* Brown, 4 Cowen, R. 490; Boudinot *v.* Bradford, 2 Dall. 266; 2 Yeates, 170, S. C.; Ante, Vol. 1, § 273.

[2] Bibb *v.* Thomas, 2 W. Bl. 1043; Winsor *v.* Pratt, 2 B. & B. 650; Johnson *v.* Brailsford, 2 Nott & McCord, 272. The mere direction to another by the testator, to destroy his will, is not sufficient, unless some act of destruction is thereupon done. Giles *v.* Giles, 1 Cam. & Nor. 174.

[3] Doe *v.* Harris, 6 Ad. & El. 209.

[4] Avery *v.* Pixley, 4 Mass. 462. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 273.

[5] Sutton *v.* Sutton, Cowp. 812; Mence *v.* Mence, 18 Ves. 348, 350.

[6] Martins *v.* Gardiner, 8 Sim. 73; Utterton *v.* Utterton, 3 Ves. & Beames, 122.

[7] Grantley *v.* Garthwaite, 2 Russ. 90.

[8] 1 Jarman on Wills, 119, and cases there cited; Minkler *v.* Minkler, 14 Verm. R. 174; Helyar *v.* Helyar, 1 Phillim. R. 417, 421, 427, n, 430, 439, n.; Lillie *v.* Lillie, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 184; Loxley *v.* Jackson, 3 Phillim. 126. But see Jackson *v.* Betts, 9 Cowen, R. 208.

tator destroys one part, the inference generally is, that he intended to revoke the will; but the strength of the presumption will depend much on the circumstances. Thus, if he destroys the only copy in his possession, an intent to revoke is very strongly to be presumed; but if he was possessed of both copies, and destroys but one, it is weaker; and if he alters one, and then destroys it, retaining the other entire, the presumption has been said still to hold, though more faintly;[1] but the contrary also has been asserted.[2] If the will is destroyed, but a codicil is left entire, the question, whether the destruction of the will operates as a revocation of the codicil also, will depend much upon their contents. If they are inseparably connected, the codicil will be held revoked also; but if, from the nature of its contents, it is capable of subsisting independently of the will, its validity may not be affected.[3]

§ 683. Where the latter of two inconsistent wills is subsequently destroyed, or otherwise revoked, by the testator, it was formerly held, that this revived and restored the original will to its former position, provided it remained entire.[4] But this doctrine has since been greatly modified, if not wholly abandoned, in the Ecclesiastical Courts, and the question is now held open for decision either way, according to the circumstances.[5]

§ 684. In regard to *implied revocations*, these are said to be founded on the reasonable presumption of an alteration of the

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[1] Seymour's case, cited 1 P. Wms. 346; 2 Com. R. 453; Burtonshaw *v.* Gilbert, Cowp. 49, 52; Pemberton *v.* Pemberton, 13 Ves. 310.

[2] Roberts *v.* Round, 3 Hagg. Eccl. R. 548.

[3] Usticke *v.* Bawden, 2 Add. 116; Medlycot *v.* Assheton, Ibid. 229; Tagart *v.* Hooper, 1 Curt. 289.

[4] Goodright *v.* Glazier, 4 Burr. 2512; Lawson *v.* Morrison, 2 Dall. 289; James *v.* Marvin, 3 Conn. 576; Taylor *v.* Taylor, 2 Nott & McCord, 482.

[5] Usticke *v.* Bawden, 2 Add. 116; James *v.* Cohen, 3 Curt. 770. See 4 Kent, Comm. 531, and cases there cited; and 1 Jarm. on Wills, 122, 123, and cases in notes by Perkins; Moore *v.* Moore, 1 Phillim. 375, 400, 406; Boudinot *v.* Bradford, 2 Dall. 268; Linginfetter *v.* Linginfetter, Hardin, R. 119.

testator's mind, arising from circumstances since the making of the will, producing a change in his previous obligations and duties.[1] A *subsequent marriage* alone, if the testator was a feme sole, will always have this effect, even though she should survive her husband; for by the marriage her will ceased to be ambulatory, and was therefore void.[2] But the marriage of a man, is not, alone, a revocation of his will; for the common law has made sufficient provision for the wife, by her right of dower. Nor is the birth of a child, after the making of the will, in itself, and independent of statutory provisions, a revocation of a will made subsequent to the marriage; for, the testator is presumed to have contemplated such an event. But a subsequent marriage and the birth of a child, taken together, are held to be a revocation of his will, whether of real or personal estate, as they amount to such a change in his situation as to lead to a presumption that he could not intend that the previous disposition of his property should remain unchanged.[3] But this presumption is not conclusive; it may be repelled by intrinsic proof of circumstances showing that the will, though made previous to the marriage, was in fact made in contemplation of both marriage and the birth of issue;[4] such as, a provision of any sort in the will itself, for the future wife and children; or a provision for children alone;[5] but provision for the wife only, has been held insufficient.[6] Any other evidence of intent, to have this effect, it

[1] 4 Kent, Comm. 521 – 524.

[2] 1 Williams on Executors, p. 93 – 95; Forse & Hembling's case, 4 Co. 60; Hodsden *v.* Lloyd, 2 Bro. Ch. Cas. 544, and notes by Eden.

[3] 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 107; 1 Williams on Executors, p. 95 – 98; Doe *v.* Lancashire, 5 T. R. 58. See also Church *v.* Crocker, 3 Mass. 17, 21; Brush *v.* Wilkins, 4 Johns. Ch. R. 506.

[4] 1 Jarman on Wills, 107, 109, 110; 1 Williams on Executors, p. 94; Israell *v.* Rodon, 1 Moore, P. C. Rep. 51; Fox *v.* Marston, 1 Curt. 494. And see Johnston *v.* Johnston, 1 Phillim. 447; Gibbens *v.* Cross, 2 Add. 455; Talbot *v.* Talbot, 1 Hagg. Eccl. R. 705; Jacks *v.* Henderson, 1 Desaus. R. 543, 557; Brush *v.* Wilkins, 4 Johns. Ch. R. 506; Yerby *v.* Yerby, 3 Call, R. 334.

[5] Kenebel *v* Scrafton, 2 East, 530; 1 Jarman on Wills, 109.

[6] Marston *v.* Roe, 8 Ad. & El. 14.

seems must amount to proof of republication of the will, after the birth of the issue. For any other purpose than this, parol evidence of the intentions of the testator, that his will should stand unrevoked, has been held to be inadmissible to control the presumption resulting from marriage and the birth of issue.[1]

[1] Ibid.; Chancellor Kent describes the state of American law, on the subject of implied revocations by marriage and issue, in the following terms. "In this country, we have much statute regulation on the subject. There is no doubt that the testator may, if he pleases, devise all his estate to strangers, and disinherit his children. This is the English law, and the law in all the States, with the exception of Louisiana. Children are deemed to have sufficient security in the natural affection of parents, that this unlimited power of disposition will not be abused. If, however, the testator has not given the estate to a competent devisee, the heir takes, notwithstanding the testator may have clearly declared his intention to disinherit him. The estate must descend to the heirs, if it be not legally vested elsewhere. This is in conformity to the long established rule, that in devises to take place at some distant time, and no particular estate is expressly created in the mean time, the fee descends to the heir. But by the statute laws of the States of Maine, Vermont, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Ohio, and Alabama, a posthumous child, and in all of those States except Delaware and Alabama, children born after the making of the will, and in the lifetime of the father, will inherit in like manner as if he had died intestate, unless some provision be made for them in the will, or otherwise, or they be particularly noticed in the will. The reasonable operation of this rule is only to disturb and revoke the will *pro tanto*, or as far as duty requires. The statute law in Maine, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, goes further, and applies the same relief to all children, and their legal representatives, who have no provision made for them by will, and who have not had their advancement in their parent's life, unless the omission in the will should appear to have been intentional. In South Carolina, the interference with the will applies to posthumous children; and it is likewise the law, that marriage and a child work a revocation of the will. In Virginia and Kentucky, a child born after the will, if the testator had no children before, is a revocation, unless such child dies unmarried, or an infant. If he had children before, after-born children, unprovided for, work a revocation *pro tanto*. In the States of Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New-York, Maryland, and, probably, in other States, if the devisee or legatee dies in the lifetime of the testator, his lineal descendants are entitled to his share, unless the will anticipates and provides for the case. This is confined, in Connecticut, to a child, or grandchild; in

§ 685. The rule, that marriage and the birth of issue, operates as a revocation of the previous will, is not affected by the circumstance, that the testator was married at the time of making the will, and survived his wife, and afterwards married again and had issue by the second wife; but such second marriage and the birth of issue is equally a revocation of the will, as though it had been made while he was single. Nor does it make any difference that the issue was posthumous; nor, that the testator died, without knowing that his wife was pregnant;[1] nor, that the child died in the lifetime of the testator.[2]

§ 686. Another case of implied revocation, is that which arises from an *alteration of the estate* of the devisor, after the making of the will; it being generally considered essential to the validity of a devise of lands, that the testator should be

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Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Maine, to them *or their relations;* and in New-York, *to children or other descendants.* The rule in Maryland goes further, and, by statute, no devise or bequest fails by reason of the death of the devisee or legatee before the testator; and it takes effect in like manner as if they had survived the testator. By the *New York Revised Statutes*, if the will disposes of the whole estate, and the testator afterwards marries, and has issue born in his lifetime, or after his death, and the wife or issue be living *at his death*, the will is deemed to be revoked; unless the issue be provided for by the will, or by a settlement, or unless the will shows an intention not to make any provision. No other evidence to rebut the presumption of such revocation is to be received. This provision is a declaration of the law of New York, as declared in Brush *v.* Wilkins, with the additional provision of prescribing the exact extent of the proof which is to rebut the presumption of a revocation, and thereby relieving the Courts from all difficulty on that embarrassing point." See 4 Kent, Comm. 524 – 527.

[1] Doe *v.* Barford, 4 M. & S. 10; Christopher *v.* Christopher, Dick. 445, cited 4 Burr. 2171, marg.; Ibid. 2182.

[2] Wright *v.* Netherwood, 2 Salk. 593, note (*a*) by Evans; more fully reported in 2 Phillim. 266, note (c). See also Emerson *v.* Boville, 1 Phillim. 342. In England it is now provided, by Stat. 7 W. 4 & 1 Vict. c. 26, § 18, that "every will, made by a man or woman, shall be revoked by his or her marriage," except wills made under powers of appointment, in certain cases; and that "no will shall be revoked, by any presumption of an intention on the ground of an alteration of circumstances."

seised thereof at the making of the will, and that he should continue so seised thereof until his decease. If therefore, a testator, after making his will, should by deed aliene the lands which he had disposed of by the will, the disposition by will thereby becomes void; and should he afterwards acquire a new freehold estate in the same lands, such newly acquired estate will not pass to the devisee under the will.[1] And

[1] See 1 Jarman on Wills, ch. 7, sec. 3, p. 130 – 148; 2 Williams on Executors, Part 3, b. 3, ch. 2, sec. 1, p. 820 – 827, where this subject is fully treated. In some of the United States, after-acquired lands may pass by the will, where an intention to that effect is manifested in the will. Mass. Rev. Stat. ch. 62, sec. 3; Maine, Rev. Stat. ch. 92, sec. 13. "The English rule, requiring the testator to be actually seised of the lands devised at the time of making the will, and to continue seised at the time of his death, continued to be the law of New York, down to the recent revision of the statute law. There is the same language probably in the statute law of other States. The general rule of the English law has been admitted to be existing in Maine, Connecticut, North Carolina, and Alabama. The devise under the English law is a species of conveyance; and that is the reason that the devise operates only upon such real estate as the testator owned, and was seised of, at the time of making the will. An auxiliary consideration may be founded on the interest which the law always takes in heirs; and the rule was, until recently, received in Massachusetts as an explicit and inflexible rule of law. The New York Revised Statutes have altered the language of the law, and put all debatable questions to rest; and made the devises prospective, by declaring that every estate and interest descendible to heirs may be devised; and that every will made in express terms, of all the real estate, or in any other terms denoting the testator's intent to devise all his real property, shall be construed to pass all the real estate which he was entitled to devise at the time of his death. The law in Massachusetts, Vermont, Pennsylvania and Virginia, is the same as that now in New York. In Virginia, seisin is not requisite to a devise, and a right of entry is devisable. Rights of entry are devisable even though there be an adverse possession or disseisin; and the will will extend prospectively, and carry all the testator's lands existing at his death, if so evidently intended. This is also understood to be the law in Kentucky and Ohio, and in the latter State the statute declares that every description of property may be devised. We have, therefore, in some parts, at least, of the United States, this settled test of a devisable interest, that it is every interest in land that is descendible. In England, the more recent test is a possibility coupled with an interest; and under either rule the law of devise is of a sufficiently comprehensive operation over the real estate. It is proba-

though the conveyance be for a partial, or a mistaken or unnecessary purpose, yet if it embraces the whole estate which is the subject of the devise or bequest, it is a total revocation. But if it is only a conveyance of part of the testator's estate or interest, as, for example, if owning the fee, or entire interest, he makes a lease for years, or a mortgage, or pledges the property, it is only a revocation *pro tanto*, or a gift by will, subject to the lien thus created.[1] But a subsequent partition of lands, held in common at the time of making the will, is no revocation; as it does not affect the nature or quantity of the estate, but only the manner of enjoyment.[2] Nor will an interruption of the testator's seisin work a revocation of the will, where it is involuntary and temporary; for if he be disseised subsequently to making the will, and afterwards re-enters, he is restored to his original seisin, by relation back, and the devise is not revoked.[3]

§ 687. Even a *void conveyance* may sometimes operate as a revocation of a previous devise, on the principle, that it is inconsistent with the testamentary disposition.[4] This rule is applied to cases, where the failure of the conveyance arises from the incapacity of the grantee, as where the husband conveys by deed directly to his wife, lands which he had previously devised to another;[5] and also to cases where the conveyance is inoperative for the want of some ceremony essential to its

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ble that devises receive a construction in every part of the United States as extended as that in England." 4 Kent, Comm. 511, 512.

[1] Ibid.; Brydges *v.* Duchess of Chandos, 2 Ves. 417, 427, 428; Carter *v.* Thomas, 4 Greenl. 341.

[2] 1 Jarman on Wills, 134, 135, Perkins's ed.; Risley *v.* Baltinglass, T. Raym. 240; Brydges *v.* Duchess of Chandos, 2 Ves. 417, 429.

[3] 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 133; Goodtitle *v.* Otway, 1 B. & P. 576, 602; 2 H. Bl. 516, S. C.; Cave *v.* Holford, 3 Ves. 650, 670; Attorney General *v.* Vigor, 8 Ves. 256, 282. In Pennsylvania, it seems that a testator may devise lands of which he is disseised at the time. Humes *v.* McFarlane, 4 S. & R. 435.

[4] 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 149 – 152; Walton *v.* Walton, 7 Johns. Ch. 269; Hodges *v.* Green, 4 Russ. 28.

[5] Beard *v.* Beard, 3 Atk. 72, 73.

validity, as where it is by feoffment, but there is no livery of seisin.[1] But the rule does not apply to a conveyance which is void at law on account of fraud or covin; yet if the deed is valid in law, but impeachable in equity, it will be held in equity as a revocation.[2]

§ 688. The *formal proof* of a will may also be *rebutted* by evidence, showing that it was obtained by *fraud and imposition* practised upon the testator, or, by *duress;* or, that the testator was *not of competent age;* or, was a *feme covert;* or was *not of sound and disposing mind and memory.*

§ 689. In regard to *insanity* or want of sufficient soundness of mind, we have heretofore seen that, though, in the probate of a will, as the real issue is whether there is a valid will or not, the executor is considered as holding the affirmative,[3] and therefore may seem bound affirmatively to prove the sanity of the testator; yet we have also seen, that the law itself presumes every man to be of sane mind, until the contrary is shown.[4] The burden of proving unsoundness or imbecility of mind in the testator, is therefore on the party impeaching the validity of the will for this cause. But, as has also been shown,[5] insanity, or imbecility of mind, once proved to have existed, is presumed to continue, unless it was accidental or temporary in its nature, as, where it was occasioned by the violence of disease. And, on the other hand,

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[1] Ibid.; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 150.

[2] Simpson *v.* Walker, 5 Simons, R. 1; Hawes *v.* Wyatt, 2 Cox, R. 263, per Ld. Alvanley, M. R. And see S. C. in 3 Bro. Ch. R. 156, and notes by Perkins.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 77.

[4] Ante, Vol. 1, § 42; Ante, tit. INSANITY, § 373; Brooks *v.* Barrett, 7 Pick. 94.

[5] Ante, tit. INSANITY, § 371. And see Vol. 1, § 42. Evidence of prior bodily disease, and of different intentions, previously expressed, has been held admissible, in proof of incapacity at the time of making the will. Irish *v.* Smith, 8 S. & R. 573.

the proof of insanity at the time of the transaction, may be rebutted, by evidence that the act was done during a *lucid interval* of reason, the burden of proving which, is devolved on the party asserting this exception.[1]

§ 690. In the *proof of insanity*, though the evidence *must relate to the time of the act* in question,[2] yet evidence of insanity immediately before or after the time is admissible.[3] *Suicide*, committed by the testator soon after making his will, is admissible as evidence of insanity, but it is not conclusive.[4] The fact of his being *under guardianship* at the time, falls under the same rule; being *primâ facie* evidence of incapacity, but open to explanation by other proof.[5] It may here be added, that where a devisee or legatee is party in a suit touching the validity of a will, his *declarations and admissions* in disparagement of the will, are competent to be given in evidence against him; but if he is not party to the record, nor party in interest, it is otherwise.[6] So the declaration of his opinion in favor of the sanity of the testator, is admissible against a party opposing the probate of the will on the ground of his insanity.[7] The *declarations of the testator* himself are admissible only when

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[1] Attorney Gen. *v.* Parnther, 3 Bro. Ch. R. 441; Ex parte Holyland, 11 Ves. 11; White *v.* Wilson, 13 Ves. 87; Cartwright *v.* Cartwright, 1 Phillim. R. 100. And see 1 Williams on Executors, p. 17–30; 1 Jarman on Wills, ch. 3; Ray's Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity, ch. 14, § 230–246.

[2] Attorney Gen. *v.* Parnther, 3 Bro. Ch. R. 441, 443; White *v.* Wilson, 13 Ves. 87.

[3] Dickinson *v.* Barber, 9 Mass. 225.

[4] Brooks *v.* Barrett, 7 Pick. 94.

[5] Stone *v.* Damon, 12 Mass. 488; Breed *v.* Pratt, 18 Pick. 115.

[6] Atkins *v.* Sanger, 1 Pick. 192; Phelps *v.* Hartwell, 1 Mass. 71; Bovard *v.* Wallace, 4 S. & R. 499; Nussear *v.* Arnold, 13 S. & R. 323, 328, 329.

[7] Ware *v.* Ware, 8 Greenl. 42; Atkins *v.* Sanger, 1 Pick. 192. But declarations by a devisee, that he procured the devise to be made, are not admissible for this purpose; it not being unlawful so to do, provided there were no fraud, imposition, or excessive importunity. Miller *v.* Miller, 8 S. & R. 267; Davis *v.* Calvert, 5 Gill & Johns. 265.

they were made so near the time of the execution of the will as to become a part of the *res gestæ*.[1]

§ 691. The *attesting witnesses* are regarded in the law as persons placed round the testator, in order that no fraud may be practised upon him, in the execution of the will, and to judge of his capacity. They must therefore be competent witnesses at the time of attestation; otherwise the will is not well executed.[2] On this ground, these witnesses are permitted to testify as to the opinions they formed of the testator's capacity, at the time of executing his will; though the opinions of other persons are ordinarily inadmissible, at least unless founded upon facts, testified by themselves or others in the cause.[3]

§ 692. The foregoing requisites to the formal execution of a valid will are all demanded, whenever the instrument is to be proved in the more ample or *solemn form;* and this mode of proof, as we have before intimated, is now generally required in the United States, the probate of the will being ordinarily held conclusive in the Common Law Courts, for reasons already given. And this amount of proof, by all the attesting

[1] Smith *v.* Fenner, 1 Gall. R. 170. See also, as to declarations of testators, Den *v.* Vancleve, 2 South. 589; Reel *v.* Reel, 1 Hawks, 248; Farrar *v.* Ayers, 5 Pick. 404; Wadsworth *v.* Ruggles, 6 Pick. 63; Rambler *v.* Tryon, 7 S. & R. 90; Betts *v.* Jackson, 6 Wend. 173.

[2] Such was the opinion of Lord Camden, which he maintained in an energetic protest against that of a majority of the Court, in Doe d. Hindson *v.* Hersey, reported in 4 Burn, Eccl. L. 88, and in a note to Cornwell *v.* Isham, 1 Day, R. 41–88. His opinion is now acquiesced in, as the true exposition of the statute of wills. See Brograve *v.* Winder, 2 Ves. 634, 636; Amory *v.* Fellows, 5 Mass. 219, 229; Sears *v.* Dillingham, 12 Mass. 358, 361; Anstey *v.* Dowsing, 2 Stra. 1253, 1255; Ante, Vol. 1, § 440; 1 Jarman on Wills, p. 63, 64.

[3] Ante, Vol. 1, § 440, and cases there cited; Hathorn *v.* King, 8 Mass. 371; Dickinson *v.* Barber, 9 Mass. 225.

witnesses, if they can be had, may be demanded by any person, interested in the will.[1]

§ 693. Upon the trial of an issue of *devisavit vel non*, or other issue of *title to lands*, in the Courts of Common Law, in those States in which the probate of the will is not regarded as conclusive in respect to lands, it is necessary, in the first place, to *produce the original will*, or to prove its former existence and its subsequent loss, in order to let in the secondary evidence of its contents.[2] And for this purpose, the probate of the will, or an exemplification, is not received as evidence, without proof *aliundè*, that it is a true copy.[3]

§ 694. It is ordinarily held sufficient, in the Courts of Common Law, to call *one only, of the subscribing witnesses*, if he can speak to all the circumstances of the attestation; and it is considered indispensable that he should be able, alone, to prove the perfect execution of the will, in order to dispense with the testimony of the other witnesses, if they are alive and within the jurisdiction.[4] But in Chancery, a distinction is

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[1] See 1 Williams on Executors, p. 192 – 200; Sears *v.* Dillingham, 12 Mass. 358; Chase *v.* Lincoln, 3 Mass. 236. In Massachusetts, a will devising land, must be proved and allowed in the Probate Court, before it can be used as evidence of title in a Court of Common Law. Shumway *v.* Holbrook, 1 Pick. 114; Laughton *v.* Atkins, Ibid. 535, 549. And for this purpose, it may be admitted to probate, though more than twenty years have elapsed since the death of the testator. Ibid.

[2] See Ante, Vol. 1, § 557 – 563, 569 – 575; Ibid. § 84, note. The nature and effect of probate in general, has already been considered. See Ante, Vol. 1, § 518, 550. Also, Vol. 2, § 315. The issue of *devisavit vel non*, involves only the question of the valid execution of the will; and not of its contents. Patterson *v.* Patterson, 6 S. & R. 55.

[3] Doe *v.* Calvert, 2 Campb. 389; Bull. N. P. 246.

[4] Longford *v.* Eyre, 1 P. Wms. 741; Bull. N. P. 264; Jackson *v.* Le Grange, 19 Johns. 386; Dan *v.* Brown, 4 Cowen, R. 483; Jackson *v.* Vickory, 1 Wend. 406; Jackson *v.* Betts, 6 Cowen, R. 377; Turnipseed *v.* Hawkins, 1 McCord, 272. In Pennsylvania, two witnesses are required in proof of every testamentary writing, whether in the general probate before

taken, in principle, between a suit by a devisee, to establish the will against the heir, and a bill by the heir at law, to set aside the will for fraud, and to have it delivered up. For, in the former case, a decree in favor of the will is final and conclusive against the heir; but in the latter, after a decree against him, dismissing the bill, his remedies at law are still left open to him. It is therefore held incumbent on the devisee, whenever he sues to establish the will against the heir, to produce all the subscribing witnesses, if they may be had, that the heir may have an opportunity of cross-examining them; but where the heir sues to set aside the will, this degree of strictness may, under circumstances, be dispensed with, on the part of the devisee.[1]

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the Register of Wills, or upon the trial of an issue at Common Law; and each witness must separately depose to all facts necessary to complete the chain of evidence, so that no link may depend on the credibility of but one. Lewis *v.* Maris, 1 Dall. 278; Hock *v.* Hock, 4 S. & R. 47. And if there are three witnesses, and the proof is fully made by two only, it is enough, without calling the third. Jackson *v.* Vandyke, 1 Coxe, R. 28; Fox *v.* Evans, 3 Yeates, 506. But if one or both witnesses are dead, the will may be proved by the usual secondary evidence. Miller *v.* Carothers, 6 S. & R. 215.

[1] Bootle *v.* Blundell, 19 Ves. 494; Tatham *v.* Wright, 2 Russ. & My. 1. In the latter case, which was a bill by the heir to set aside the will, the rule was expounded by Tindal, C. J. in the following terms; — "It may be taken to be generally true, that in cases where the devisee files a bill to set up and establish the will, and an issue is directed by the Court upon the question, *devisavit vel non*, this Court will not decree the establishment of the will, unless the devisee has called all the subscribing witnesses to the will, or accounted for their absence. And there is good reason for such a general rule. For as a decree in support of the will is final and conclusive against the heir, against whom an injunction would be granted, if he should proceed to disturb the possession after the decree, it is but reasonable that he should have the opportunity of cross-examining all the witnesses to the will, before his right of trying the title of the devisee is taken from him. In that case, it is the devisee who asks for the interference of this Court, and he ought not to obtain it until he has given every opportunity to the heir at law to dispute the validity of the will. This is the ground upon which the practice is put in the cases of Ogle *v.* Cooke (1 Ves. Sen. 178), and Townsend *v.* Ives (1 Wils. 216). But it appears clearly from the whole

§ 695. The *competency of the witnesses*, and the admissi-

of the reasoning of the Lord Chancellor in the case of Bootle *v.* Blundell (1 Mer. 193; Cooper, 136), that this rule, as a general rule, applies only to the case of a bill filed to establish the will (*an establishing bill*, as Lord Eldon calls it in one part of his judgment), and an issue directed by the Court upon that bill. And even in cases to which the rule generally applies, this Court, it would seem, under particular circumstances, may dispense with the necessity of the three witnesses being called by the plaintiff in the issue. For, in Lowe *v.* Jolliffe (1 W. Black. 365), where the bill was filed by the devisees under the will, and an issue, *devisavit vel non*, was tried at bar, it appears from the report of the case, that the subscribing witnesses to the will and codicil, who swore that the testator was utterly incapable of making a will, were called by the defendant in the issue, and not by the plaintiff; for the reporter says, 'to encounter this evidence, the plaintiff's counsel examined the friends of the testator, who strongly deposed to his sanity;' and, again, the Chief Justice expressed his opinion to be, that all the defendant's witnesses were grossly and corruptly perjured. And after the trial of this issue the will was established. In such a case, to have compelled the devisee to call these witnesses, would have been to smother the investigation of the truth. Now, in the present case, the application to this Court is not by the devisee seeking to establish the will, but by the heir at law, calling upon this Court to declare the will void, and to have the same delivered up. The heir at law does not seek to try his title by an ejectment, and apply to this Court to direct that no mortgage or outstanding terms shall be set up against him to prevent his title from being tried at law, but seeks to have a decree in his favor, in substance and effect to set aside the will. This case, therefore, stands upon a ground directly opposed to that upon which the cases above referred to rest. So far from the heir at law being bound by a decree which the devisee seeks to obtain, it is he who seeks to bind the devisee, and such is the form of his application, that if he fails upon this issue, he would not be bound himself. For the only result of a verdict in favor of the will would be, that the heir at law would obtain no decree, and his bill would be dismissed, still leaving him open to his remedies at law. No decided case has been cited, in which the rule has been held to apply to such a proceeding; and, certainly, neither reason nor good sense demands that this Court should establish such a precedent under the circumstances of this case. If the object of the Court, in directing an issue, is to inform its own conscience by sifting the truth to the bottom, that course should be adopted with respect to the witnesses, which, by experience, is found best adapted to the investigation of the truth. And that is not attained by any arbitrary rule, that such witnesses must be called by one, and such by the other party; but, by subjecting the witnesses to the examination in chief of that party, whose interest it is to call him,

bility of their *opinions* in evidence have already been considered in the preceding volume.[1]

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from the known or expected bearing of his testimony, and to compel him to undergo the cross-examination of the adverse party, against whom his evidence is expected to make." See 2 Russ. & Mylne, p. 13 – 15.

[1] Ante, Vol. 1, § 327 – 430, 440.

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