

vel hyp. tac. contr. *Universa bona eorum qui consensunt vice pignorum tributis obligata sunt.*

XXIV.

24. Privi-
lege of Fu-
neral Char-
ges.

Merchants, Tradesmen, and others to whom any thing is due for Funeral-Charges, have their Action against the Heirs, or Executors, and if there be no Heirs, or Executors, they have it against the Goods of the deceased, as if they had contracted with him; and they have moreover a Privilege, even altho' the Goods of the deceased should not be sufficient to pay his Debts; provided these Charges do not exceed what was reasonable to be laid out on the Funeral, according to the Quality and Estate of the deceased. For the necessity of this Expence makes it necessary to favour with this Privilege, those who furnish it. But if the Funeral Charges exceed these bounds, even altho' the deceased himself had ordered them by his last Will and Testament, the Privilege will be restrained to what shall be judged reasonable and just, according to the circumstances^b.

^b Impensa funeris semper ex hereditate deducitur: quæ etiam omne creditum solet præcedere, cum bona solvendo non sint. *l. 45. ff. de relig. & sumpt. fun.* Qui propter funus aliquid impendit, cum defuncto contrahere creditur, non cum hærede. *l. 1. eod. v. l. 17. ff. de reb. auct. jud. poss.* Sumptus funeris arbitrantur pro facultatibus & dignitate defuncti. *l. 12. §. 5. ff. de relig. & sumpt. fun.* Aequum autem accipitur ex dignitate ejus qui funeratus est, ex causa, ex tempore, ex bona fide: ut neque plus imputetur sumptus nomine, quam factum est, neque tantum quantum factum est, si immodicè factum est. Deberet enim haberi ratio facultatum ejus in quem factum est, & ipsius rei quæ ultra modum sine causa consumitur. Quid ergo si ex voluntate testatoris impensum est? Sciendum est nec voluntatem sequendam si res egrediatur justam sumptus rationem: pro modo autem facultatum sumptum fieri. *l. 14. §. 6. ff. de relig. & sumpt. fun. d. l. §. 3. & 4.*

XXV.

25. Law
Charges.

The Expences of proving the Will, or taking Administration, of making Inventories, of Sales, Orders of Court, and Discussions of Moveables or Immoveables, and all other necessary Law Charges, are preferable to all other Debts^c. For all the Creditors are concerned in these Expences, they being laid out for their common Interest.

^c Planè sumptus causa qui necessariè factus est, semper præcedit. Nam deducto eo bonorum calculus subduci solet. *l. 8. inf. ff. de pos.* Quantitas patrimonii, deducto etiam eo quicquid explicandum venditionum causa impenditur, æstimatur. *l. 71. ff. ad leg. falc. l. ult. §. 9. C. de jure delib.* See the thirty second Article.

XXVI.

26. Prefe-

In a competition among the Credi-

tors of Publick Depositaries, whose Function is to receive the Sums of Money, or other Things, that are to be deposited by order of Court, the persons who are to receive back what has been thus consigned or deposited, are preferred on the proper Goods of these Depositaries, before their private Creditors who have neither Mortgage, nor Privilege. And this Preference is founded upon the Interest which the Publick has in the Safety of those *Deposits*, which people are obliged to consign into their hands^d.

^d In bonis mensularii vendendis, post privilegia, potiorum eorum causam esse placuit, qui pecunias apud mensam, fidem publicam secuti, deposuerunt. *l. 24. §. 2. de reb. auct. jud. poss.* Quod privilegium exercetur non in ea tantum quantitate, quæ in bonis argentarii ex pecunia deposita reperta est, sed in omnibus fraudatoris facultatibus. Idque propter necessarium usum argentariorum, ex utilitate publica receptum est. *l. 8. ff. de pos.*

Besides the Privilege explained in this Article, the Usage in France gives to Creditors who are to receive back Money, or other Things, consigned by Order of a Court of Justice, two other sorts of Security. One is, a Mortgage on the whole Estate of the Depositary who is charged with these sorts of Deposits; and this Mortgage is the Effect of the Authority of Justice, pursuant to what has been said in the fourth Article of the second Section. For as it is the Publick Justice that charges them with these Deposits, so it appropriates their whole Estate for the Security of the Things deposited. So that the Persons to whom the Things deposited are to be restored, will be preferred before the other Creditors of the Depositary who have Mortgages, if the Thing was deposited before their Mortgage was granted. The other Security is, the Appropriation of the Office whose Function it is to receive Deposits of this nature, such as are in France the Offices of the Receivers of Monies brought into Court, and those of the Commissaries of the Châtelier, who are Depositaries of Monies, or other Effects, when they proceed to seal up the Effects, and to make Inventories, and on other occasions of the like nature. For as the Function of receiving these Deposits is proper to these Offices, they are naturally appropriated for the Security of those whom Justice puts under the necessity of depositing in their hands. Thus, this Appropriation of the Office for the Security of these Deposits, gives a Privilege to the Creditors who are to receive them, and makes them preferable to all the Creditors of the said Officer who have Mortgages, even altho' they be prior in time. But this is to be understood only of Offices that are peculiarly destined to this Function. For if the Court had ordered the Money to be deposited into the hands of another Officer, whose Office was not intended for this Function, the Depositum put into his hands by the Authority of Justice would give indeed a Mortgage upon his Office, but it ought not to give a Preference. For his private Creditors would find themselves deceived by this Preference, which they could not possibly foresee; whereas the Creditors of the Person who by his Office is a Publick Depositary, cannot but know, that his Office is appropriated for indemnifying the Creditors of Things deposited into his hands. See the three following Articles.

It may be asked, concerning the Mortgage which the Creditors of Sums deposited have on the Immoveables of the Publick Depositary, from what day this Mortgage will have its effect? Whether it will be from the day that the said Receiver enters on his Office, as in the case of Minors, who have a Mortgage on the Estates of their Tutors from the day of their Nomination, for Sums which

which they are to receive only a long time after, or if it will commence only from the day of depositing the Money? If the Mortgage takes place from the day of the Admission of the Publick Depositary to his Office, the Creditors of the Monies that were last deposited, will be preferred before the particular Creditors of the Publick Depositary who have Mortgages, unless their Mortgage be prior to the Admission of the Officer: and if on the contrary the Mortgage takes place only from the day of making the Depositum, it would seem to follow from thence, that the Creditors of the several Orders ought to be preferred one before the other on the Immoveables, according to the dates of the Consignments, altho' they come all in proportionably as to the Price of the Office, without any regard to the dates of their Consignments, as shall be shewn in the twenty ninth Article.

We do not pretend to decide these Questions here, nor to treat of them expressly, no more than of others which might be started on this Subject; we make only this transitory Remark, to shew how much it is to be wished for that this matter were fully settled.

XXVII.

27. Preference as to the Depositum that is in being. If among the Things deposited, of which mention has been made in the foregoing Article, there be some of them in being, those who have deposited them, or the persons to whom they ought to return, will recover them preferably to all other Creditors; for it is their own proper Goods^c.

^c Si tamen nummi extent vendicari eos posse puto a depositariis, & futurum eum qui vindicat ante privilegia. l. 24. §. 2. ff. de reb. auct. jud. poss.

XXVIII.

28. He who innovates the Debt, loses his Privilege. If he who was Creditor to a publick Depositary, because of Monies deposited into his hands, such as those are who are to receive back Monies that have been consigned by Order of Court, or for some other Cause, has innovated his Debt, and changed the Nature of the Depositum; as if he has taken a Bond as for Money lent, he will be intitled no longer to any Privilege; and it would be the same thing as if he had left his Money in the hands of the Depositary, that he might receive Interest for it; for he will have thereby changed the Nature of the Depositum, and converted it into a Contract of Loan^f.

^f Qui depositis nummis utras à mensulariis acceperunt, à ceteris creditoribus non separantur. Et meritis aliud est enim credere, aliud deponere. l. 24. §. 2. ff. de reb. auct. jud. poss.

He who takes Interest for a Sum of Money which he had deposited into another's hands, becomes Creditor of it as of Money lent. For the Depositum produces no Interest, neither can the Depositary owe any. So that when he pays Interest, it is because he does not keep the Money any longer as a Depositum, but converts it to his own proper use, with the consent of the Person who ought to receive it. And the receiving of Interest, altho' it is not lawful on the part of the Creditor, yet it is always a mark of the intention of the Creditor, and of the Debtor, to change the Depositum into a Contract of Loan.

XXIX.

The three preceding Articles relate to the Competition between Creditors who are to receive Sums of Money, or other Things, deposited, and the particular Creditors of the Publick Depositary. But as to the Creditors of Sums of Money, or other Things, deposited, if they come in competition with one another for their respective Depositums, the Privilege which they had all of them on the Office of the Receiver, and their Preference before his particular Creditors, being common to them all, they lose the effect of it among themselves, and they come all in to share equally in the Price of the Office; in proportion to their respective Claims^g. So that, for Example, all the Creditors of one Order, whose Consignment was prior, coming in competition with Creditors of another Order, whose Consignment was made a long time after the first, there would be no Preference given to the first, on the Price of the Office that is subject to their Privilege; but each Order of Creditors would have a proportionable Share of the Price, according to the Value of the Effects consigned by every one of them. For it is by virtue of their Privilege, that the Creditors of these Orders are intitled to receive the Price of this Office, which was made a part of the Estate of this Officer, only upon condition of its being equally appropriated for the Security of all the Sums of Money, or other Things, that should be thereafter deposited in the hands of the said Officer.

^g Queritur, utrum ordo spectetur eorum qui deposuerunt, an verò simul omnium depositariorum ratio habeatur: & constat simul admittendos. l. 7. §. ult. ff. de pos.

We are to understand the Concurrence explained in this Article, only with respect to all the Creditors of one Order, considered together as having one and the same Credit, and to all those of the other Orders, considered in the like manner for the Sums that are due to them. But as to the Creditors of each Order among themselves, there is no Contribution. For every one of them ought to receive in the Order in which he is placed, the Sums which ought to come to him according as he is ranked; so that he who is ranked in the first place ought to receive his whole Debt, if the Fund be sufficient, altho' there should not remain enough for the others.

We have set down in this Article this Concurrence between Creditors of several Orders, only as to the Monies arising from the Sale of the Office; for it is their common Pledge, appropriated to them by their Privilege: and we have not mentioned the same Concurrence on the other Goods of the Officer. Concerning which the Reader may consult the last Remark made on the twenty sixth Article.

XXX.

All Privileges make a particular Appropriation, which gives to the Creditors

tor who is privileged, the Thing for his Pledge, altho' there be neither Covenant, nor Condemnation, which expressly mentions this Preference. For it is annexed to the Title of the Credit, by the Nature of the Debt, and altho' no express mention be made of it. And if the Debt were not of it self privileged, it could not be made such by the effect of a Covenant^h.

^h This is a Consequence of all the foregoing Articles, Toto tit. ff. & Cod. in quib. caus. pign. vel hyp. tac. contr.

XXXI.

31. Difference of Privileges, as to the Appropriation of Goods.

Among the Privileges of Creditors, there are some which affect only one particular Thing, and do not reach to the rest of the Goods; and others affect all the Goods in general, without distinction. Thus, the Privilege which the Proprietor of a Ground has on the Fruits of it, for the Rent of his Farm; that of a Seller for the Price of the Thing sold; that of the Person who has lent Money to buy Lands or Tenements, or to make Improvements on them, do not extend to all the Goods of the Debtor; but are limited to the Things appropriated for the Security of that particular Debtⁱ. And these Creditors have against the Remainder of the Debtor's Estate, only a Personal Action^j, or a Mortgage, if they have stipulated it. But Law Charges, and the Funeral Expences have their Preference upon all the Goods without distinction.

ⁱ See the foregoing Articles. This is a Consequence of the nature of a Privilege.

^j Sanè personali actione debitum apud præsidem petere non prohiberis. l. 17. C. de pign.

XXXII.

32. Competition and Preference among Creditors who are privileged.

Among Creditors who are privileged, some of them are preferred before others, according to the Nature of their Privileges, and the Disposition of the Laws, or Customs^m. Thus, he who has furnished Money to repair a House which was in danger of falling, is preferred to the Seller of that House, who demands the Price of the Sale: Thus, he who has let a Barn to a Farmer, will be preferred for the Rent of his Lease, before the Proprietor to whom the Farmer is indebted for the Rent of the Farm, on which the Fruits which are put into the Barn grew. Thus, the Expences at Law being the Debt of all the Parties, they are preferred to all Privileges whatsoever. Thus those who have Privileges on Moveables, are preferred to the Privilege of the Kingⁿ.

Thus Funeral Charges are preferred before the Rent due to the Landlord of the House, on the Moveables of the Tenants^o. Thus in all the cases of a concurrence of Privileges, their Preference is regulated by the Distinctions which the Nature of the said Privileges makes.

^m This is a Consequence of the Nature of Privileges. See all the Articles of this Section.

ⁿ See the Remark on the twenty third Article.

^o Si colonus vel inquilinus sit is qui mortuus est, nec sit unde funeretur, ex inventis illatis cum funerandum Pomponius scribit: & si quid superfluum remanserit, hoc pro debita pensione teneri. l. 14. §. 1. ff. de vel. & sumpt. fun.

XXXIII.

If he who sells a House, occupied by a Tenant, reserves to himself the Rent of the House for a certain time, and it be agreed that the Moveables of the Tenant shall serve as a Pledge, for the Security of the Rent reserved to the Seller, as well as for the Rent which shall fall afterwards due to the Buyer, the Seller shall be paid in the first place out of the Moveables, if their Agreement has not regulated it otherwise^p.

^p Insulam tibi vendidi, & dixi prioris anni pensionem mihi, sequentium tibi accessuram: pignorumque ab inquilino datorum jus utrumque secuturum—facti questio est. Sed verisimile est id actum, ut primam quamque pensionem pignorum causa sequatur. l. 13. ff. qui prior.

XXXIV.

It follows from all the preceding Rules, that among Creditors, there are three Orders. The first is, of those that are privileged, who go before all the others, and take place among themselves, according to the distinctions of their Preferences. The second, is of those that have Mortgages, who have their Rank after the privileged Creditors, according to the dates of their Mortgages. And the third, is of Creditors by Bond, and others, who have only Personal Actions, who not being distinguished either by Privilege, or Mortgage, come in therefore jointly together, and share equally in proportion to their Debts^q.

^q This is a Consequence of all that has been said in this Title.



SECT. VI.

Of Substitution to the Mortgage, or to the Privilege of the Creditor.

Explanation of the nature of Substitutions, and of their kinds.

ALtho' this Matter of the Substitution to the Rights of Creditors, being in it self Simple and Natural, ought to be plain and easy; yet the different ways of acquiring the Substitution, and the Inconveniences which one may fall into, for want of observing in every one of them that which is essential to it, cause a multiplicity of Combinations which may perplex this Matter, and render it obscure and difficult. For which reason, we have judged it would be useful, before we proceed to explain the Rules thereof, to give, in a few words, a general Idea of the Nature of Substitution, and of its Kinds, and of what every one of them may have, peculiar and essential to it.

Definition of Substitution.

The Substitution which we treat of here, is nothing else but that Change which puts another person in the place of the Creditor, and which makes the Right, the Mortgage, the Privilege which a Creditor has, to pass to the Person that is substituted to him, that is to say, who enters into his Right.

The most simple manner of substituting, and which makes the Rights of the Creditor to pass always to him who is substituted, is the Assignment which the Creditor makes of his Rights. Assignments are of several sorts: Some are general, and of many Rights, such as the Sale of an Inheritance, which transmits to him who buys it, all the Rights of the Heir, that he may exercise them in the same manner as the Heir himself might have done: Others are particular, of a certain Thing, such as the Assignment of a Bond: Some are gratuitous, as an Assignment made by a Donor to a Donee, when the Donation contains Debts due to the Donor, or other Rights: And there are some Assignments which are made for a valuable consideration; as if a Debtor assigns a Debt that is owing to him for the Payment of his Creditor, or if a Creditor makes over to a third Person, for a certain Price, a Debt that is due to him.

All these sorts of Assignments have this effect, that the Assignee succeeds in the place of the Creditor, and that he may exercise the Rights which are made

over to him in the same manner as the Creditor might have done himself, before the Assignment, and with the benefit of the Mortgage, and Privilege, which the Creditor had.

There is another manner of Substitution to the Rights of a Creditor, when his Debtor borrowing Money to pay what he owes him, agrees with the Person of whom he borrows, that the Monies shall be applied towards the Payment of that Creditor, and that the Person who lends the Money shall be substituted in the place of the said Creditor. And this acquires to this new Creditor the Right of the first, provided it be mentioned in the Acquittance, that the Payment is made with his Money. For the Debtor who had power to engage himself to the first Creditor, may also engage himself, on the same conditions, to him who pays off the first Creditor: and by putting him in the place of the first Creditor, who receives his Monies, he does no wrong to his other Creditors, and changes nothing in their Condition.

The Substitution may likewise be acquired without the consent of the Creditor, by an Order of the Judge, and that either with the Debtor's consent, or sometimes even without it. Thus, a Tutor who is willing to acquit with his own Money a Debt owing by his Pupil to a Creditor, who refuses to substitute him in his room, may procure an Order to be made for substituting him in the place of the Creditor, upon his acquitting the Debt. And in this case, the Authority of Justice transfers the Right of the Creditor to the Person who pays him, provided he produce the Order of Court for his Substitution, and make it appear that the Creditor has been paid with his Monies. For the Judge does to him who pays for another, only the same Justice that is due to him from the Debtor, and that without prejudice to any other person.

There is yet another way of acquiring a Judicial Substitution, without the deed of the person to whom the Right belongs, and even against his will; as if the Debts owing to a Debtor are sold by Decree of a Court of Justice. For the Court gives to the Purchaser, to whom the Debts are adjudged, the same Right which he would have, if the Debtor had sold it to them: and he will be substituted likewise to the Mortgages and Privileges.

We must take notice in the last place, of another sort of Substitution, which

is acquired without any Assignment from the Creditor, without the consent of the Debtor, and without an Order of the Judge; but only by the bare effect of the Payment made to the Creditor. Thus, when a Creditor being desirous to secure his Mortgage, and fearing lest a prior Creditor should increase his Debt by Charges, or lest he should seize upon the Lands, or Tenements, mortgaged, pays off that Creditor, he is substituted in his place, provided it appear by the Acquittance, that the Payment has been made with his Money. For the Law presumes that he himself being a Creditor, he pays only for the Security of his Mortgage; and it substitutes him in the place of the Creditor whom he pays. And it is the same thing as to him who having purchased Lands, or Houses, and fearing lest he should be troubled in his Possession of them, by a Creditor prior to his Purchase, pays him off. And both in the one and the other of these two cases, these Motives justify a Substitution which is prejudicial to no person whatsoever.

We see in all these sorts of Substitution, that the Right of the Creditor passes from his Person to another, who enters into his place, and that this Change can happen only two ways. One, by the will of the Creditor who substitutes: The other without his will, by the Effect of the Law, which puts in the place of the Creditor, him to whom Equity transmits his Right.

THE CONTENTS.

1. *The Assignment substitutes to the Mortgage, and to the Privilege.*
2. *Substitution without an Assignment.*
3. *In what manner a third Person may acquire the Right of a Creditor.*
4. *How a third Person acquires the Privilege of a Creditor.*
5. *How the Privilege is acquired without Substitution.*
6. *Of a Creditor who pays off a Creditor more ancient than himself.*
7. *A Purchaser substituted to the Creditors whom he pays off.*
8. *Substitution by an Attachment.*
9. *The Substitution is null after Payment.*
10. *The validity of the Substitution depends on the condition in which the Creditor's Right was, at the time of making the Substitution.*

I.

HE to whom a Creditor makes over a Debt, is substituted to his Right, and he acquires, together with the Credit, the Mortgages and Privileges which are annexed to it, whether the Assignment be made for a valuable consideration, or *gratis*. For altho' it be true, that the Payment extinguishes the Debt, and that it seems for that reason, that the Creditor cannot transmit to another a Right which is extinguished in his person, by the payment; yet the Assignment which is made at the same time, has the same effect as if the Creditor had sold his Right to him who pays him. And as to the effect of the Assignment, it is the same thing to him who pays for the Debtor, whether it be the person who is bound jointly with him for the Debt, or his Surety, or a third Person ^a.

^a Emptori nominis etiam pignoris persecutio præstari debet: ejus quoque quod postea venditor accepit. Nam beneficium venditoris prodest emptori. l. 6. ff. de hered. vel act. vend. Si à creditore nomen comparasti, ea pignora, quæ venditor nominis persequi posset, apud præsidem provincie vindica. l. 7. C. de obl. et act. l. 6. eod. See the fourth Article.

Cum is qui reum & fidejussoribus habens, ab uno ex fidejussoribus accepta pecuniâ, præstat actiones, poterit quidem dici nullas jam esse, cum suum perceperit, & perceptione omnes liberati sunt: sed non ita est; non enim in solum accepit: sed quodammodo nomen debitoris vendidit. Et ideo habet actiones, quia tenetur ad ipsam, ut præstet actiones. l. 36. ff. 6. de fidejuss. Salvas esse mandatas actiones: cum pretium magis mandatarum actionum solum, quam actio quæ fuit perempta videatur. l. 76. ff. de solut.

II.

Those who, without an Assignment from the Creditors, procure an Order from the Judge, appointing them, upon their paying of the Creditors, to be substituted in their place, acquire by the Payment, the Rights of those Creditors, their Mortgages, and their Privileges; and even those of the King, if they purchase the Debt that is due to him, and get themselves to be substituted in his stead ^b.

^b Si in te jus fisci, cum reliqua solveres debitoris pro quo satisfaciebas, tibi competens judex adscripsit, & transulit: ab his creditoribus, quibus fiscus potior habetur, res quas eo nomine tenes, non possunt inquietari. l. ult. C. de privil. fise.

III.

To acquire without the Authority of Justice the Right of a Creditor, and his Mortgage, it is sufficient to have one of these two things; either that he who

^c In what manner a third person may acquire the Rights of a Creditor.

pays the Creditor take an Assignment from him, as has been said in the first Article, or that he agree with the Debtor, that upon paying the Debt for him he shall be substituted to the Rights of the Creditor, and that in this case it be mentioned in the Acquittance, that the Payment was made with his Money. For then, altho' the Creditor should refuse to substitute, yet he who pays will acquire his Right, by the Effect of the Payment, and of the Agreement with the Debtor. And it would be the same thing, if the Monies lent being put into the hands of the Debtor, with this Agreement, that he who lends the Money should be substituted to the Rights of the Creditor who is discharged with it, the Debtor should afterwards make the Payment himself, declaring in the Acquittance, that it is with the Money borrowed of that person. But if the Payment is made only upon the bare Acquittance of the Creditor, and not accompanied either with the one or the other of these two ways of acquiring the Substitution, it will procure to him who pays only a bare Action against the Debtor, for recovering from him the Sum paid on his account, even altho' it should be expressed in the Acquittance, that the Payment was made with the Monies of this third Person. For it might be presumed that he had acquitted only what he owed^c.

^c Res obligatas exterius, debito soluto liberando, datum petere, non earum dominium adipisci potest. l. 21. C. de pign. & hyp.

Non omnino succedunt in locum hypothecarii creditoris hi quorum pecunia ad creditorem transit. Hoc enim tunc observatur, cum is qui pecuniam postea dat, sub hoc pacto credat, ut idem pignus ei obligetur, & in locum ejus succedat. Quod cum in persona tua factum non sit (judicatum est enim te pignora non accepisse) frustra putas tibi auxilio opus esse constitutionis nostrae ad eam rem pertinentis. l. 1. C. de his qui in prior. cred. loc. succ. Aristot. Neratio Prisco scripsit, & si ita contractum sit, ut antea dimitteretur, non aliter in jus pignoris succedet, nisi convenerit, ut sibi eadem res esset obligata. Neque enim in jus primi succedere debet, qui ipse nihil convenit de pignore. l. 3. ff. quæ res pign.

See the Remark on the third Article, as to the case where the Debtor makes Payment only some time after he has borrowed the Monies for paying the Debt.

This manner of acquiring the Right of the Creditor, without his Substitution, is just and equitable, in order to facilitate the Payment of Debts. And it is but just that the Debtors themselves should have power to put in the place of their Creditors those who pay for them, since no body receives any prejudice thereby, and since it is the interest of the Debtor that he should have power to make his condition easier by changing his Creditor. It was upon this Equity that the Edict which was made in the year 1609, after the Reduction of the Rents from Eight to Six per Cent. was founded; that whereas the Creditors not being willing to receive their Monies refused to substitute, and those who were willing to lend Money, for redeeming the said Rents, were afraid lest they should

not be substituted to the Rights of the Creditors who refused to substitute, Provision was therefore made therein by the said Edict, and the Substitution granted pursuant to this Rule.

IV.

He who pays a Creditor that is privileged, succeeds to his Privilege, whether it be by an Assignment from the Creditor, who makes over to him simply his Right, or by a Substitution made by the Judge; as has been said in the second Article: or by an Agreement with the Debtor, as shall be explained in the following Article^d.

^d Cum pro patre, in cujus potestate non eras, pecuniam fisco intuleris, & jure privilegio ejus successisti, & ejus locum, cui pecunia numerata est, consecutus es. l. 2. C. de his qui in pr. cred. loc. succ. Si cum pecuniam pro marito solveres, neque jus fisci in te transferri impetrasti, neque pignoris causa domum vel aliud quid ab eo accepisti, habes personalem actionem. l. 3. C. de priv. fise. Si in te jus fisci cum reliqua solveres debitoris pro quo satisfaciebas, tibi competens iudex adscripsit & transfudit, ab his creditoribus, quibus fisco potior habetur, res quas eo nomine teneas, non possunt inquietari. l. ult. cod.

V.

One may acquire the Privilege of a Creditor, without Substitution, in the same manner as the Mortgage, by an Agreement with the Debtor, that he who shall pay for him shall have the Privilege. And it is no matter whether the Payment be made to the Creditor by him who lends the Money, or by the Debtor with whom the Money has been intrusted, provided that both in the one and the other case, it appear by the Acquittance, that the Payment is made with the Money of that Person^e, as has been said in relation to the Mortgage in the third Article.

^e Eorum ratio prior est creditorum, quorum pecunia ad creditores privilegiarios pervenit. Pervenisse autem quemadmodum accipimus? Utrum si statim profecta est ab inferioribus ad privilegiarios, an verò & si per debitoris personam, hoc est, si ante ei numerata est: quod quidem potest benigne dici si modo non post aliquod intervallum id factum sit. l. 24. §. 3. ff. de reb. auct. jud. poss. Add the Texts cited on the fourth Article.

Altho' the Money lent for the Payment be not delivered to the Creditor, whether by the Debtor, or by him who lends the Money, till some time after their Agreement; yet he who lends the Money shall nevertheless be substituted to the Rights of the Creditor. For the Debtor's Bond to him who advanced the Money, will serve as a proof that the occasion of the Loan was to pay off the Creditor: and the Creditor's Acquittance will prove that the Money was put to that use. And as to what is said in the Law cited on this Article, that there must be no interval of time, that is to be applied to the Usage of the Roman Law, according to which Covenants were often made without any Writing; and therefore the distance of time might have occasioned the loss of the Proof how the Monies had been employed.

The Debt which is attached is adjudged to the Creditor who attaches, such as it did belong to the Debtor.

VI.

6. Of a Creditor who pays off a Creditor more ancient than himself.

He who being already a Creditor, pays off another Creditor of the same Debtor, who is prior to himself, succeeds to his Mortgage, altho' he have made no such Agreement, nor received any Substitution. For his Quality of Creditor makes it to be presumed, that he pays him who is a more ancient Creditor, with no other view than that he may succeed in his place, and thereby secure his own Debt. Which distinguishes his Condition from him who having no such Interest, pays for the Debtor without Substitution, and of whom it may be said, that perhaps he was under an Obligation to the Debtor to pay for him^f.

^f Plane cum tertius creditor primum de sua pecunia dimisit, in locum ejus substituitur in ea quantitate, quam superiori exsolvit. l. 16. ff. qui pot. in pign. V. l. 11. §. 4. eod. l. 12. §. 9. eod. l. 17. eod.

VII.

7. A Purchaser substituted to the Creditors whom he pays off.

The Purchaser of an Estate, employing the Price of his Purchase for the Payment of the Creditors to whom the Estate was mortgaged, is substituted to their Right, to the Value of what he pays them. For by paying them with the Price of their Pledge, in order to secure it to himself, he preserves it to himself for the Value of what he pays them, against other subsequent Creditors, altho' they be prior to his Purchase^g.

^g Si posteriores creditores pecunia tua dimissi sunt, quibus obligata fuit possessio quam emisit te dicis, ita ut pretium perveniret ad eosdem priores creditores, in jus eorum successisti: & contra eos, qui inferiores illis fuerunt, iusta defensione te tueri potes. l. 3. C. de his qui in prio. cred. loc. suc. Eum qui à debitore suo prædium obligatum comparavit, eatenus tuendum, quatenus ad priorem creditorem ex pretio pecunia pervenit. l. 17. ff. qui pot. See the preceding Article.

VIII.

8. Substitution by an Attachment.

The Creditor who by virtue of his Mortgage, or of an order from the Judge, attaches the Rights and Actions which his Debtor has against those who are indebted to him, procuring what he has attached to be adjudged to him, is substituted to the Mortgages and Privileges which his Debtor had for the Debts that are attached^h.

^h Si prætorium pignus quicumque judices dandum alicui perspexerint: non solum super mobilibus rebus, & immobilibus, & se moventibus, sed etiam super actionibus quæ debitori competunt, præcipimus hoc eis licere decernere. l. 1. C. de prat. pign.

IX.

When the Substitution by the Creditor is necessary for transmitting his Right to the Person who pays for the Debtor, it ought to be made at the time of Payment, and of granting the Acquittance. For if the Payment was consummated without any mention of the Substitution, it being made only after Payment, it would be useless. And the Right of the Creditor being extinguished by the Payment, he could not make over to another what he had not any longer, nor substitute to a Right which was extinctⁱ.

ⁱ Modestinus respondit, si post solum sine ullo pacto omne quod ex causa tutelæ debeatur, actiones post aliquod intervallum cessæ sint, nihil ea cessione actum, cum nulla actio superfuerit. l. 76. ff. de solut. See the following Article,

X.

All Substitutions, Assignments, and other ways of acquiring the Mortgage, or Privilege of a Creditor, whether by Covenant, or by an Order of the Judge, or otherwise, have no manner of effect, if at the time of the Substitution, Assignment, or other Act, the Right of the Creditor was no more in being, whether it be that it was extinguished by Prescription, or annulled by a Judgment, or discharged by a Payment, or that it had ceased to be thro' some one of the Causes which shall be explained in the following Section. Thus, in Questions relating to the validity of Substitutions, Assignments, and other ways of acquiring the Mortgage, or Privilege, of a Creditor, it is necessary to examine, if at the time of the Substitution, the Right, the Mortgage, or the Privilege, was still subsisting^j.

^j Si dominus solvit pecuniam, pignus quoque perimitur. l. 13. §. 2. ff. de pign. See the following Section.



test impeditur, l. 2. in f. C. debit. vend. pign. imp. n. p. l. 6. C. de distr. pign.

See the fourth Article of the third Section of this Title.

SECT. VII.

In what manner the Mortgage ends, or is extinguished.

The CONTENTS.

1. The Mortgage is extinguished by Payment.
2. By a Novation.
3. By the Oath of the Debtor, when the Debt is referred to it, and he swears that he owes nothing; or by a Judgment which acquits him.
4. By every thing that is instead of Payment.
5. By consigning the Debt, in case the Creditor refuses to receive Payment.
6. If the Payment which was made does not subsist, the Mortgage revives.
7. The Mortgage is extinct, if the Pledge is put out of Commerce.
8. Or if it happens to perish.
9. The Prescription of the Debt extinguishes the Mortgage.
10. If the Debtor loses his Right to the Pledge, the Creditor loses his Mortgage on it.
11. Effect of Redhibition of the Thing mortgaged.
12. The Creditor who consents to the Alienation of his Pledge, loses his Mortgage, if he does not expressly reserve it.
13. If the Creditor consents that his Pledge be engaged to another.
14. The Mortgage revives, if the Alienation does not take effect.
15. In what manner we are to understand the Creditor's consent to the Alienation.

I.

1. The Mortgage is extinguished by Payment.

THE Mortgage being only an Accessory of the Debt, the Payment which annuls the Debt, extinguishes the Mortgage^a. But it is necessary that the Payment should be entire, of all that is due for Principal, Interest, and Charges^b.

^a Si dominus solverit pecuniam, pignus quoque perimitur. l. 13. §. 2. ff. de pign. & hyp. Pignoris causa res obligatas, soluto debito restitui debere pignoratitiae actionis natura declarat. l. 10. C. de pigner. act.

^b Nisi universum, quod debetur, offerretur, jure pignus creditor vendere potest. l. 25. §. 14. ff. sum. ereisc. Nam si vel modicum de sorte, vel usuris in debito perseveret, distractio rei obligatae non po-

II.

Novation, which extinguishes the¹. By a first Obligation, changing it into a new^{Novation}. one, extinguishes also the Mortgage, which was an Accessory to it, if it is not reserved^c.

^c Nova debiti obligatio pignus peremit, ni convenit, ut pignus repetatur. l. 11. §. 1. ff. de pign. act.

See what Novation is in the Title of Novations.

III.

Whatever annuls the Debt, discharges³. By the the Mortgage. Thus, when a Debtor, Oath of the Debtor, to whose Oath the Debt is referred, when the Debt is referred to it, swears that he has paid it, or when he is acquitted by a Judgment, from which there lies no Appeal, the Debt and the Mortgage are annulled. And it is the same thing in all the cases where the Obligation subsists no more^d. and he swears that he owes nothing; or by a Judgment which

^d Si deferente creditore juravit debitor se dare acquits non oportere, pignus liberatur: quia perinde habetur atque si judicio absolutus esset. Nam & si a iudice quamvis per injuriam absolutus sit debitor, tamen pignus liberatur. l. 13. ff. quib. mod. pign. vel hyp. sol. Idem dicere debemus, vel si qua ratione obligatio ejus finita est. l. 6. eod.

IV.

Whatever may be reckoned to be in⁴. By every the place of Payment, extinguishes the Mortgage. Thus, for Example, if the Creditor contents himself either with a Surety, or with another Debtor, instead of the former, or with another Pledge instead of the first; in all these cases, and others of the like Nature, the Mortgage ceases, if it appears to have been the intention of the Parties to discharge the Mortgage, and to restrain the Creditor to these other Sureties, altho' his condition become thereby less advantageous^e. that is instead of Payment.

^e Item liberatur pignus si ve solutum est debitum, si ve eo nomine satisfactum est. l. 6. ff. quib. mod. pign. Satisfactum autem accipimus quemadmodum voluit creditor, licet non sit solutum: si ve aliis pignoribus sibi caveri voluit, ut ab hoc recedat: si ve fidejussoribus, si ve reo dato, si ve pretio aliquo, vel nuda conventionione, nascitur pignoratitia actio, & generaliter dicendum erit, quoties recedere voluit creditor a pignore, videri satisfactum, si ut ipse voluit, sibi cavit, licet in hoc deceptus sit. l. 9. §. 3. ff. de pign. act. l. 3. C. de luit. pign.

V.

If it is by reason of the Creditor's refusing his Payment, that he detains the Pledge, or insists to have it exposed to Sale, the Debtor may tender the Money⁵. By consigning the Debt, in case the Creditor

refuses to receive Payment. in Court, and consign it, in order to his being discharged from the Debt, to hinder the Sale, and recover his Pledge, together with the Costs and Damages which the Creditor may owe him because of his Delay^f.

^f Si per creditorem stetit, quominus ei solvatur, recte agitur pignoratitia. l. 20. §. 2. ff. de pign. act. Si offerat in iudicio pecuniam, debet rem pignoratam, & quod sua interest consequi. l. 9. §. ult. eod. Debitoris denuntiatio, qui creditori suo ne sibi rem pignori obligatam distrahat, vel his qui ab eo volunt comparare, denuntiat, ita demum efficax est, si universum tam sortis quam usurarum offerat debitum creditori, eoque non accipiente, idonea fide probationis, ita ut oportet depositum ostendat. l. 2. C. debit. vend. pign. imp. n. p. See as to the matter of Consignment, the Remark on the seventh Article of the third Section.

VI.

*6. If the Payment which was made does not subsist, the Mortgage re-
vives.*

If the Payment, or that which was to be in lieu of it, had no effect, the Mortgage would revive together with the Credit; as if the Creditor had taken in Payment an Assignment to a Debt with Warranty, and that he could not get Payment of it, or Houses and Lands with the same Warranty, which were evicted from him, or that a Minor had given an Acquittance, against which he was relieved. For these kinds of Payments imply the condition that they shall subsist. But if a Creditor of full Age had contented himself with an Assignment to a Debt at his own peril, and had given a Discharge, the Mortgage and the Credit would remain extinguished, altho' the Creditor should not get Payment of the Debt that was made over to him^g.

^g Debitum cuius meministi, quod per pacti conventionem inutiliter factam remisisti, etiam nunc petere non vetaris, & ulitato more pignora vindicare. l. 5. C. de rem. pign.

VII.

7. The Mortgage is extinct, if the Pledge is put out of Commerce.

If the Lands or Houses that are mortgaged cease to be in Commerce, as if they are dedicated to the Use of a Church, or other Publick Place, the Mortgage subsists no longer. But the Creditor hath his Action against the Price which his Debtor receives for them^h.

^h See the twenty sixth Article of the first Section.

VIII.

8. Or if it happens to perish.

As the Mortgage upon a Land or Tenement which happens to perish by an Inundation, or other Accident, subsists no longer; so likewise the Mortgage which a Creditor has upon a Right of Usufruct belonging to his Debtor, will

have no longer effect, if the Usufruct ceases, even altho' the Debtor should survive the loss of his Usufruct, as if he had it only for a certain timeⁱ.

ⁱ Sicut re corporali extincta, ita & usufructu extincto, pignus hypothecae perit. l. 8. ff. quib. mod. pign. See the second Article of the sixth Section of Usufruct.

IX.

If the Debt for which the Mortgage was given, be extinguished by Prescription, the Mortgage, which was only an Accessory of the Debt, is annulled^j.

^j Item liberatur pignus sive solutum est debitum. Sed & si tempore finitum pignus est, idem dicere debemus. l. 6. ff. quib. mod. pign. l. 12. ff. de divers. temp. presc. l. 3. C. de presc. 30. vel. 40. ann.

By the Roman Law the Hypothecary Action was extinguished only by a Prescription of Forty Years against the Debtor and his Heirs, and likewise against a third Possessor, if the Debtor was still alive. Thus, the Hypothecary Action was of a longer duration than the bare Personal Action. See the end of the Preamble of the fourth Section of Possession and Prescription. This Prescription of Forty Years is observed in some Provinces. But we have conceived the Rule according to the common and natural Usage, which gives no longer duration to the Hypothecary Action, than to the bare Personal Action, for the reason explained in the Article.

X.

If the Debtor who had mortgaged a Land or Tenement, happens to lose the Right he had to it, as if he is stripped of it by an Eviction, or by a Power of Redemption, vested in a former Owner, or in the next of Kin, or by other Causes, the Mortgage which he had assigned on the said Land or Tenement, does not subsist any longer; unless it was by his own proper deed that he lost his Right; as if, for Example, when he was able to defend himself against the said Eviction, or Power of Redemption, he yielded to it; if he neglected to demand the Sale of an Estate, seized on in the hands of a third Person, and which belonged to him; if he did not defend himself in a good Cause; or if he abandoned any other way his Right. For in all these Cases, the Creditor may exercise the Rights of his Debtor, in order to preserve his own^m.

^m Si res distracta fuerit sic, Nisi intra certum diem meliorem conditionem invenisset, fueritque tradita, & forte emptor, antequam melior conditio offerretur: hanc rem pignori dedisset. Marcellus libro quinto Digestorum ait, finiri pignus si melior conditio fuerit allata, quamquam ubi sic res distracta est, nisi emptori displicuisset, pignus finiri non putet. l. 2. ff. quib. mod. pign. Superficiente (debitore) tali auxilio uti, vel praesente vel absente eo, creditores ejus possunt. l. pen. C. de nou. num. pec.

XI. If

XI.

11. Effect of Redhibition of the Thing mortgaged.

If a Debtor who had bought a House, or Lands, or a Moveable, and had afterwards engaged it to a Creditor, has a mind to dissolve the Sale by Redhibition, that is, by obliging the Seller to take back the Thing sold, because of some defect in it, his Creditor may hinder him, unless the Debtor provides for his Security, either by giving him the Price which the Seller shall be obliged to restore to him, or by letting him have the Thing sold, if he is willing to take it at the Price which they shall agree on^a.

^a Si debitor cujus res pignori obligatae erant, servum quem emerat redhibuerit, an desinat Servianae locus esse? Et magis est ne desinat, nisi ex voluntate creditoris hoc factum est. l. 4. ff. quib. mod. pign.

See the first Article of the eleventh Section of the Contract of Sale.

XII.

12. The Creditor who consents to the Alienation of his Pledge, loses his Mortgage, if he does not expressly reserve it.

The Creditor who consents to the Sale, Donation, or other Alienation which his Debtor makes of a House, or Lands, that are engaged to him, or who suffers it, or ratifies it, has no longer any Mortgage upon the said House, or Lands, unless he reserves it^a. For he has consented to an Alienation which could not have been made to his prejudice, if he had not approved of it: and his consent would deceive the Purchaser, if he might afterwards make use of his Right of Mortgage.

^a Creditor qui permittit rem venire pignus dimittit. l. 158. ff. de reg. jur. Si consensit venditioni creditor, liberatur hypotheca. l. 7. ff. quib. mod. pign. Si in venditione pignoris consenserit creditor, vel ut debitor hanc rem permutet, vel donet, vel in dotem det, dicendum erit pignus liberari: nisi salva causa pignoris sui consensit vel venditioni vel ceteris. l. 4. §. 1. cod. Si probaveris te fundum mercatum, possessionemque ejus tibi traditam, sciente & consentiente ea quae sibi eum à venditore obligatum dicit, exceptione eam removebis: nam obligatio pignoris consensu & contrahitur, & dissolvitur. l. 2. C. de remis. pign. Sed & si non concesserat pignus venundari, si ratam habuit venditionem, idem erit probandum. d. l. 4. §. 1. in fine ff. quib. mod. pign.

Touching this consent, see the fifteenth Article of this Section.

XIII.

13. If the Creditor consents that his Pledge be engaged to another.

If a Creditor consents that his Pledge be engaged to another, he resigns to him his Right^a. But this consent ought to be such as shall be explained in the fifteenth Article.

^a Paulus respondit, Sempronium antiquiorem creditorem consentientem, cum debitor eandem rem tertio creditori obligaret, jus suum pignoris remississe videri. l. 12. ff. quib. mod. pign. v. h. f.

XIV.

If the Sale, or other Alienation, made by the Debtor, with the consent of his Creditor, happens to be annulled, or that after the obtaining of this consent, the Alienation is not accomplished; the Creditor, in that case, enters again to his Right. For it was only in favour of that Alienation that he renounced his Mortgage. And it would be the same thing, if he had consented that his Debtor should devise to a Legatee the Houses, or Lands, mortgaged to him, and that the Legacy should be found to be null, or the Legatee should renounce it^a.

^a Bellè quaeritur, si fortè venditio rei specialiter obligatae non valeat, an nocere hæc res creditori debeat, quod consensit: ut puta, si qua ratio juris venditionem impediatur, dicendum est, pignus valere. l. 4. §. ult. ff. quib. mod. pign. Si voluntate creditoris fundus alienatus est, invecundè applicari sibi eum creditor desiderat, si tamen effectus sit secutus venditionis. Nam si non venierit, non est satis ad repellendum creditorem, quod voluit venire. l. 8. §. 6. cod. Venditionis autem appellationem generaliter accipere debemus, ut & si legare permittitur, valeat quod concessit quod ita intelligemus, ut & si legatum repudiatum fuerit, convalescat pignus. d. l. 8. §. 11. Voluntate creditoris pignus debitor vendidit, & postea placuit inter eum & emptorem, ut à venditione discederent, jus pignoris salvum erit creditori: nam sicut debitori, ita & creditori pristinum jus restituitur: neque omnimodò creditor pristinum jus remittit: sed ita demum, si emptor rem retineat, nec reddat venditori. l. 10. cod.

XV.

We ought not to take for a consent of the Creditor to the Alienation of his Pledge, the knowledge which he may have of it, nor the silence which he keeps after he knows it; as if he knows that his Debtor is about selling a House which is mortgaged to him, and says nothing of it. But in order to deprive him of his Right, it is necessary that it appear by some Act, that he knows what is doing to his prejudice, and that he consents to it. And a Creditor does not lose his Mortgage by his consent, except when it appears evidently that his Intention is to resign it, or that there be ground to charge him with dishonesty, for not having declared his Right, when he was under an Obligation to do it. Thus, for Example, if he who had mortgaged specially a House, or Lands, to a former Creditor for an Annuity, engages it in the same manner to a second Creditor, for another Annuity, declaring to him that the said House, or Lands, were not mortgaged to any body else, and that the first Creditor signed the Contract either as a Party, or as a Witness; he will have thereby rendered

rendred himself an Accomplice to this false Declaration, and cannot exercise his Mortgage on the said House, or Lands, to the prejudice of this second Creditor. Thus, on the contrary, if a Creditor signs, as Witness, a Contract of Marriage, or other Deed, by which his Debtor engages all his Estate, he shall not lose his Mortgage for not having entred his Protestation. Thus he who signs, as Witness, a Testament, in which the Testator devises Houses, or Lands, that are mortgaged to the said Witness, will not lose his Mortgage. And in general, we ought to judge of the effect of these Approbations by Signature, or otherwise, according to the circumstances of the Quality of the Acts, of that of the Persons, of the Knowledge which they may have of the wrong which either their Approbation, or their Silence, may do to their own Interest, and to that of others, of their Sincerity or Disingenuity, of the Intention of the Contractors, and other circumstances of the like Nature.

* Non videtur autem consensisse creditor, si sciente eo debitor rem vendiderit, cum ideo passus est venire, quod sciebat utique pignus sibi durare. Sed si subscripserit forte in tabulis emptionis, consensisse videtur, nisi manifeste appareat deceptum esse. l. 8. §. 15. ff. quib. mod. pign.

Inveniebatur Mævius instrumento cautionis cum republica facto à Seio interfuisse, & subscripisse, quo caverat Seius, fundum nulli alii esse obligatum. Quæro an actio aliqua in rem Mævio competere potest? Modestinus respondit, pignus cui is de quo queritur consensit, minime eum retinere posse. l. 9. §. 1. ff. quib. mod. pign.

Lucia Titia intestata moriens, à filiis suis per fideicommissum alieno servo domum reliquit. Post mortem, filii ejus iidem qui hæredes, cum dividerunt hæreditatem matris, dividerunt etiam domum. In qua divisione dominus servi fideicommissarii quasi restituit. Quæro, an fideicommissi persecutionem acquisitam sibi per servum, eo quod interfuit divisioni, amisisse videatur? Modestinus respondit, fideicommissum ipso jure amissum non esse— nisi evidenter apparuerit omittendi fideicommissi causa hoc eum fecisse. l. 34. §. 2. ff. de leg. 2. v. l. 8. ff. de resc. vend.

Caius Seius ob pecuniam mutuam fundum suum Lucio Titio pignori dedit. Postea pactum inter eos factum est, ut creditor pignus suum in compensationem pecunie sue certo tempore possideret.

Verum ante expletum tempus creditor cum suprema sua ordinaret, testamento cavit, ut alter ex filiis suis haberet eum fundum, &c. addidit quem de Lucio Titio emi, cum non emisset. Hoc testamentum inter ceteros signavit, & Caius Seius, qui fuit debitor. Quæro, an ex hoc quod signavit præjudicium aliquod sibi fecerit: cum nullum instrumentum venditionis proferatur, sed solum pactum ut creditor certi temporis fructus caperet? Herennius Modestinus respondit, contractui pignoris non obesse, quod debitor testamentum creditoris, in quo se emisit pignus expressit, signasse proponitur. l. 39. ff. de pign. act.

It is necessary to remark on this Article, the difference there may be between a Creditor's signing an Instrument as a Party, and his signing it only as a Witness. What-

ever he signs as a Party, binds him without doubt: But in Deeds which he signs as a Witness, and where the Signature is put only for a testimony to the truth of what is transacted between the contracting Parties, one cannot draw a consequence from the Witness's signing, that may be of prejudice to him, unless he should give occasion by his signing for one of the Parties to be cheated, as in the case of the Witness who signs the Contract in which is inserted the false Declaration explained in the Article. For in that case, the Silence of the Witness implies a disingenuity which makes him accessory to the Knavery of his Debtor. But if a Witness does not contribute any thing on his part to the cheating and overreaching any of the Parties, and if he gives no express consent which derogates from his Right, neither his presence, nor his signing ought to hurt him; as appears in the Case of this Law 39 ff. de pign. act. quoted on this Article, where he who had mortgaged his Lands to a Creditor does not lose them for having signed, as Witness, the Testament of the said Creditor, who declares his will to be, that one of his Children should have the said Lands, even altho' the Testator had added, that he had purchased those Lands of the said Witness.

See the thirty third Article of the first Section.



TITLE II.

Of the SEPARATION of the GOODS of the Deceased, from those of the Heir, or Executor, among their respective Creditors.



WE have seen in the foregoing Title, that one of the uses of a Mortgage is, to secure to the Creditor the Estate of the Debtor, into what hands soever it passes. But when it passes only from the Debtor to his Heir, or Executor, the Creditor preserves his Right, altho' he have no Mortgage, because the Heir, or Executor, succeeds to the Estate, only on condition that he acquit the Debts. Thus, all the Creditors of the deceased are, with regard to his Heir, or Executor, in the same condition in which they were, with respect to their Debtor; every one of them retaining on the Estate of the deceased, either their Mortgage, or their Privilege, or their simple Credit, such as they had it in the Debtor's life-time. But this change which makes the Estate of the Debtor to pass to his Heir, or Executor, having this effect, that the Creditors of the said Heir or Executor, will likewise have their Right on that Estate which he acquires by Inheritance, or Succession,

The Subject Matter of this Title.

sion, it happens that when the Heir or Executor has not Estate enough of his own to satisfy his own Creditors, the Creditors of the deceased are in danger of seeing the Estate of the deceased go to the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor; and provision is made against this, by separating the Estate of the deceased from that of his Heir, or Executor, for the benefit of their respective Creditors.

It is by the use of this Separation, that the Creditors of the deceased, who fear that the Heir, or Executor, is not solvent, hinder the confusion of the Goods of the deceased with those of the Heir, or Executor; that the Goods of their Debtor may be preserved to them, and may not go to the Creditors of the said Heir, or Executor.

But if the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor, are afraid, on their part, lest the Heir, or Executor, who is their Debtor, engaging himself in an incumbered Inheritance, or Succession, his Goods should go to the Creditors of the deceased, to their prejudice, the same Equity demands, that they may have power to distinguish and separate the Estate of the Heir, or Executor, from that of the deceased. As to which it is necessary to observe, that altho' the condition of the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor, and that of the Creditors of the deceased, ought to be equal, yet the *Roman Law* had ordered it otherwise, and did not allow the Separation of Goods to the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor, for this reason, that a Debtor being at liberty to bind himself, he may make the condition of his Creditors worse, by entering into new Engagements, to their prejudice^a. But this nicety has not been received into use with us; and it has been thought reasonable, that the liberty which a Debtor may have to contract new Debts, altho' prejudice may arise from thence to his Creditors, ought not to be drawn to such a consequence. For if it is permitted to this Debtor, to engage himself to new Creditors, by accepting a Succession charged with Debts, his Creditors ought not to be debarred from making use of the Right which they have on his Goods, to prevent their being subjected to the charges of that Succession: and it is fully as equitable to grant them this Separation, as it is to grant it against them, to the Creditors of the deceased, for the Goods of the Succession.

^a Ex contrario autem, creditores Titii non impetrabunt separationem. Nam licet alicui adjiciendo sibi creditorem, creditoris sui facere deteriorem conditionem. l. 1. §. 2. ff. de separat.

It is true, that in certain cases the *Roman Law* did grant the Separation of Goods to the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor; as if he accepted a burdensome Inheritance, or Succession, in order to defraud his Creditors: and yet even in this case it did not grant it easily. And this Separation had likewise place in some other cases, which it would be needless to mention here^b; but these Exceptions were not sufficient to do justice to the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor, and our Usage allows them this Separation without distinction.

^b V. l. 1. §. 5. & seq. ff. de separat.

This remark concerning our Usage in this matter, will serve as an advertisement, that we are to extend to the Creditors of the Heir, or Executor, the Rules which shall be set down in this Title, altho' mention be made only of the Creditors of the deceased.

SECT. I.

Of the nature and effects of the Separation.

The CONTENTS.

1. *The case of this Separation.*
2. *The Separation is independent on the Mortgage.*
3. *Legatees have the right of Separation.*
4. *Separation for a Debt that is conditional, or of which the term is not yet come.*
5. *If the Heir, or Executor, has already alienated the Goods of the deceased, there can be no Separation.*
6. *The Engagement made by the Heir, or Executor, does not binder the Separation.*
7. *The Separation takes place in a second and third Succession, and beyond that.*
8. *If the Debtor succeeds to his Surety, the Separation takes place.*
9. *The Separation does not prejudice the Right against the Heir, or Executor.*
10. *Privileges do not hinder the Separation.*
11. *If*

11. *If one of the Heirs, or Executors, be a Creditor, he may demand the Separation.*

I.

1. *The case of Separation.*

WHEN the Creditors of a deceased Person are afraid that the Heir, or Executor, is not solvent, they may procure an Order from the Judge, for separating the Effects of the Inheritance, or Succession, from those of the Heir, or Executor, that they may secure to themselves the Goods of the deceased their Debtor, against the Creditors of his Heir, or Executor^a.

^a Sciendum est separationem solere impetrari decreto prætoris: Solet autem separatio permitti creditoribus ex his causis, ut puta debitorem quis Scium habuit: hic decessit: hæres ei exitit Titius: hic non est solvendo, patitur bonorum venditionem: creditores Scii dicunt bona Scii sufficere sibi, creditores Titii contentos esse debere bonis Titii. Et sic quasi duorum fieri bonorum venditionem. Fieri enim potest, ut Scius quidem solvendo fuerit, potueritque satis creditoribus suis, vel ita semel, & si non in æsem, in aliquid tamen satisfacere: admittis autem commixtisque creditoribus Titii, minus sint consecuturi, quia ille non est solvendo: aut minus consequantur quia plures sunt. Hic est igitur æquissimum creditores Scii desiderantes separationem audiri, impetrareque à prætore, ut separatim quantum cujusque creditoribus præstetur. l. 1. ff. de separat. Est jurisdictionis tenor promptissimus, indemnitatique remedium edicto prætoris creditoribus hereditariis demonstratum, ut quoties separationem bonorum postulant causa cognita, impetrent. l. 2. C. de bon. aut fud. possid.

Altho' this Rule seems to be limited to the Creditors of the deceased, yet those of the Heir, or Executor, are in Equity intitled to the same Right, as has been observed in the Preamble.

II.

2. *The Separation is independent on the Mortgage.*

The right of this Separation is independent on the Mortgage, and Bond Creditors may demand it. For the bare effect of their Debt gives them a Preference on the Estate of their Debtor, before the Creditors of his Heir, or Executor, to whom the deceased was under no Obligation^b.

^b It is not the Mortgage that gives this Right, but the bare quality of Creditor.

III.

3. *Legatees have the right of Separation.*

The Legatees of the deceased have the same right to demand this Separation, for they are Creditors to the Succession. But the Creditors of the deceased are prefer'd before them, because he could not give Legacies to their prejudice^c.

^c Quoties heredis bona solvendo non sunt, non solum creditores testatoris, sed etiam eos quibus legatum fuerit, impetrare bonorum possessionem æquum est. Ita ut cum creditoribus solidum ac-

quisitum fuerit, legatariis vel solidum, vel portio quaeratur. l. 6. ff. de sep. l. 4. §. 1. eod.

IV.

A Creditor, or a Legatee, whose right depends on a condition, which has not as yet happened, or is superse-^{4. Separation for a Debt that is conditional, or of which the term is not yet come.}ded by a term which is not yet come, may notwithstanding demand the Separation, for their security^d.

^d Creditoribus qui ex die, vel sub conditione debentur, & propter hoc nondum pecuniam petere possunt, æque separatio dabitur, quoniam & ipsis cautione communi consulatur. l. 4. ff. de separat.

V.

If before the Separation was demanded, the Heir, or Executor, had alienated, without any intention of defrauding the Creditors, Goods of the Succession, whether Moveables, or Immoveables, or even the whole Succession, the Creditors of the deceased could not demand the Separation of what had been alienated^e. For the Heir, or Executor, who in that quality was master of the Goods, had power to dispose of them. But this alienation, with respect to the Immoveables, would be of no prejudice to the Creditors of the deceased, who had Mortgages on them: and they might exercise their Mortgage, and their Privilege, if they had any, against the Possessors, in the same manner as they might have done, if the deceased had made the alienation^f.

^e Ab hærede vendita hereditate, separatio frustra desiderabitur: utique si nulla fraudis incurrat suspicio. Nam quæ bona fide medio tempore per hæredem gesta sunt, rata conservari solent. l. 2. ff. de separat.

Altho' it may seem as if this Law related only to the Sale of the Inheritance, or Succession, yet the tenor and motive of it comprehend particular Alienations, and the last words of the Law shew it plainly enough.

^f The Alienations, into what hands soever the Lands and Tenements that are mortgaged pass, do no prejudice to the Mortgage, as has been observed in the foregoing Title.

It follows from this Rule, that with regard to the Immoveables alienated by the Heir, or Executor, the Creditors of the deceased, who had no Mortgage on them, have lost their Right to them, and that there remains to them only the Personal Action against the Heir, or Executor, and the Right of a Separation of the Goods that may still remain in the hands of the Heir, or Executor. And as to the Moveables alienated by the Heir, or Executor, the Creditors of the deceased, even those who have Mortgages, have lost their Right to them, in the same manner as they would have lost it if the Alienation had been made by the deceased; for they had not acquired a Right of Property in them by the death of the deceased.

VI.

If the Heir, or Executor, had pawned or mortgaged Moveables or Immoveables, belonging to the Inheritance, or Succession,^{6. The Engagement made by the Heir.}

Executor, and, not under the Separation.

Succession, before the Separation was demanded, the Creditors of the deceased will nevertheless obtain a Separation of those Goods that are engaged. For the Separation has place as long as the property belongs to the Heir, or Executor, and that Engagement does not divest him of it.

* Sciendum est autem, etiam si obligata res esse proponatur ab herede jure pignoris vel hypothecæ, attamen, si hæreditaria fuit, jure separationis hypothecario creditori potiorum esse cum qui separationem impetraverit. Et ita Severus & Antoninus rescripserunt. l. 1. §. 3. ff. de separar.

VII.

7. The Separation takes place in a second and third Succession, and beyond that.

If the Goods of an Inheritance, or Succession, pass from the Heir, or Executor, to his Heir, or Executor, and from him again to his Successors, and so down to other Heirs, and Executors, successively, so that the first Inheritance, or Succession, and the following ones, are confounded together in the hands of the Heirs and Executors to whom they descend, the Creditors of each Inheritance, or Succession, will follow the Goods belonging to the same, from one Heir and Executor to the other, and may demand a Separation of them^h.

^h Secundum hæc videamus, si primus secundum heredem rescripserit, secundus tertium, & tertii bona veniant: qui creditores possint separationem impetrare? & putem si quidem primi creditores petant, utique audiendos & adversus secundi & adversus tertii creditores. Si verò secundi creditores petant, adversus tertii utique eos impetrare posse. l. 1. §. 8. ff. de separar.

VIII.

8. If the Debtor succeeds to his Surety, the Separation takes place.

If a Debtor for whom another Person was engaged as Surety, happens to succeed to him, the Creditor may demand, against the Creditors of his Debtor, the Separation of the Goods of the deceased, without any opposition from the Creditors of the Surety, or those of the Debtor, who succeeds to him as Heir, or Executor: for altho' the Obligation of the deceased Surety be confounded in the person of the Debtor who succeeds to him, yet the Creditor does not lose the Security which he had on the Goods of the Surety, no more than that which he still retains on the Goods of his Debtorⁱ.

ⁱ Debitor fidejussori heres extitit, ejusque bona venierunt: quamvis obligatio fidejussionis extincta sit, nihilominus separatio impetrabitur, petente eo cui fidejussor fuerat obligatus: sive solus sit hæreditarius creditor, sive plures. Neque enim ratio juris, quæ causam fidejussionis propter principalem obligationem, quæ major fuit, exclusit, damno debet afficere creditorem, qui sibi diligenter prospexerat. Quid ergo si bonis fidejussoris separatis, soli-

dum ex hæreditate stipulator consequi non possit? Utrum portio cum cæteris hæredis creditoribus et quærenda erit, an conventus esse debeat bonis quæ separari maluit? Sed cum stipulator iste, non adita fidejussoris à reo hæreditate, bonis fidejussoris venditis, in residuum promissæ debitoris creditoribus potuerit, ratio non patitur eum in proposito submoveri. l. 3. ff. de separar.

What is said in this Article concerning the case where the Debtor succeeds to the Surety, would take place likewise, and that with greater reason, in the case where the Surety succeeds to the Debtor; and the same Creditor who can demand Separation of the Goods of the Surety against the Creditors of the Debtor who succeeds to him, may without doubt demand Separation of the Goods of the Debtor against the Creditors of the Surety who succeeds as Heir, or Executor, to the Debtor.

IX.

The Creditor who having demanded the Separation, has not been able to procure payment out of the Goods of the deceased, retains still his Right against the Heir, or Executor. But the Creditors of this Heir, or Executor, will be preferred before him^l, if their Credit be prior to his Engagement to the Inheritance, or Succession.

^l Sed in quolibet alio creditore, qui separationem impetravit, probari commodius est, ut si solidum ex hæreditate servari non possit, ita demum aliquid ex bonis hæredis ferat, si proprii creditores hæredis fuerint dimissi. l. 3. §. 2. ff. de separar.

X.

The Separation may be demanded against all Persons who have Privileges, and even against the Exchequer^m.

^m Sed etiam adversus fiscum & municipales impetraretur separatio. l. 1. §. 4. ff. de separar.

XI.

If among the Co-Heirs, or Co-Executors, there be one of them who is a Creditor to the deceased, he may demand the Separation, against the Creditors of the others, excepting only as to the portion of his Debt, which he himself ought to bearⁿ.

ⁿ Si uxor tua pro triente patris tuo heres extitit, nec ab eo quicquam exigere prohibita est: debitum à cohæredibus petere non prohibetur. Cum ultra eam portionem qua successit, actio non confundatur. Sin autem cohæredes solvendo non sint, separatione postulata, nullum ei damnum fieri patiatur. l. 7. C. de bon. ant. jud. poss.



SECT. II.

In what manner the Right of Separation is extinguished, or lost.

WE shall not insert among the Rules of this Section, that of the Roman Law, which did not allow the Separation, after five Years; for this Prescription is not in use with us.*

The CONTENTS.

1. *If the confusion hinders the Separation.*
2. *Novation hinders also the Separation.*
3. *Difficulties which are regulated by the prudence of the Judge.*

I.

1. *If the confusion hinders the Separation.*

IF the Goods of the deceased happen to be confounded with those of the Heir, or Executor, so as that it is not possible to distinguish, and to shew what things are part of the Succession, and what not, the Separation, in this case, will not take place; for the confusion hinders the effect of it. And it ought to be presumed, that what does not appear to be part of the Succession, belongs to the Heir, or Executor. Otherwise the Creditors of this Heir, or Executor, would be obliged to prove the Right which he has to all the things he has in his possession; which would neither be just, nor possible*.

* Præterea sciendum est, posteaquam bona hæreditaria bonis hæredis mixta sunt, non posse impetrari separationem. Confusis enim bonis & unitis, separatio impetrari non poterit. Quid ergo si prædia extent, vel mancipia, vel pecora, vel aliud quod separari potest? Hic utique poterit impetrari separatio. l. 1. §. 12. ff. de separat.

II.

2. *Novation hinders also the Separation.*

IF a Creditor of the deceased innovates his Debt, and contents himself with the obligation of the Heir, or Executor, he cannot demand the Separation of the Goods of the deceased. For he is no longer a Creditor to the deceased, but to the Heir, or Executor^b.

* Illud sciendum est eos demum creditores posse impetrare separationem, qui non novandi animo ab hærede stipulati sunt. Cæterum, si eum hoc animo secuti sunt, amiserunt separationis commodum. l. 1. §. 10. ff. de separat.

III.

If the Separation being demanded, there occur difficulties in it, as if the confusion of the Goods makes the distinction of them uncertain, or that by reason of other circumstances, there rises a doubt whether the Separation ought to take place, or not, it will depend on the Judge, to give such order and directions therein, as he shall judge to be most prudent, according to the condition of the Things^c.

* De his autem omnibus admittenda separatio sit, necne, prætoris erit vel præsidis notio. l. 1. §. 14. ff. de separat.

TITLE III.

Of the SOLIDITY among two or more DEBTORS, and among two or more CREDITORS.

Here are two ways, by which two or more Persons may be Debtors of one and the same Thing. One is, in the cases where they all of them together owe the whole Debt, but so as that each of them owes only a portion of it. And the other, in the cases where they are all bound for the whole Debt, in such a manner, that any one of them alone may be constrained to pay the whole. The Nature of Solidity.

This second manner, is what is called Solidity, it giving the Creditor a Right to exact the whole Debt from any one of the Debtors he pleases to chuse. This Right may be acquired two ways; either by the effect of a Covenant, as if several Persons borrow a Sum of Money, and oblige themselves every one for the whole Sum, to the Creditor, who lends only to them all together, and on this condition, of their being bound every one for the whole Sum: or even by the nature of the Debt it self, as if several Persons have committed some Crime, some Offence, or caused some Damage, thro' a fault that may be imputed to them all. For in this case, seeing it is the deed of every one of them that has caused the Damage, they are all of them obliged in such a manner to repair it, that each of them

in

in particular is bound for the whole. And the being accessory to the Crime, or Offence, or the having a share in the Fault, rendring every one of them guilty of it, it makes them consequently answerable for the whole^a.

^a Si communi consilio plurium id factum sit, licere vel cum uno, vel cum singulis experiri. Opus enim quod a pluribus pro indiviso factum est, singulos in solidum obligare. l. 15. §. 2. ff. quod vi aut clam.

We shall speak in this Title, only of the Solidity in Covenants, and the Rules concerning it, which shall be here explained, may suffice for the other; according as they are capable of being applied to it, and particularly to the Solidity which may arise from Faults, which are not accompanied with any Crime or Offence^b, and which are one of the matters that come within the design of this Work, the same having been treated of in the eighth Title of the second Book.

^b See the fifth Article of the first Section of Damages occasioned by Faults, &c.

This Solidity is to be understood only of what concerns the interest of the Creditor, and does not hinder the Debt from being divided among the Debtors, according to the portion that each of them ought to bear of it.

As a Debt may be due in the whole by every one of the Debtors to the Creditor, so likewise there may be another sort of Solidity, of a Debt due to many Creditors, whether by one Debtor alone, or by many, if the condition of the Debt be such, that as every one of the Debtors who is bound for the whole Debt, may be constrained alone to pay the whole, so every one of the Creditors among whom the Solidity is, may have alone, and by himself, the Right to exact the whole Debt, and to discharge the Debtor of it, with respect to all the other Creditors.

4. In all sorts of Obligations, the Parties may bind themselves for the whole.

5. The condition of Parties, who are obliged each of them for the whole, may be different.

6. Relief of him who pays for the others.

7. The Action against one of the Debtors, does not make the Solidity to cease.

8. The personal exception which one of the Debtors may have, does not serve for the others.

9. The Demand of the Debt from one of the Debtors, hinders Prescription by the others.

I.

THE Solidity among Debtors, is 1. Definition of Solidity. the Engagement which obliges every one of them to the Creditor, for the whole Debt^a.

^a Ubi duo rei facti sunt, potest ab uno eorum solidum peti. Hoc est enim duorum reorum, ut unusquisque eorum in solidum sit obligatus, possitque ab alterutro peti. l. 3. §. 1. ff. de duob. reis. Creditor prohiberi non potest exigere debitum, cum sint duo rei promittendi ejusdem pecunie, a quo velit. l. 1. C. eod. Promittentes singuli in solidum tenentur. §. 1. inst. eod. See the third Article.

II.

The Obligation of two or more Debtors, who promise one and the same thing, does not bind every one of them for the whole, unless it be particularly so expressed in the Obligation. And each Debtor will be bound only for his own share of the Debt. And it would be the same thing, if two or more Persons were condemned by a Court of Justice, to pay one and the same thing, and that the Sentence did not expressly bear, that each of them should be liable for the whole^c. For in a doubt, Obligations are to be interpreted in favour of those who are bound^d.

2. There is no Solidity, unless it be expressed.

^b Cum ita cautum inveniretur, vos autem recte dari stipulatus est Julius Cæsar: spondimus ego Antonius Achilleis, et Cornelius Dicus: partes viriles debere. Quia non fuerat adjectum singulos in solidum spondisse, ita ut duo rei promittendi fierent. l. 1. in fin. ff. de duob. reis. Cum apparebit emptorem, conductoremve, pluribus vendentem, vel locantem, singulorum in solidum intuitum personam. l. 47. ff. locat.

^c Paulus respondit, eos qui una sententiâ in unam quantitatem condemnati sunt, pro portione virili ex causa judicati conveniri. l. 43. ff. de re judic. Si non singuli in solidum, sed generaliter tu & collega tuus una & certa quantitate condemnati essis, nec additum est, ut quod ab alterutro servari non potest, id alter suppleret: effectus sententiæ pro virilibus portionibus discretus est. Ideoque parens pro tua portione sententiæ, ob cessationem alterius ex causa judicati conveniri non potes. l. 1. C. si plures una sent. cond. f.

^d See

SECT. I.

Of Solidity among Debtors.

The CONTENTS.

1. Definition of Solidity.
2. There is no Solidity, unless it be expressed.
3. The Solidity does not hinder the division of the Debt among the Debtors.

^d See the thirteenth Article of the second Section of Covenants.

III.

3. The Solidity does not hinder the Division of the Debt among the Debtors.

Altho' it has been agreed that every one of the Debtors should be bound for the whole Debt, yet it is nevertheless divided among them: and the Creditor cannot immediately sue any one of them for the whole Debt. But before he demand from one the portions due by the others, he ought to discuss every one for their own portion: and he may afterwards recover the portions of those who were not able to pay, from the other remaining Debtors. For the Clause of Solidity being inserted in the Obligation, only for the Creditor's greater security, the Solidity implies the condition, that each Debtor obliges himself to pay for the others, only in case that some of them fail to pay their proportions. Thus, when some of the Debtors prove insolvent, or that because of their absence the Creditor cannot get payment of their portions of the Debt, the other Debtors answer for them, and every one bears his part of the deficiency, in proportion to his own Share^e. But if the Debtors who are bound each of them for the whole Debt, renounce this benefit, which the Law gives them, and which is called the benefit of Division, every one of them may be constrained alone to pay the whole Debt. For every one may renounce what the Law establishes in his favour^f. And he who is forced to pay the whole Debt, will have his Remedy against the other Debtors; as shall be shewn in the sixth Article.

* Si quis alterna fidejussione obligatos sumat aliquos, siquidem non adjecerit oportere & unum horum in solidum teneri, omnes ex aequo conventionem sustinere. Si vero aliquid etiam tale adjiciatur, servari quidem pactum: non tamen mox ab initio unumquemque in solidum exigi: sed interim secundum partem quam unusquisque obligatus est. Nov. 99. c. 1. Si vero minus idonei se habere reliqui videantur, sive omnes, sive quidam, sive in partem, sive in solidum, sive absentes forte in illud teneri quod accipere ab aliis non potuit. Sic enim & illis servabitur pactionis modus, & nullum sustinebit datnum actor. *Ibid.*

^f See the twenty seventh Article of the second Section of the Rules of Law.

It is because of this Right which the Debtors, who are bound each of them for the whole Debt, have to demand the Obligation to be divided, that it is usual to insert into Bonds by which the Parties oblige themselves every one for the whole Debt, a Clause whereby it is declared, that the Parties who are bound, renounce this benefit of Division. And this Renunciation has this effect, that altho' all the Debtors be able to pay, yet the Creditor has the liberty to address himself to any one of them for the whole Debt, without engaging in the discussion of every one of them in particular, for their respective proportions. This benefit of Division is only for Civil Debts, and not for Crimes.

IV.

The Obligation may be such, as to bind every one of the Parties for the whole Debt, let the cause of the Engagement be of what nature soever it will. Thus, several Persons may oblige themselves after this manner, in a Loan, in a Sale, in a Contract of Letting and Hiring, in a *Depositum*, and in all other sorts of Engagements. And one may bind himself in this manner for a Legacy, for a Guardianship, for an Engagement entred into by Order of the Judge, and for all other Causes whatsoever.

* Eandem rem apud duos pariter deposui, utriusque fidem in solidum secutus, vel eandem rem duobus similiter commodavi, fiunt duo rei promittendi; quia non tantum verbis stipulationis, sed & ceteris contractibus, veluti emptione, venditione, locatione, conductione, deposito, commodato, testamento. l. 9. ff. de duob. reis. Duo rei locationis in solidum esse possunt. l. 13. §. 9. ff. locat. Et stipulationum prætioriarum duo rei fieri possunt. l. 14. ff. de duob. reis.

V.

Altho' the Solidity renders the condition of the Parties who are bound jointly together equal, in that every one of them is bound for the whole; yet they may be otherwise distinguished, by differences which render the Obligation more or less hard, with respect to some, than to others. Thus, in the case of two Persons bound solidly for the same thing, one may give particular Securities which the other does not, as a Pledge, or Surety. Thus, the Obligation of one may be pure and simple, whilst that of the other is conditional; or the term of Payment may be shorter for one, than for the other. But these differences are no hindrance why the Creditor may not sue him who owes without a Condition, or whose Term is come, without waiting for the Condition or Term of the other^b.

^b Ex duobus reis promittendi alius in diem, vel sub conditione obligari potest, nec enim impedimento erit dies, aut conditio quominus ab eo qui pure obligatus est, petatur. l. 7. ff. de duob. reis. §. ult. inst. cod. Duobus autem reis constitutis, quum liberum sit stipulatori, vel ab utroque, vel ab altero dumtaxat fidejussorem accipere non dubito. l. 6. §. 1. cod. V. l. 9. §. 1. cod.

VI.

If one of the Debtors who are obliged solidly together, pays for the others, he shall have his Remedy against them, for recovering their Proportions, and so much as every one of them ought to pay of the Portions of those who

prove

prove insolvent, but no more. For as the Debt is divided, with respect to the Creditor, so the Relief of him who pays for the others, is divided also, and is limited, with regard to each Debtor, to his Portion, because it is only his Portion that is paid for him¹.

¹ Creditor prohiberi non potest exigere debitum, cum sint duo rei promittendi ejusdem pecunie à quo velit. Et ideo si probaveris te conventum in solidum exolvisse, Rector provincie adjuvare te adversus eum, cum quo communiter mutuum pecuniam accepisti, non cunctabitur. l. 2. C. de duob. reis.

It is in this manner that this Relief ought to have its effect, if the Debtor who pays for the others, has no other Right besides the indemnity which they owe reciprocally one to another for their portions. For this is the effect of the benefit of Division; and if the Relief were to be always for the whole Debt, each Debtor being sued in an Action of Relief for the whole, might sue his fellow Debtors in the same manner, which would occasion a multiplicity of Actions of Relief, full of inconveniences. But if they have renounced the Benefit of Division with respect to the Creditor, and if he who pays for the others takes from the Creditor a Substitution to his Rights, the said Debtor succeeding in that case in the room of the Creditor, he has an Action against every one of his fellow Debtors for recovering the whole, excepting the portion of the Debt which he himself was bound to pay.

VII.

7. The Action against one of the Debtors does not make the Solidity to cease. If among several Debtors who are bound every one of them for the whole Debt, the Creditor seeks for payment from one of them whom he chuses, without suing the others; he retains nevertheless the liberty of bringing his Action afterwards against the other Debtors, whether the first to whom he address'd himself, were solvent, or not¹.

¹ Idemque in duobus reis promittendi constitui-mus, ex unius rei electione præjudicium creditori adversus alium fieri non concedentes. Sed remanere & ipsi creditori actiones integras & personales, & hypothecarias, donec per omnia ei satisfaciatur. l. 28. C. de fidejuss.

VIII.

8. The personal Exception which one of the Debtors may have, does not serve for the others. All the Exceptions, which the Parties who are obliged may have against the Creditor, and which are not limited to their Persons, but which have relation to the common Obligation, serve for the discharge of all the Parties obliged. Thus, for Example, if the Obligation hath been contracted by force, if it is contrary to good manners, if it is null, if it is acquitted; these kind of Exceptions which relate to the Obligation, are common to all the Parties who are bound by it. But the personal Exceptions which some of the Parties obliged may have, such as a Minority, the Interdiction of a Prodigal, or some change of Condition, which should make the recovering of the Debt either

impossible, or difficult, to the Creditor; such as a natural, or civil Death, and the other Obstacles of the like nature, which might happen on the part of some of the Debtors, would not hinder the Effect of the Solidity, with regard to the others^m. For these Exceptions, and these Changes, do not extinguish the Debt, and each Debtor owes the whole Debt. But if one of the Debtors had a personal Exception, which should extinguish the Debt, as to his Portion, this Exception would avail the others for that Portion. Thus, for Example, if one of the Debtors should appear to be in his own Right, a Creditor to their common Creditor, his Fellow-Debtors might demand of their common Creditor, a compensation of the Portion of the Debt which would fall to the share of their Fellow-Debtor, who is Creditor to him. And as to the Overplus of what might still be due from their Creditor, to this their Fellow-Debtor, they could not demand a compensation of it, unless they had otherwise the Right of this their Fellow-Debtorⁿ.

^m In his qui ejusdem pecunie exactionem habent in solidum, vel qui ejusdem pecunie debitores sunt quatenus alii quoque profit vel noceat pacti exceptio, quaeritur: & in rem pacta omnibus profunt, quorum obligationem dissolutam esse ejus qui pacificebatur interfuit. Itaque debitoris conventio fidejussoribus proficiet. l. 21. §. ult. ff. de pact.

Personale pactum ad alium non pertinere. l. 25. §. eod. V. tot. Tit. C. de fidejuss. min. Cum duo eandem pecuniam debent, si unus capitis deminutione exemptus est obligatione alter non liberetur. Multum enim interest, utrum res ipsa solvatur, an persona liberetur; cum persona liberatur, manente obligatione, alter durat obligatus. Et ideo, si aqua & igni interdictum est, alicujus fidejussor postea ab eo datus tenetur. l. ult. ff. de duob. reis. See the tenth Article of the first Section of Sureties, and the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth Articles of the fifth Section of the same Title.

ⁿ Si duo rei promittendi socii non sint, non proderit alteri quod stipulator alteri reo pecuniam debet. l. 10. ff. de duob. reis.

It is in the sense of this Article that we are to understand this last Text. For it would not be just to compel one of the Debtors to pay the portion of him who should have a compensation to make with the Creditor. Since if this compensation were not made, and the Debtor who had right to make it should prove insolvent, those who shall have paid for him would be without relief, for having paid what he did not owe, or what he might have justly compensated.

IX.

If the Creditor of several Persons who are indebted for one and the same Thing, brings his Action against any one of them, his Demand will preserve his whole Right, and will hinder Prescription, with respect to the other Debtors^o.

9. The demand of the Debt from one of the Debtors, hinders Prescription by the others.

* See the seventeenth Article of the fifth Section of Possession and Prescription, and the Law which is there quoted, and the fifth Article of the following Section.

It appears by this Text that these words *duo rei stipulandi* implied the Solidity.

III.

If in the case of two or more Creditors, where each of them has a Right to demand and receive the whole Debt, one of them does demand it; the Payment cannot be made to the other Creditors without him. For he has determined the Debtor not to pay, unless he consents to it: and it may so happen, that those who do not put in their Claim, may have lost their Right^c.

^c Ex duobus reis stipulandi si semel unus egerit, alteri promissor pecuniam offerendo, nihil agit. l. 16. ff. de duob. reis.

IV.

When one of the Creditors of one and the same Debt, may alone demand the whole Debt, and receive it, he may also innovate the Debt, and delegate, or assign it over to others; for he might discharge the Debt, and even give an Acquittance, without receiving any thing^d. But this Creditor ought to account to the others for these Changes^e.

^d Si duo rei stipulandi sint, an alter jus novandi habeat, quaeritur: & quid juris unusquisque sibi acquisierit. Ferè autem convenit, & uni rectè solvi, & unum judicium petentem, totam rem in litem deducere: item unius acceptilatione perimi utriusque obligationem. Ex quibus colligitur unumquemque perinde sibi acquisisse, ac si solus stipulatus esset, excepto eo, quod etiam factò ejus cum quo commune jus stipulantis est, amittere debitorem potest. Secundum quæ, si unus ab aliquo stipuletur, novatione quoque liberare eum ab altero poterit, cum id specialiter agit: eo magis cum eam stipulationem similem esse solutioni existimemus. Alioquin, quid dicemus, si unus delegaverit creditori suo communem debitorem, isque ab eo stipulatus fuerit, aut mulier fundum jussit doti promittere viro, vel auptura ipsi, doti eum promiserit? Debitor ab utroque liberabitur. l. 31. §. 1. ff. de Novat. See what Novation and Delegation are, in the Titles where they are expressly treated of.

^e See the sixth Article.

V.

If where several Persons have one and the same Right, one of them brings his Action for the Debt, his Demand interrupts the Prescription against the other Creditors^f.

^f See the ninth Article of the foregoing Section, and what is cited on it.

VI.

The use which one of the Creditors may make of the Right to demand alone, and receive the whole Debt, cannot hurt the others. And he ought to account to the others.

SECT. II.

Of Solidity among Creditors.

The CONTENTS.

1. Wherein consists this Solidity.
2. How it is acquired.
3. If one Creditor demands the Debt without the others.
4. If he innovates, or makes over the Debt to another.
5. The Demand by one is of use to the others.
6. One of these Creditors cannot do any prejudice to the others.

I.

1. Wherein consists the Solidity.

THE Solidity among several Creditors hath not this effect, that every one of them may appropriate the whole Debt to himself, and deprive the others of their Shares; but it consists only in this, that every one of them has a Right to demand and receive the whole, and the Debtor remains quit, with respect to them all, by paying the Debt to any one of them^a.

^a Ex pluribus reis stipulandi, si unus acceptum fecerit, liberatio contingit in solidum. l. 13. §. ult. ff. de acceptil. Et uni rectè solvi. l. 31. §. 1. ff. de novat. Ex hujusmodi obligationibus & stipulationibus solidum singulis debetur. §. 1. inst. de duob. reis. Alter debitum accipiendo omnium perimit obligationem. d. §.

II.

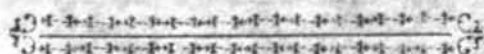
2. How it is acquired.

This Solidity depends on the Title which may give it, and on that which may shew, that what is owing to several Persons, is due to every one of them in the whole. Thus, when two Persons lend a Sum of Money, or sell a House, or Lands, they may treat in such a manner, as that the Payment may be made to any one of the two singly; and they will be Creditors each of them for the whole, either of the Money lent, or of the Price of the Sale. But if it were only said, that a Debtor should owe a Sum of Money to two Creditors, without mentioning any thing of the Solidity, in that case, each Creditor could demand no more than his own Portion^b.

^b Cum tabulis esset comprehensum, illum & illum centum aureos stipulatos, neque adjectum, ita ut duo rei stipulandi essent, virilem partem singuli stipulati videbantur. l. 11. §. 1. ff. de duobus reis.

account to them for the manner in which he shall have used this Right s.

o ^b This is a consequence of the nature of this kind of Solidity among Creditors. For they have not left their Debt to the hazard which of them can get payment of it first.



TITLE IV.

Of CAUTIONS, or SURETIES.

Use of Cautions and Sureties.

NO body is ignorant of the frequent Use of Cautions, or Sureties. These two Names are given to those who oblige themselves for others whose Obligation is not thought sufficient, whether it be for Money, or for other Causes. They are called Cautions, because their Obligation is a Security: They are called Sureties, because it is upon their Faith that those to whom they engage themselves rely. This is the original Signification of these two words.

The Obligation therefore of Cautions, or Sureties, is an Accessory to another Obligation. Thus we call the Person for whom the Surety binds himself, the principal Debtor.

The Use of Sureties extends to all manner of Engagements, and comprehends two sorts of Suretiships. One is concerning the Payment of a Sum of Money, or the performance of some other Engagement; such as the Undertaking of a Work, a Warranty, and others of the like nature, to assure the person to whom the Surety engages himself, that what is promised by the principal Debtor, shall be performed. The other sort of Suretiship relates to the validity of the Obligation, in the cases where it may be liable to be vacated, as if the principal Debtor were a Minor, altho' able to pay, the Engagement of the Surety would be not only to pay the Debt, if the Minor's Obligation were not annulled, but to make good the Obligation, in case the Minor should be relieved from it, and to pay for him^a.

^a See the second Article of the fifth Section.

Suretiships may be divided into three sorts. The first is of those that are given willingly, and by mutual consent,

for all manner of Engagements, whether they be formed by Covenant, or otherwise. Thus, one gives Caution for a Loan, for a Warranty, for the price of a Sale, for the rent of a Lease, and for other Obligations, which are contracted by Covenants. Thus Tutors and Guardians sometimes give Security.

The second sort is of Suretiships enjoined by some Law. Thus, by the Roman Law, Plaintiffs and Defendants were obliged to give Caution for several causes relating to Judicial Proceedings^b. Thus, in France, by an Edict of the Month of January 1557, those to whom any thing falls by Devolution, are obliged to give Caution to pay what shall be adjudged. And there are other cases, in which the Ordinances oblige to give Caution, which it would be to no purpose to mention here.

^b V. Tit. inst. de satisf. & ff. lib. 2. Tit. 6. §. 9. 11.

The third sort of Suretiships, is of those which are ordered by the Judge, whether he does it at the instance, or upon an offer of the parties, or *ex officio*. Thus, sometimes a thing that is in dispute is adjudged to one of the parties provisionally, he giving Security to restore it, if it be so decreed: Thus, Bail is ordered to be given for the Appearance of a Prisoner, who is set at liberty on this condition: Thus, in settling the rank of payment among Creditors, it is ordered that those who shall receive Sums which may be liable to be demanded back, shall give Caution to pay them back again to prior Creditors, to whom the said Sums shall be found to be due, as in the case of a conditional Debt, as has been remarked on the seventeenth Article of the third Section of Pawns and Mortgages.

[As to what the Roman Law directed in relation to Caution being given by all Plaintiffs and Defendants, for prosecuting and defending the Suit, and paying what should be adjudged, either for Damages or Expenses, this is strictly observed in the High Court of Admiralty of England. Clarke's Praxis Curiae Admiraltatis Anglix. Tit. 11. 13.]



SECT. I.

The nature of the Obligation of Cautions, or Sureties, and the manner in which it is contracted.

The CONTENTS.

1. Definition of Sureties.
2. Caution may be given for all manner of Engagements.
3. It may be given for a Natural Obligation.
4. Security for a Debt to be contracted.
5. The Surety can be bound for no more than the Debtor.
6. But he may be bound for less.
7. Surety without the knowledge of the Debtor.
8. In Crimes there is no giving of Security, no more than Warranty.
9. Some honest and fair Engagements, in which it is not lawful to take Security.
10. The Surety is not discharged by the Restitution of the principal Debtor.
11. The Minor saves his Surety harmless, if he is not relieved from his Obligation.
12. The giving of counsel, and recommending, do not bind one as Surety.
13. Qualities of Caution, or Security, taken in a Court of Justice.
14. Heirs, or Executors, of Sureties.
15. When a Surety is once received, he cannot afterwards be rejected.
16. The Sureties for persons that are accountable, are not bound for the penalties to which they may be liable.

I.

1. Definition of Sureties.

Sureties, are those who oblige themselves for other persons, and who answer in their names for the security of some Engagement, such as a Loan, a Warranty, or any other Obligation*.

* Aut proprio nomine quisque obligatur, aut alieno. Qui autem alieno nomine obligatur, fidejussor vocatur. Et plerumque ab eo quem proprio nomine obligamus alios accipimus qui eadem obligatione teneantur: dum curamus, ut quod in obligationem deduximus, tutius nobis debeat. l. 1. §. 8. ff. de oblig. & act. See the following Article.

II.

2. Caution may be given for

There is no honest and lawful Engagement, to which we may not add

3

the security of a Caution, to that all manner which the principal Debtor gives himself^b, provided that the giving of the said Caution be not contrary to good manners. For there are lawful Engagements, in which it would not be decent to give Security^c.

^b Omni obligationi fidejussor accedere potest. l. 1. ff. de fidejuss. Et generaliter omnium obligationum fidejussorem accipi posse nemini dubium est. l. 8. §. 6. cod. §. 1. inst. cod.

^c See the ninth Article.

III.

This use of Suretiships in all manner of Engagements, extends not only to those which are made with the mutual consent of the parties by Covenants, to those of Tutors and Curators, to those even of Sureties themselves; (for we may take security for a Surety;) and in general, to all other sorts of Engagements, in which the Civil Laws give the Creditor an Action against the person who is obliged, and which are called, for this reason, Civil Obligations^d: But Caution may also be given for that sort of Obligations, which are called barely Natural, of which we have spoken in the ninth Article of the fifth Section of Covenants. For in these sorts of Obligations, there is formed a natural Engagement, which he who becomes Surety for it makes good in his person, altho' in the person of the principal Debtor it be useless. Thus, in the Customs where the Wife who is in the power of her Husband cannot be bound any manner of way, if the Husband becomes Surety for the Obligation of his Wife, he shall be obliged, altho' the Obligation of the Wife remains always null^e.

^d Præterea sciendum, fidejussorem adhiberi omni obligationi posse, five re, five verbis, five consensu. Pro eo etiam qui jure honoratio obligatus est, posse fidejussorem accipi, sciendum est. l. 8. §. 1. & 2. de fidejuss.

A tutor, qui testamento datus est, si fuerit fidejussor datus, tenetur. d. l. 8. §. 4. ff. de fidejuss.

Pro fidejussore fidejussorem accipi nequaquam dubium est. d. l. 8. §. ult.

This Surety of a Surety that is taken in a Court of Justice, is termed in France a *Certifier*, because he certifies, or undertakes that the first Surety is good.

^e Fidejussor accipi potest quoties est aliqua obligatio civilis, vel naturalis cui applicetur. l. 16. §. 3. ff. de fidej. At nec illud quidem interest utrum civilis, an naturalis sit obligatio: cui adjicitur fidejussor. Adde quidem, ut pro servo quoque obligetur. §. 1. inst. cod.

See the ninth Article of the fifth Section of Covenants.

IV.

We may give Security not only for a present Obligation, or for one that has cradled.

^d Security for a Debt so be contracted.

has been already contracted, but also for an Obligation to be contracted; as if he who foresees a Business for which he may stand in need of Money, gives before-hand the security of a Surety, to the person who is to lend him the Money, the said Surety obliging himself before-hand for the Money that is to be lent. And this might happen, if, for Example, he who is to be Surety should have affairs to call him away before the Money is actually paid to the Borrower, or in other cases, and for other causes, as for the Warranty of a Sale, or some other Engagement^f.

^f Stipulatus sum à reo, nec accepi fidejussorem, postea volo adicere fidejussorem, si adjecero, fidejussor obligatur. l. 6. ff. de fidejuss. Fidejussor & præcedere obligationem, & sequi potest. §. 3. inst. eod.

Adhiberi autem fidejussor tam futuræ, quam præsentis obligationi potest, dummodò sit aliqua, vel naturalis futura obligatio. l. 6. §. ult. ff. de fidejuss. Si ita stipulatus à Seio fuero, quantum pecuniam Titio quandoque credidero, dare spondes? Et fidejussor accipere: deinde Titio sepius credidero: nempe Seius in omnes summas obligatus est, & per hoc fidejussor quoque. l. 55. eod. Fidejussor futuræ quoque actionis accipi potest. l. 50. ff. de pecul.

V.

5. The Surety can be bound for no more than the Debtor.

Of what nature soever the principal Obligation be, the Engagement of the Surety can never be harder than that of the principal Debtor. For his Obligation is only an Accessory to the other^g; and if he should oblige himself to any thing more, or to conditions that are more burdensome, he would be Surety only for what is contained in the principal Obligation. And the Obligation for the overplus will not be reckoned a part of the Suretiship, but his own proper Debt, if by the circumstances the Obligation for the overplus ought to subsist.

^g Illud commune est in universis qui pro aliis obligantur, quod si fuerint in duriorum causam adhibiti, placuit eos omnino non obligari. l. 8. §. 7. ff. de fidejuss. l. 16. §. 1. & 2. eod.

Hi qui accessionis loco promittunt in leviorum causam accipi possunt, in deteriore non possunt. l. 34. eod.

Fidejussor ita obligari non sunt, ut plus debeant quam debet is pro quo obligantur. Nam eorum obligatio accessio est principalis obligationis: nec plus in accessione potest esse, quam in principali. §. 5. inst. eod.

See the last Text quoted on the following Article.

VI.

6. But he may be bound for less.

The Obligation of the Surety may be less than that of the principal Debtor. Thus, he may oblige himself only for a part of the Debt, or of some other Engagement^h. Thus, he may oblige himself only upon some condition, altho'

VOL. I.

the Debt be pure and simpleⁱ. Thus, he may take a longer term than that of the principal Obligation^j, or a place more convenient for payment^m. And in a word, he may soften his condition all the ways they can agree on.

^h Fidejussor & in partem pecunie & in partem rei rectè accipi possunt. l. 9. ff. de fidejuss.

At ex diverso ut minus debeant obligari possunt. Itaque si reus decem aureos promiserit, fidejussor in quinque rectè obligatur. §. 5. inst. eod.

ⁱ Item si ille pure promiserit, fidejussor sub conditione promittere potest. d. §. 5. l. 6. §. 1. ff. eod.

^j Non solum autem in quantitate, sed etiam in tempore minus aut plus intelligitur. Plus est enim statim aliquid dare: minus est post tempus dare. d. §. 5.

^m Qui certo loco dari promisit, aliquatenus duriori conditioni obligatur. Quare si reum pure interrogavero, & fidejussorem cum adiectione loci accipero, non obligabitur fidejussor. l. 16. §. 1. ff. de fidejuss.

VII.

One may become Surety without an Order from the person for whom he binds himself, and even without his knowledgeⁿ. For on the part of the Creditor, it is just that he be at liberty to take his Security independently of the will of his Debtor: and as to the Surety himself, he may do this good office to his absent Friend, in the same manner as one may take care of the affairs of an absent person^o.

ⁿ Fidejubere pro alio potest quisque, etiam si promissor ignoret. l. 30. ff. de fidejuss. Fidejussori negotiorum gestorum est actio, si pro absente fidejusserit. l. 20. §. 1. ff. mand.

^o See the Title of those who manage the Affairs of others without their knowledge.

VIII.

In the matter of Crimes and Offences, those who commit them by order of other persons, or who make themselves Accomplices of them, cannot take Security, nor Warranty, for being saved harmless from the events which may follow thereupon; nor for assuring to themselves the profits which may arise from thence. For the Obligation of such a Surety, and of such a Warranty, would be another Crime. But he who has committed a Crime, or an Offence, may give Security for the Civil Interest, and even for the Fines, and other pecuniary Mulets, which he may have incurred by his Offence. For it is just, and for the publick Good, that they should be acquitted^p.

^p Sed & si ex delicto oriatur actio, magis putamus teneri fidejussorem. l. 8. §. 5. ff. de fidejuss. Id quod vulgò dictum est, malefactorum fidejussorem accipi non posse, non sic intelligi debet, ut in penam furti cui furtum factum est, fidejussorem accipere non possit. Nam poenæ ob maleficia solvi magna ratio suadet. Sed ita potius, ut qui cum alio cum

E e e 2

quo

quo factum admittit, in partem quam ex furto sibi restitui desiderat, fidejussorem obligare non possit. Et qui alio modo hortatu ad furum faciendum provocatus est, ne in furto poena ab eo qui hortatus est, fidejussorem accipere possit. In quibus casibus illa ratio impedit fidejussorem obligari, quia scilicet in nullam rationem adhibetur fidejussor: cum flagitio rei societas coita nullam vim habet. l. 70. §. ult. ff. de fidejuss.

IX.

Some honest and fair Engagements, in which it is not lawful to take Security.

There are some honest and lawful Engagements, in which one cannot take Security, because the nature of the Engagement would make the taking of Security to be reckoned an undecent thing. Thus, it would be contrary to good manners for a Partner to give Security to his Co-Partner, that he will not cheat him: or for an Umpire to give Security that he will pronounce Sentence in the matter referred to him, or judge uprightly. Thus, in a case of another nature, one ought not to take Security for the restitution of a Dowry, neither from the Husband, nor from other persons who are to receive it for his use; such as his Father, or his Guardian. For the Dowry being an Accessory to the Engagement of the Marriage, it would be unworthy of the strict Union of Matrimony, which puts the Wife under the power of the Husband, with whom she intrusts her person, to demand any such Security⁹. And it would be a seed of discord in Families, which ought to be united by Marriages. But the Father and Mother of the Husband may oblige themselves for their Son, to make restitution of the Dowry. For the Obligation of their Goods, is the same with that of the Son, who is to inherit them. And it is usual, that he who marries has no other Estate besides what his Parents give him, either at the time of the Marriage, or at their death; which makes their Obligation for the Security of the Dowry to be just and reasonable.

⁹ Sive ex jure, sive ex consuetudine lex profectitur, ut vir uxori fidejussorem, servandæ dotis exhibeat, tamen jubemus eam aboleri. l. 1. C. de fidej. vel mand. dot. den.

Generali definitione constitutionem pristinam ampliantes sancimus, nullam esse satisfactionem, vel mandatum pro dote exigendum vel à marito, vel à patre ejus, vel ab omnibus qui dotem suscipiunt. Si enim credendam mulier scie, suamque dotem patri mariti existimavit, quare fidejussor vel alius intercessor exigitur, ut causa perfidie in connubio eorum generetur. l. 2. cod. Scipiam marito committit. l. 8. C. de pat. conv.

Seeing our Usage allows an indefinite liberty of inserting in Contracts of Marriage all sorts of Covenants, and even some which would be unlawful in other Contracts, such as the Institution of an Heir that is irrevocable; it would seem that for that reason, and in consideration

of the favour of Dowries, the taking of Security for a Dowry ought not to be forbidden, and that the Surety who binds himself on that account, ought not to be discharged from his Engagement, especially if the Dowry be in danger. But nevertheless we have thought proper to insert here the Rule which was prescribed in this matter by the Christian Emperors, and which is so agreeable to the mutual love and confidence which our Religion enjoins to married persons.

X.

Altho' the Obligation of a Surety be only an Accessory to that of the principal Debtor, yet he who has bound himself Surety for a person who get himself relieved from his Obligation, such as a Minor, or a Prodigal who is interdicted, is not discharged from his Suretiship by the Restitution of the principal Debtor: and the Obligation subsists in his person; unless the Restitution were grounded upon some fraud, or other vice which should have the effect to annul the right of the Creditor. But the bare Restitution of the principal Debtor, is an event which the Creditor did foresee and guard against, by securing his Debt by the additional Obligation of a Surety, who on his part could not be ignorant of this consequence of his Engagement¹⁰.

¹⁰ Si ea quæ tibi vendidit possessionem interposito decreto prædis, statim tantummodo auxilio juvatur, non est dubium, fidejussorem ex persona sua obnoxium esse contractui. Verum si dolo malo apparuerit contractum interpositum esse: manifesti juris est, utrique personæ tam venditoris, quam fidejussoris consulendum esse. l. 2. C. de fidejuss. min. Marcellus scribit, si quis pro pupillo sine tutoris autoritate obligato, prodigove vel furioso fidejussorit, magis esse ut ei non subveniatur. l. 25. ff. de fidejuss. Quod si pro furioso jure obligato fidejussorem acceperit, tenetur fidejussor. l. 70. §. 4. cod. Rei autem coherentis exceptiones, etiam fidejussoribus competunt, ut rei judicata, doli mali, jurijurandi, quod metus causa factum est—Idem dicitur, & si pro filiofamilias contra senatusconsultum quis fidejusserit, aut pro minore vigintiquinque annis circumscripto. Quod si deceptus sit in re, tunc nec ipse ante habet auxilium, quam restitutus fuerit, nec fidejussori danda est exceptio. l. 7. in ff. de except.

We must observe from this last Law, the difference which the Romans made between the Surety for Money borrowed by a Son who was under his Father's Jurisdiction, and the Surety of a Minor. The Surety for a Son living under the Paternal Authority was not obliged, no more than the Son himself, because of the vice of the Obligation which was prohibited by Law. l. 9. §. 3. ff. de Senat. Maced. But the Surety for a Minor was not discharged with him, if the Minor was deceived only in the thing, and not thro' any fraud used by the Creditor; as for example, if the Minor having borrowed Money, he had not laid it out to any profitable use. For in this case the Obligation is annulled only because of the Minority, and not on account of any vice in the Obligation. Atatis tantummodo auxilio. d. l. 2. Cod. de fidej. min.

See the first, second, third, fourth and fifth Articles of the fifth Section of this Title, and the eighth Article of the first Section of the Solidity among two or more, &c. As to the Obligation of a Son subject to the Paternal Authority,

Authority, see the fourth Section of the Loan of Money and other things to be restored in kind.

XI.

11. The The Surety for a Minor has his Action of Relief against him to save him harmless, if the Obligation has been profitable to the Minor. But if it has not been advantageous to him, and he, on that account has been relieved from it, he may likewise be relieved from his Obligation to indemnify his Surety ^f.

^f Postquam in integrum ætatis beneficio restitutus es, periculum evictionis emptori, cui prædium ex bonis paternis vendidisti, præstare non cogaris. Sed ea res fidejussores, qui pro te intervenerunt, excusare non potest. Quare mandati iudicio, si pecuniam solverint, aut condemnati fuerint, convenieris: modò si eo quoque nomine restitutionis auxilio non juvaberis. l. 1. C. de fidej. min. See the second Article of the fifth Section.

XII.

12. The The Engagement of Sureties consists in this, that they oblige themselves in their own names, to be answerable for the effect of the Obligation for which they become Sureties. But those who without any design of engaging themselves, recommend the person who is to be bound, or advise the treating with him, do not by that means bind themselves as Sureties; unless there were on their part some fraud, or other circumstances, which ought to make them Guarantees of the event ^e.

^e See the last Article of the first Section of Proxies, Mandates, &c.

XIII.

13. Quali- When a private person receives Security, he accepts, or rejects, as he thinks good, those who are offered to him as Sureties, and he settles his Security in such manner as he and his Debtor can agree. But when Caution, or Security, is taken in a Court of Justice, it is the Office of the Judge to receive or reject it, according as the person who offers the Security, and the Surety himself, can shew that the Security is sufficient, which depends on three qualities that are to be considered in Sureties, according to the Engagements for which they are to be answerable; the solvency of the Persons, the facility of suing them at Law, and the validity of their Engagement. Thus, the want of an Estate, the dignity of the Persons, and the other qualities which make the suing them at Law difficult, and their incapacity of being bound, are causes for rejecting the Cautions, or Sureties, that are offered in a Court of Justice ^u.

^u Fidejussor in iudicio sistendi causa locuples videtur dari, non tantum ex facultatibus, sed etiam ex conveniendi facilitate. l. 2. ff. qui satisd. cog. Si fidejussor non negetur idoneus, sed dicatur habere fori præscriptionem, & metuat petitor ne jure fori utatur: videndum quid juris sit, & Divus Pius (in & Pomponius libro epistolarum refert, & Marcellus libro tertio digestorum, & Papinianus libro tertio questionum) Cornelio Proculo rescripsit, merito petitorum recusare talem fidejussorem. Sed si alias caveri non possit, prædicendum ei, non usum eum privilegio si conveniatur. l. 7. eod.

Qui satisfactum promissit, ita demum impleisse stipulationem satisfactionis videtur, si eam dederit accessionis loco, qui obligari potest, & conveniri. l. 3. ff. de fidej.

Altho' some of these Texts do not relate to all manner of Sureties, yet we may apply them to the Rules explained in this Article.

XIV.

The Engagements of Sureties pass to their Heirs ^{14. Heirs}, or Executors, excepting ^{or Executors} such as affect the person of the Surety, such as Imprisonment, or the like, ^{tops of Sure-} if the Engagement was such that the Surety was bound to deliver himself up prisoner. For he had power to bind his own person, but not the person of his Heir, or Executor. And as the Heirs, or Executors of Sureties enter into their Engagements, so they have likewise the same benefits which the Laws grant to the Sureties themselves ^v.

^v Fidejussor & ipse obligatur, & heredem obligatum relinquit, cum rei locum obtineat. l. 4. §. 1. ff. de fidejuss. §. 2. inf. eod.

^y Sicut ipsi fidejussori ita heredibus quoque eorum succurrendum. l. 27. §. 3. eod.

See what these benefits are, Sect. 2. Art. 1. and 6. Sect. 4. Art. 1. See the Remark on the first Article of the fourth Section.

XV.

He who has accepted of a Surety, ^{15. When} having once declared his approbation of a Surety is him, cannot afterwards demand another; ^{once received,} even altho' the said Surety should prove insolvent ^{he cannot afterwards be rejected.} ².

² Planè si non idoneum fidejussorem dederit, magis est ut satisfactum sit: quia qui admittit eum fidejussorem, idoneum esse comprobavit. l. 3. in f. ff. de fidejuss.

XVI.

The Sureties for Officers, and other ^{16. The} persons employed in the Receipt of the Sureties for publick Money, are not answerable for persons that are accountable, to which the said persons may be liable, on account of their misdemeanor ^{are not bound for the Penalties to which they may be liable.} ³.

³ Fidejussores Magistratum in poenam vel multam quam non spondissent non debere conveniri decrevit. l. 68. ff. de fidejuss. Fidejussores Magistratum in his quæ ad reipublicæ administrationem pertinent teneri, non in his quæ ob culpam, vel delictum eis poenæ nomine irrogantur, tam mihi quam Divo Severo patri meo placuit. l. ult. C. de per. cor. qui pro mag. int.

SECT. II.

Of the Engagements of the Surety to the Creditor.

The CONTENTS.

1. *The Surety cannot be sued till after the discussion of the principal Debtor.*
2. *Exception as to Judicial Sureties.*
3. *Another Exception, when the Debtor is absent, and has no visible Estate.*
4. *The discussion does not extend to Goods alienated by the Debtor.*
5. *The Surety cannot oblige the Creditor to sue the Debtor.*
6. *In what manner several Sureties are bound.*
7. *If the Obligation of one of the Sureties is annulled, the others answer for his portion.*
8. *What are the Exceptions of the Debtor, that are common to the Surety.*
9. *The Engagement of the Surety follows the Obligation.*

I.

1. The Surety cannot be sued till after the discussion of the principal Debtor.

THE Obligation of the Surety being only accessory to, and coming in aid of that of the principal Debtor, and for satisfying what he shall fail to acquit, the said Obligation is as it were conditional, not to have its effect, except in the case where the Debtor is not able to pay. Thus, the Surety cannot be sued, till after the Creditor has used all necessary diligence for the discussion of the principal Debtor, and has not been able to recover payment^a.

^a Qui alios pro debitore obligat, hoc maxime prospicit, ut cum facultatibus lapsus fuerit debitor, possit ab iis quos pro eo obligavit suum consequi. §. ult. inst. de reple.

Si quis igitur crediderit, & fidejussorem, aut mandatorem, aut sponsores acceperit, is non primum adversus mandatorem, aut fidejussorem, aut sponsores accedat: neque negligens debitoris intercessoribus molestus sit: sed veniat primum ad eum qui aurum acceperit, debitumque contraxit, & si quidem inde receperit, ab aliis absteineat. Quid enim ei in extraneis erit à debitore completo? si vero non valuerit à debitore recipere aut in partem, aut in totum, secundum quod ab eo non potuerit recipere, secundum hoc ad fidejussorem, aut sponsores, aut mandatorem veniat: & ab illo quod reliquum est sumat. Nov. 4. c. 1. In id quod defuisset fidejussores conveniendos. l. 68. §. 1. in f. ff. de fidejuss. v. l. 13. in f. l. 55. in f. cod. l. 116. ff. de verb. oblig.

Besides this benefit of Discussion which is explained in this Article, there are two others which Sureties have.

See the sixth Article of this Section, and the first Article of the fourth Section, with the Remark upon it. This benefit of Discussion is granted only to those who are bound barely as Sureties; for their Obligation is explained by this quality. But if those who with regard to the principal Debtor are only his Sureties, make themselves principal Debtors with respect to the Creditor, and oblige themselves, as is usual, in this quality, equally with the principal Debtor, for the whole Debt, renouncing this benefit of Discussion, they are no more to be considered as Sureties. See the third Article of the first Section of the Solidity among two or more, &c. with the Remark on it. See the two following Articles.

II.

Those who are Judicial Sureties, may be prosecuted without a previous discussion of the principal Debtor^b, not only because they oblige themselves to the Court of Justice, the Authority whereof requires it should be so; but also because of the nature of the Debts in which this Security may be found to be necessary. For they are such, that one ought not to allow in them the delay of a discussion. Thus, for Example, if pursuant to an Order of Justice for the payment of Creditors, one of them receives a Sum of Money, on condition that he give Security to restore it to other persons to whom the said Money ought to go, in a certain case, as that of the birth of a Child, who is called to a Substitution, or other the like case, the giving of this Security is ordained only to the end that the said Money may be immediately repaid, if the case does happen, and that it be delivered to the person who ought to have it, in the same manner as if the Money had remained in the hands of the Receiver of all Monies deposited in Court, which ought to be delivered up without delay. And we shall see in the other cases of Judicial Sureties, a like Equity for not admitting in them the benefit of discussion.

^b In stipulatione judicatum solvi, post rem judicatum statim dies cedit: sed exactio in tempus reo principali indultum differtur. l. 1. ff. jud. solv. v. inst. de satisf. & l. ult. §. 1. C. de usur. re jud.

III.

If the principal Debtor is absent, or has not a visible Estate, so that no Action can be brought against him, nor he made to pay, the Surety may be sued; unless he obtains a delay from the Court, in order to find out some Effects belonging to the Debtor, or to make him pay the Debt; after which delay if the Creditor is not satisfied, he may compel the Surety to pay the Debt^c.

^c Si vero intercessor, aut mandator, aut qui sponsoni se subjecerit, adsit: principalem vero abesse contingerit,

contigerit, acerbum est, creditorem mittere aliò, cum possit mox intercessorem, aut mandatorem, aut sponsores exigere. — & causæ præsidens iudex det tempus intercessori. (Idem est dicere sponso & mandatori) volenti principalem deducere, quatenus ille prius sustineat conventionem, & sic ipse in ultimum subsidium servetur. Nov. 4. c. 1.

IV.

4. The discussion does not extend to Goods alienated by the Debtor. The discussion which the Creditor is obliged to make of the Goods of the Debtor, before he sues the Surety, does not extend to the Goods on which he has a Mortgage, and which have passed from the hands of the Debtor to Purchasers and third Possessors; but only to the Goods which the Debtor has actually in his possession. And the Creditor cannot sue the third possessors, till he has first discussed the Goods of the Debtor, and likewise prosecuted his Personal Action against the Surety. But he cannot exercise the Mortgage which he has upon the Estate of the Surety, except in the case where he cannot recover payment out of what is in the hands of the third Possessor^a.

^a Sed neque ad res debitorum, quæ ab aliis detinentur, veniat prius antequam transeat viam super personalibus contra mandatores, & fideiussores, & sponsores. Sicque ad res veniens principalis debitoris, siue ab alio detineantur, & detinentes eas conveniens, si neque inde habuerit satisfactionem tunc veniat adversus res fideiussorum, & mandatorum & sponsores. Nov. 4. c. 2.

By the Customs of some Provinces in France, this Discussion is observed; but in other Customs the third Possessor may be sued without this previous Discussion. See the sixth Article of the third Section of Mortgages, and the Remark which is there made upon it.

V.

5. The Surety cannot oblige the Creditor to sue the Debtor. Altho' it be the interest of the Surety, that the Creditor should recover payment from the Debtor, yet he cannot oblige the Creditor to sue him for it. For the Creditor may defer the discussion of the principal Debtor, without losing the Security which he has taken, by having another person bound for the Debt^c. But if a Minor, whose Guardian had given Security for his Administration, being come of age, and finding his Guardian indebted to him, and at that time able to pay him, should neglect to sue him, and that in the mean while the Guardian should become insolvent, his Surety ought not in this case to be easily condemned to the Minor^c. For the Engagement of this Surety was only to answer for the Guardian's Administration, and for his being able to pay, after the expiration of the Guardianship, whatever he should chance to be indebted to the Minor. Thus, the Surety having satisfied his Engage-

ment, since the Guardian was solvent after the expiration of the Guardianship, the negligence of the Minor in not suing him after the Account was stated, might be imputed to him, according to the circumstances.

^c Si fideiussor creditori denunciaverit, ut debitorem ad solvendam pecuniam compelleret, vel pignus distraheret, isque cessaverit: an possit cum fideiussor doli mali exceptione summovere? Respondit non posse. l. 62. ff. de fideiuss.

See the third Article of the third Section, as to the diligence which the Surety may use on his part against the Debtor.

^d Si fideiussores in id accepti sunt: quod à curatore servari non possit, & post legitimam ætatem tam ab ipso curatore, quam ab hæredibus ejus solidum servari potuit, & cessante eo qui pupillus fuit, solvendo esse desierit, non temere utilem in fideiussores actionem competere. l. 41. ff. de fideiuss.

VI.

If several persons become Sureties for one and the same thing, every one of them is answerable for the whole. For every one of them engages for the whole Debt, or other Engagement, and to make up what the principal Debtor shall not be able to pay. Thus, their Obligation naturally binds every one of them for the whole Debt, after the discussion of the principal Debtor. But their Obligation is divided in the same manner, and for the same reason, as that of principal Debtors, who are jointly bound each of them for the whole Debt. Thus, when the Sureties are solvent, the Creditor can demand from each of them only his share of the Debt. But the portions of those who are insolvent are thrown upon the others, and every one bears his part thereof upon the foot of his own portion of the whole Debt^e.

^e Si plures sint fideiussores, quotquot erunt numero singuli in solidum tenentur. Itaque liberum est creditori à quo velit solidum petere. Sed ex epistola Divi Hadriani compellitur creditor à singulis, qui modo solvendo sunt litis contestata tempore partes petere. Ideoque si quis ex fideiussoribus eo tempore solvendo non sit, hoc cæteros onerat. §. 4. inf. de fideiuss. Inter fideiussores non ipso jure dividitur obligatio ex epistola Divi Hadriani: & ideo si quis eorum ante exactam à se partem sine hærede decesserit, vel ad inopiam pervenerit, pars ejus ad cæterorum onus respicit. l. 26. ff. eod. Ut autem is qui cum altero fideiussit non solus conveniatur, sed dividatur actio inter eos qui solvendo sunt, ante condemnationem ex ordine postulari solet. l. 10. §. 1. C. eod. See the first Article of the fourth Section.

This Right which Sureties have to divide their Obligations, is called the benefit of Division. See the third Article of the first Section of the Solidity, &c. the first Article of this Section, and the first Article of the fourth Section, with the Remarks on those Articles, where it appears that those who have this benefit may renounce it.

VII. IF

VII.

7. If the
Obligation
of one of the
Sureties is
annulled,
the others
answer for
his portion.

If of two or more Sureties, one happens to have sufficient reasons for vacating his Obligation; as if it was a Minor, or a married Woman who had no power to bind her self, or who is not bound according to form, the other Sureties will be answerable for the portion of this Surety who is discharged.

^b Si Titius & Seia pro Mævio fidejusserint, subducta muliere dabimus in solidum adversus Titium actionem. Cum scire potuerit, aut ignorare non debuerit, mulierem frustra intercedere. l. 48. ff. de fidejuss.

VIII.

8. What
are the ex-
ceptions of
the Debtor
that are
common to
the Surety.

All the defences which the Debtor has against the Creditor, are common to the Sureties. As if the Obligation, or a part of it, happens to be acquitted; if it is prescribed, if the Debt was referred to the Debtor's Oath, and he had sworn, either that he never owed any thing, or that he had paid it; or if he has other Exceptions of the like nature. For the Surety is only answerable for what shall be legally due: And whatever annuls or diminishes the Obligation of the Debtor, annuls or diminishes the Obligation of the Surety, which is an Accessory to the other: Thus, he may make use of these defences, altho' the principal Debtor should decline to use them himselfⁱ. But if the defences of the principal Debtor are only drawn from his own person; as if he may obtain relief because he was a Minor when he contracted the Obligation; if he cannot be sued because he has made over all his Effects to his Creditors, or because they have been confiscated; these sorts of Exceptions will not avail the Surety: For it was to guard against them that the Creditor got the Surety to be bound^l.

ⁱ Ex persona rei, & quidem invito reo, exceptio & cætera rei commoda fidejussori, cæterisque accessionibus competere potest. l. 32. ff. de fidejuss. l. 19. ff. de exception.

Defensiones, five exceptiones ad intercessores extendi, quibus reus principalis, integro manente statu, munitus est, constat. l. 11. C. de except. seu præs. §. 4. inst. de replicat. Si reus juravit, fidejussor tutus sit. l. ult. in f. ff. de jurejur.

See the first and the following Articles of the fifth section.

^l Sane quædam exceptiones non solent (fidejussoribus) accommodari. Ecce enim debitor si bonis suis cesserit, & cum eo creditor experietur, defenditur per exceptionem, si bonis cesserit: sed hæc exceptio fidejussoribus non datur. Ideo scilicet quia qui alios pro debitore obligat, hoc maxime prospicit, ut cum facultatibus lapsus fuerit debitor, possit ab iis quos pro eo obligavit, suum consequi. d. §. 4. inst. de replic. Si Lyfias ademptâ parte bono-

rum exulare jussus est, non nisi pro parte quam retinuit creditoribus obligatus est. Verum qui pro eo suam fidem attrinxerunt, jure pristino conveniri possunt. l. 1. C. de fidejuss. See the sixth Article of the fifth Section.

IX.

The Engagement of the Surety is not limited to the person of the Creditor, to whom he obliges himself, but his Obligation is annexed to that of the principal Debtor, and passes with it to the persons who shall afterwards have the right to it. And if, for Example, an Heir, or Executor, takes Security from one that is Debtor to the Inheritance, and is obliged afterwards to restore the Inheritance to another, either because of a Substitution, or because his Institution not subsisting, he ceases to be Heir, or Executor; this Surety will remain obliged to him to whom the Inheritance shall be restored^m.

^m Hares à debitore hæreditario fidejussorem accepit, deinde hæreditatem ex Trebelliano restituit, fidejussoris obligationem in suo statu manere, ait. Idemque in hac causâ servandum, quod servaretur cum hæres contra quem emancipatus filius bonorum possessionem accepit, fidejussorem accepit. Ideoque in utraque specie transeunt actiones. l. 21. ff. de fidejuss.

This Surety cannot pretend that he became bound only in consideration of the said Heir or Executor. For besides that he ought to have expressed so much, it might be replied to him, that if he had not engaged himself, the Creditor might have sued the Debtor, or taken other Sureties.

S E C T. III.

Of the Engagements of the Debtor towards his Surety, and of the Surety towards the Debtor.

The CONTENTS.

1. The Debtor ought to save the Surety harmless.
2. Indemnity for the consequences of the Suretiship.
3. A case where the Surety may sue the Debtor for his indemnity, before he has been called upon by the Creditor.
4. If the Surety pays before the Term.
5. He may pay after the term, without being called on.
6. If he pays imprudently what was not due.
7. If the Surety pays, being ignorant of the Exceptions which the Debtor has against the Debt.

8. If

8. If the Surety pays, notwithstanding he had an Exception for his own person.
9. If the Surety does not make any defence, when sued, or neglects to appeal from the Sentence.
10. If the Surety does not acquaint the Debtor, that he has paid the Debt for him.
11. Surety for a thing deposited, or for a thing lent.
12. If the Creditor gives the Surety a discharge of the Debt.

I.

1. The Debtor ought to save the Surety harmless.

THE principal Debtor is obliged to save his Surety harmless, either by getting him discharged from his Suretyship, or by acquitting the Debt. And altho' there should be no express promise to indemnify him, yet it is enough that it does appear that the Surety is obliged for the Debtor only in this quality. For it implies the Engagement to save him harmless^a.

^a Ait prætor, si quis negotia alterius gesserit, judicium eo nomine dabo. l. 3. ff. de negot. gest. Sed videamus an fidejussor hic habere aliquam actionem possit, & verum est negotiorum gestorum eum agere posse. l. 4. cod. l. 20. §. 1. ff. mand.

II.

2. Indemnity for the consequences of the Suretyship.

If the Creditor, not receiving satisfaction from the principal Debtor, brings his Action against the Surety, and forces him to pay the Debt, the Surety will recover from the Debtor, both the Principal Sum and Interest, which he shall have paid to the Creditor, as also the Interest of the said Principal and Interest. For with regard to him, all the Money which he has paid on the Debtor's account, is a Capital of which he ought to be indemnified, in the same manner, and with much more reason than a Factor, or Agent, who does the business of an absent person without his knowledge; seeing what Monies they advance, they do it of their own accord, and that it is by constraint that the Surety makes payment. And if he suffers otherwise any damage, or is put to any charges; as if the Creditor sues him, if he attaches his Goods, he will also be reimbursed of the Expences which he shall have been put to, and of all his damages, and likewise of the charges he shall be at in suing the Debtor for his reimbursement^b.

^b This is a consequence of the preceding Article. Si quid autem fidejussor pro reo solverit, ejus recuperandi causa habet cum eo mandati judicium. §. 6. inst. de fidejuss.

VOL. I.

Si fidejussor multiplicaverit summam, in quam fidejussit, sumptibus ex justa ratione factis, totam eam præstabit is pro quo fidejussit. l. 45. §. 6. ff. mand. Sive, cum frumentum deberetur, fidejussor africanum dedit: sive quid ex necessitate solvendi plus impendit, quam est pretium solutæ rei— id mandati judicio consequetur. l. 50. §. 1. cod.

See touching the interest of Summ paid by the Surety, the fourth Article of the second Section of Prætor; and the fifth Article of the second Section of those who manage the Affairs of others.

III.

If the principal Debtor fails to pay³, the Creditor at the term, the Surety may sue him, after the term is expired, to oblige him to acquit the Debt, altho' the Creditor demand nothing. And if the indemnity of the Surety were in hazard, he might sue the Debtor, even before the term, for his own safety. Thus, when the Debtor squanders away his Estate, or that his Goods are attached, the Surety may put in his claim, and take such other measures for his own safety, as the circumstances of the danger shall render necessary^c.

^c Non absimilia illa quæ frequentissime agitari solet, fidejussor an & priusquam solvat, agere possit, ut liberetur. Nec tamen semper expectandum est, ut solvat, aut judicio accepto condemnatur, si diu in solutione reus cessabit, aut certe bona sua dissipabit: præsertim si domi pecuniam fidejussor non habebit, qua numerata creditori, mandati actione conveniat. l. 38. §. 1. ff. mand.

IV.

If the Surety pays before the term, he cannot bring his Action for Relief against the Debtor, till after the term is elapsed^d. For he had no power to make the condition of the Debtor worse, who is not bound to pay till the term comes.

^d Si fidejussor, vel quis alius pro eo ante diem creditori solverit, expectare debet diem quo eum solvere oportuit. l. 31. ff. de fidejuss.

V.

The Surety may, if he pleases, pay after the term. And altho' he has neither been adjudged to pay the Debt, nor sued by the Creditor, yet he will nevertheless have his Action of Relief against the Debtor^e. For the Obligation both of the Debtor and Surety, was to pay at the term. So that he acquires the common Engagement.

^e Fidejussores & mandatores et si sine judicio solverint, habent actionem mandati. l. 10. §. 11. ff. mand. See the following Articles.

VI.

Altho' the Surety may pay the Debt without being sued for it, he ought not however to do any prejudice to the Debtor^f. If he pays imprudently what was not due.

F f f

ceptions

ceptions which the principal Debtor might have against the Creditor. And if, for example, the Surety knowing that the Debtor had either paid, or had sufficient grounds for annulling the Debt, pays it nevertheless, he cannot recover from the Debtor what he shall have acquitted in this manner^f.

^f Si quidem sciens prætermiserit exceptionem vel doli, vel non numeratæ pecuniæ, videtur dolo versari: dissoluta enim negligentia propè dolum est. l. 29. ff. *mand.* See the following Article.

VII.

7. If the Surety pays, being ignorant of the exceptions which the Debtor has against the Debt.

If the Surety, being summoned to pay, acquits the Debt fairly and honestly, in order to prevent an Execution, or Attachment of his Goods, and being ignorant either that the Debtor had a compensation to make, or that he has paid the Debt, or that he had other grounds of defence against the Creditor; he will nevertheless have his relief against the Debtor. For the Debtor ought to blame himself, that he did not give notice to the Surety not to pay the Debt^g. But if the Surety pays rashly, without being called on, without necessity, and without acquainting the Debtor, who might, on his part, not have had time to inform the Surety of the reasons he had to offer why he ought not to be compelled to pay the Debt; there might be ground, according to the circumstances, for imputing to the Surety that he had paid it wrongfully.

^g Si fidejussor conventus, cum ignoraret non fuisse debitori numeratam pecuniam, solverit ex causa fidejussionis: an mandati judicio persequi possit id quod solverit, quæritur. Et si quidem sciens—Ubi verò ignoravit, nihil quod ei imputetur. Pari ratione, & si aliqua exceptio debitori competeat, pacti forte conventi, vel cujus alterius rei, & ignarus hanc exceptionem non exercebit, dici oportere ei mandati actionem competere. Potuit enim atque debuit reus promittendi certiorare fidejussorem suum, ne forte ignarus solvat indebitum. l. 29. ff. *mand.* Si cum debitor solvisset, ignarus fidejussor solverit, puto eum mandati habere actionem. Ignoscendum est enim ei, si non divinavit debitorem solvisse. Debitor enim debuit notum facere fidejussori jam se solvisse, ne forte creditor obrepat, & ignorantiam ejus circumveniat, & excutiat ei summam in quam fidejussit. d. l. 29. §. 2.

VIII.

8. If the Surety pays, notwithstanding he had an exception for his own person.

If the Surety had any defence peculiar to himself, which was not common to the Debtor; as if he was a Minor, and for that reason might get himself relieved from his Obligation, or if he had any other Personal Exception, and if he pays the Debt voluntarily, without taking advantage of the said Ex-

ception, he will nevertheless have his Action for relief against the Debtor. For by having waived his own Right, he has done no wrong to the Debtor, and he has only acquitted him of what he owed^h.

^h Fidejussor si solus tempore liberatus, tamen solverit creditori, rectè mandati habebit actionem adversus reum: quamquam enim jam liberatus solvit, tamen fidem implevit, & debitorem liberavit. l. 29. §. 6. ff. *mand.*

IX.

If the Surety, being sued by the Creditor, does not use the means for obtaining a delay which he might make use of; as if he does not alledge in his defence some Nullities in the proceedings in the Cause, which would not be sufficient to discharge the Debtor, and he, after having acquainted the Debtor with the Creditor's Demand, pays the Debt; the Debtor cannot blame him for not having taken the advantage of such defences. But if the Surety being condemned to pay the Debt, whether it be after having defended himself, or without making any defence, he does not appeal from the Sentence, or if he does appeal, but does not acquaint the Debtor therewith; and in general, whatever be the conduct of the Surety, and whatever event it may have, it is by the circumstances of his conduct, and of that of the Debtor, that we must discern whether the Surety ought to have defended himself or not, or to have appealed or not; whether he has defended himself well or ill, if he has given timely notice to the Debtor, if he has paid the Debt right or wrongfully, if he has paid more than was due; and by these circumstances, we are to judge whether the Surety ought to recover either barely what was owing by the Debtor, or also the charges he has been at, or if he ought to lose themⁱ.

ⁱ Quædam tamen & si sciens omittat fidejussor, caret fraude. Ut puta si exceptionem procuratoriam omisit, sive sciens, sive ignarus, de bona fide enim agitur, cui non congruit de apicibus juris disputare: sed de hoc tantum debitor fuerit, nec ne. l. 29. §. 4. ff. *mand.*

Si hi qui pro te fidejusserant, in majorem quantitatem damnati, quam debiti ratio exigebat, scientes & prudentes auxilium appellationis omiserunt poteris mandati agentibus his æquitare judicis tueri te. Igitur, si ignoraverunt, excusata ignorantia est. Si scierunt, incumbere eis necessitas provocandi. Ceterum dolo versati sunt, si non provocaverunt. Quid tamen, si paupertas eis non permisit, excusata est eorum inopia. Sed & si testato convenerunt debitorem, ut si ipse putaret, appellaret, puto rationem eis constare. l. 8. §. 8. *ead.*

X. If

X.

10. If the Surety having paid the Debt, without acquainting the Debtor, the Debtor pays it a second time; the Surety will have no relief against him. For he would be in the fault, for having suffered the Debtor to be in danger of paying twice¹.

¹ Hoc idem tractari & in fidejussore potest, si cum solvisset, non certioraverit reum: sic deinde reus solvit, quod solvere eum non oportebat. Et credo si cum posset eum certiorare, non fecit, oportere mandati agentem fidejussorem repelli. Dolo enim proximum est, si post solutionem non denuntiaverit debitori. l. 29. §. 3. ff. mand.

IX.

11. The Engagement of the Surety being only accessory to that of the principal Debtor, he is bound only precisely for that which is owing by the person for whom he engages himself. Thus, for Example, if one had taken Security from a Depositary, or from him who had borrowed a thing for use, he who becomes Surety for such an Engagement, would not be obliged to make good the thing deposited or lent, if it should chance to perish by an accident; but he would only be bound to answer for the fraud and negligence of the principal Debtor; for it was in that only, that the Obligation consisted^m.

^m Et commodati & depositi fidejussor accipi potest, & tenetur. Sed ita demum, si aut dolo malo, aut culpa hi fecerunt pro quibus fidejussum est. l. 2. ff. de fidej. & mand.

XII.

12. If the Creditor, or another person having his right, gives an Acquittance to the Surety, with intention to make him a present of the Debt, as a recompence for some service, or out of some other motive, this Surety may recover the Debt from the Debtor; for this favour was designed for the Surety alone, and not intended for the benefit of the Debtor. But if the Creditor had a mind only to discharge the Surety, without giving him the Debt, the right of the Creditor will remain intire against the Debtor, and the Surety will only be discharged of his Suretiship. And this will depend on the manner in which the Creditor shall have expressed himself, in order to make his intention knownⁿ.

ⁿ Si fidejussori donationis causa acceptum factum sit à creditore, puto si fidejussorem remunerari voluit creditor, habere eum mandati actionem. Multo magis, si mortis causa accepto fuisset creditor, vel si eam liberationem legavit. l. 10. §. ult. ff. mand. Si vero non remunerandi causa, sed principaliter VOL. I.

donando, fidejussori remittit actionem, mandati eum non acturum. l. 12. eod.

Si is qui fidejussori donare vult creditorem ejus habeat debitorem suum, eumque liberaverit, continuo ager fidejussor mandati: quatenus nihil intersit, utrum nummos solverit creditori, an eum liberaverit. l. 26. §. 3. eod.

SECT. IV.

Of the Engagements of Sureties to one another.

The CONTENTS.

1. In what manner one of the Sureties paying the Debt, may sue his Fellow-Sureties for their shares of it.
2. Fellow-Sureties answer for one another.

I.

IF one of the Sureties pays the Debt, he shall have his relief only against the Debtor, and not against his Fellow-Sureties: For he acquits only his own Engagement: And since the payment which he makes, without making use of the benefit of Division against the other Sureties, extinguishes the principal Obligation, that of the Fellow-Sureties, which was only an Accessory to it, subsists no longer. But if in paying the Debt, he gets himself to be substituted to the Creditor, he will have his right for recovering the shares of every one of the other Sureties. This substitution by the Creditor having this effect, that altho' it seem that the right of the Creditor be annulled by the payment, yet this right subsists, so as to pass from the person of the Creditor, to him who pays for the others. For it is as it were a Sale, which the Creditor makes to him, of his Rights. And if the Creditor refuses the Substitution, he who pays the Debt may procure an Order for it from the Judge¹.

¹ Cum alter ex fidejussoribus in solidum debito satisfaciatur, actio ei adversus eum qui una fidejussit, non competit. Potuisti sine cum fisco solveres desiderare, ut jus pignoris quod fisco habuit in te transferretur: & si hoc ita factum est, cessis actionibus uti poteris. Quod & in privatis debitis observandum est. l. 11. C. de fidejuss. l. 39. ff. eod. §. 4. inf. eod. Fidejussoribus succurri solet, ut stipulator compellatur ei qui solidum solvere paratus est, vendere ceterorum nomina. l. 17. ff. eod.

Cum is qui & reum & fidejussores habens ab uno ex fidejussoribus accepta pecunia, præstat actiones, poterit quidem dici nullas jam esse cum suum perceperit, & perceptione omnes liberati sunt. Sed non ita est, non enim in solutum accepit, sed quodammodo

dammodo nomen debitoris vendidit: & ideo habet actiones, quia tenetur ad id ipsum ut praestet actiones. l. 36. ff. cod. l. 41. §. 1. cod. See the sixth Article of the second Section.

This Substitution of the Surety to the Creditor for recovering the Shares of his Fellow-Sureties, is a third benefit granted to Sureties. So that Sureties have three benefits which lessen their Engagement, and facilitate their Relief. The first is the benefit of Discussion, explained in the first Article of the second Section. The second is the benefit of Division, explained in the sixth Article of the same Section. And the third is this benefit of the Cession of the Rights of the Creditor, explained in this Article. The effect of the first benefit of Discussion is, that the Surety cannot be sued till after the Goods of the principal Debtor have been discussed. The effect of the second benefit of Division is, that when there are several Sureties for one and the same Debt, each of them can only be sued for his own share, if the others are able to pay; but if any of them be insolvent, or their Obligation be found to be null, or be liable to be rescinded, their Shares will be thrown upon the others, as has been said in the sixth Article of the second Section. And the effect of the third benefit of the Cession of the Rights of the Creditor, is, that the Surety who pays the Creditor, recovers from every one of the other Sureties their proportions of what he has paid.

We are to understand the use of the benefits of Discussion and Division only in favour of those who have not renounced them. For if they have renounced them, they are, with regard to the Creditor, in the same condition as the Debtor. See the third Article of the first Section of the Solidity, &c.

II.

2. Fellow-Sureties answer for one another.

It is an Engagement of Sureties among themselves, that if there be several Sureties for one and the same Debtor, and there be one of them that is insolvent, or whose Obligation is null, or liable to be rescinded, every one of the others ought to bear his proportion of the share of the Surety who is insolvent^b, or whose Obligation does not subsist^c. For they are all of them Sureties for the whole Debt^d.

^b Si quis eorum ante exactam à se partem sine herede decesserit, vel ad inopiam pervenerit, pars ejus ad ceterorum onus respicit. l. 26. ff. de fidejuss.

^c Si Titius & Seia pro Mævio fidejusserint, subducta muliere dabimus in solidum adversus Titium actionem. Cum scire potuerit, aut ignorare non debuerit; mulierem frustra intercedere. l. 48. ff. de fidejuss.

^d See the sixth Article of the second Section.

SECT. V.

How the Engagement of Sureties ends, or is annulled.

The CONTENTS.

1. There can be no Surety of an Obligation that is unlawful.
2. The Exception which the principal Debtor has on account of his own

person, does not discharge the Surety.

3. Fraud of the Creditor, with regard to the Surety.
4. Circumstances which may render the Obligation of the Surety null, or valid.
5. The Surety is discharged, if the Obligation does not subsist any more.
6. Or if it is innovated.
7. The Surety in a Lease, is not bound, upon the renewal of the Lease.
8. If the Debtor succeeds to the Creditor, or the Creditor to the Debtor.
9. If the Creditor, or Debtor, succeeds to the Surety, or the Surety to any one of them.
10. The Creditor's pursuit of one of the Fellow-Sureties, does not discharge the others.
11. The Surety for the delivery of a thing that perishes.

I.

IF in the principal Obligation, there is any essential vice which may annul it, as if it has been contracted by force, if it is contrary to Law, or to Good Manners, if it is founded only on a fraud, or on some error which may suffice to annul it; in all these cases the Obligation of the Surety is likewise annulled^a. For no one can take Surety for validating Engagements that are vicious in themselves.

^a Rei coherentes exceptiones etiam fidejussoribus competunt — Ut doli mali — Quod metus causa factum est. l. 7. §. 1. ff. de except.

Fidejussor obligari non potest ei apud quem reus promittendi obligatus non est. l. 16. ff. de fidejuss.

See an example of a Surety for an Engagement contrary to Good Manners. Nov. 51. in Praefat. V. l. 46. & l. 56. ff. de fidejuss.

II.

If the principal Obligation was annulled only because of some personal Exception which the principal Debtor had, as if it was a Minor, who, in consideration of his being under Age, got himself relieved from an Engagement by which he suffered some prejudice, and that there had been no fraud on the Creditor's part; the Restitution of the Minor would have indeed this effect, that it would annul his Obligation to the Creditor, and his Engagement to save harmless his Surety, if he desired to be relieved from it. But the said Restitution of the Minor would not in the least invalidate the Surety's Obligation to the Creditor^b. For it was only to make good the Obligation of the Minor, in

1. There can be no Surety of an Obligation that is unlawful.

2. The exception which the principal Debtor has on account of his own person, does not discharge the Surety.

in case he should be relieved from it on account of his Age, that the Creditor took the additional Security of a Surety.

^b Postquam in integrum ætatis beneficio restitutus es, periculum evictionis emptori, cui præsidium ex bonis paternis vendidisti, præstare non cogeris. Sed ea res fidejussores qui pro te intervenerunt excusare non potest. Quare mandati judicio, si pecuniam solverint, aut condemnati fuerint, convenieris; modo si eo quoque nomine restitutionis auxilio non juvaberis. l. 1. C. de fidejuss. min.

See the two following Articles, and the tenth and eleventh Articles of the first Section.

III.

3. Fraud of the Creditor with regard to the Surety.

If besides the personal Exception which might be a sufficient ground for annulling the Obligation of the principal Debtor, without invalidating that of the Surety, there was any fraud on the part of the Creditor, whether in the business which was the subject matter of the Obligation, or in the manner of engaging the Surety, the Obligation of this Surety would be annulled. Thus, for Example, if one who is willing to lend Money to a Minor upon Security, gives to the person who is to become Surety for the Minor, false proofs of his being of Age, the Obligation of the Surety will be annulled^c.

^c Si ea quæ tibi vendidit possessiones interposito decreto prædis ætatis tantummodo auxilio juvatur, non est dubium fidejussorem ex persona sua obnoxium esse contractui. Verum si dolo malo apparuerit contractum interpositum esse manifesti juris est, utrique personæ tam venditricis, quam fidejussoris consulendum esse. l. 2. C. de fidejuss. min.

IV.

4. Circumstances which may render the Obligation of the Surety null, or valid.

In all the cases where the principal Obligation is liable to be annulled, it is by the circumstances that we are to judge whether the Obligation of the Surety will subsist or not. Thus the Surety of a Minor remains bound, in the case of the eleventh Article of the first Section. And on the contrary, he is discharged in the case of the third Article of this Section. Thus, when the Obligation has for its cause some Commerce, or some Disposition, prohibited by a Law, as if he who has a mind to give something to a person to whom it is prohibited, by some Law, or Custom, to give any thing, makes a fictitious Contract for the benefit of the said person, or of a third person who lends his name for that purpose, and that he adds to the said Contract the security of a Surety, the Obligation of the Surety will be without effect, as well as that of the principal Debtor. Thus in ge-

neral, to judge of the validity, or invalidity of the Engagement of the Surety, it is necessary to consider the quality of the principal Obligation, whether it be lawful or unlawful; the sincerity or dissingenuity of the Parties; the motive which has induced the Creditor to take an additional Security, as if it was because the Obligation was unlawful, or only to supply the insolvency, or incapacity of the principal Debtor, as if it was a Minor, who because of his Minority, could not validly oblige himself, altho' the Obligation were not unlawful in its own nature: if he who is bound as Surety for another, has voluntarily offered himself, and engaged the Creditor to accept of him, or if he has been engaged by any unfair dealing, on the part of the Creditor: And it is by these circumstances, and others of the like nature, that we are to judge of the effect which the Obligation of the Surety ought to have^d.

^d Intercessionis quoque exceptio, item quod libertatis onerandæ causa petitur, etiam fidejussori competit. Idem dicitur & si pro filiofamilias contra senatusconsultum quis fidejusserit, aut pro minore viginti quinque annis circumscripto. l. 7. §. 1. ff. de except. præsc. & præjud.

Cum lex venditionibus occurrere voluerit, fidejussor quoque liberatur: eo magis quod per ejusmodi actionem ad rem pervenitur. l. 46. ff. de fidejuss.

Marcellus scribit, si quis pro pupillo sine tutoris auctoritate obligato, prodigove, vel furioso fidejusserit, magis esse ut ei non subveniatur. l. 25. eod.

Si à furioso stipulatus fueris, non posse te fidejussorem accipere certum est. Quia non solum ipsa stipulatio nulla intercessit, sed ne negotium quidem ullum gestum intelligitur. Quod si pro furioso jure obligato fidejussorem accepero, tenetur fidejussor. l. 7. §. 4. eod.

In causæ cognitione versabitur, utrum soli ei succurrendum sit, an etiam aliis qui pro eo obligati sunt, ut puta fidejussoribus. Itaque si cum scientem minorem, & ei fidem non haberem, tu fidejussoris pro eo, non est æquum fidejussori in necem meam subveniri: sed potius ipsi deneganda erit mandati actio. In summa perpendendum erit prætori, cui potius subveniat utram creditori, an fidejussori. Nam minor captus neutri tenebitur, facilius in mandatore dicendum erit non debere ei subvenire. Hic enim velut affirmator fuit, & suavor ut cum minore contraheretur. l. 13. ff. de min.

V.

If the Debtor annuls his Obligation, either by payment, or by some other way that discharges him, as if the matter being referred to his Oath, he swears that he has paid the Debt, or that he did not owe any thing, if he is discharged by a Sentence, by a Transaction, or other Covenant with the Creditor; in all these cases, the Engagement of the Surety is annulled. For he was obliged

5. The Surety is discharged, if the Obligation does not subsist any more.

obliged only to pay what should be due^c.

^c Non est ambigui juris electo reo, & solvente fidejussorem liberari. l. 2. C. de fidejuss. tut. vel cur.

Rei autem coherentes exceptiones, etiam fidejussoribus competunt, ut rei judicatae, doli mali, jurisjurandi. l. 7. §. 1. ff. de except.

Igitur & si reus pacrus sit in rem, omnino competit exceptio fidejussori. d. §. 1. Non possunt conveniri fidejussores, liberato reo transactione. l. 68. §. 2. ff. de fidejuss.

See the eighth Article of the second Section.

VI.

6. Or if it is innovated. If the Debt is innovated between the Creditor and the Debtor, without the Surety's obliging himself anew, his Obligation does not subsist any longer. Thus he who was Creditor for the Price of a Sale, and who had a Surety bound for it, having given an Acquittance thereof, and having taken from the Buyer alone his Bond, as for Money lent, cannot after that demand any thing of the Surety. For altho' what he had promised to pay be not acquitted, and that the Debtor remains obliged for a Debt, to which the Sale had given rise, and for which the said Surety had engaged himself, yet the Creditor having extinguished the first Obligation, that of the Surety, which was only an Accessory to the other, is also extinct^e.

^e Ubicumque reus ita liberatur à creditore, ut natura debitum maneat, teneri fidejussorem respondit, cum verò genere novationis transeat obligatio, fidejussorem aut jure aut exceptione liberandum. l. 60. ff. de fidejuss.

Novatione legitime perfecta, debiti in alium translati, prioris contractus fidejussores, vel mandatores liberatos esse non ambigunt. Si modò in sequenti se non obligaverunt. l. 4. C. eod.

VII.

7. The Surety in a Lease is not bound upon the renewal of the Lease. If a former Obligation being expired, the Debtor has renewed it by a second; he who was Surety for the first Obligation, will not be so for the second, unless he obliges himself anew. Thus, he who renews with his Farmer a Lease that is expired, either by granting him a new Lease, or by a tacit continuance of the former, will not have him engaged a Surety who was bound for the first Lease, unless he obliges himself anew. For it is another Obligation^f.

^f Qui impleto tempore conductionis remansit in conductione, non solum reconduxisse videbitur, sed etiam pignora videntur durare obligata. Sed hoc ita verum est, si non alius pro eo in priore conductione res obligaverat. Hujus enim novus consensus erit necessarius. Eadem causa erit & si reipublice pradia locata fuerint. l. 13. §. 11. ff. locat. l. 7. C. eod.

VIII.

If the Creditor becomes Heir, or Executor to the Debtor, or the Debtor to the Creditor, the confusion which is made in the person of the said Heir, or Executor, of the qualities of Creditor and Debtor, makes that the Obligation does not subsist any more: and this confusion annuls likewise the Obligation of the Surety. For he cannot owe to the Heir, or Executor, a Debt against which the Heir, or Executor himself is bound to indemnify him. And there is no longer either Debt or Debtor^h.

^h A Titio, qui mihi ex testamento sub conditione decem debuit, fidejussorem accepi, & ei hæres extitit: deinde conditio legati extitit. Quæro, an fidejussor mihi teneatur? Respondi, si ei à quo tibi erat sub conditione legatum, cum ab eo fidejussorem accepisses, hæres extiteris, non poteris habere fidejussorem obligatum: quia nec reus est pro quo debeat, sed nec res ulla quæ possit deberi. l. 38. §. 1. ff. de fidejuss. Quod si stipulator reum heredem instituerit, omnimodo obligationem fidejussoris peremit, siue civilis, siue tantum naturalis in reum fuisset: quoniam quidem nemo potest apud eundem pro ipso obligatus esse. l. 21. §. 3. eod. l. 71. eod.

IX.

If it happens that the Debtor or Creditor be Heir, or Executor to the Surety, or that the Surety succeed in that quality to one or other of them, in all these cases there arise different confusions of the qualities of Debtor, Creditor, and Surety, every one of which annuls the Engagement of the Surety. For if he succeeds to the Debtor, he himself becomes principal Debtor, and consequently ceases to be Surety. And if he succeeds to the Creditor, he is no longer bound, seeing he cannot be bound to himself. But if it is the Creditor that succeeds to the Surety, he will not be bound to himself, but will retain only his right against the Debtor. And lastly, if it is the Debtor that succeeds to the Surety, there remains no longer any Suretyship, but only a principal Obligation in the person of the Debtor. And he could not even plead the Exceptions which the Surety may have had to alledge in his own person; as if he was, for Example, a Minorⁱ.

ⁱ Cum reus promittendi fidejussori suo hæres extitit, obligatio fidejussoria perimitur. Quid ergo est: tanquam à reo debitum petatur. Et si exceptione fidejussori competente usus fuerit, in factum replicatio dari debet, aut doli mali proderit. l. 14. ff. de fidejuss.

Quod si creditor fidejussori hæres fuerit, vel fidejussor creditori, puto convenire confusionem obligationis non liberari eum. l. 71. in f. princ. ff. eod.

Generaliter Julianus ait, cum qui hæres extitit ei pro quo intervenerat, liberari ex causa accessionis, & solummodò quasi heredem rei teneri. Denique scripsit, si fidejussor hæres extiterit ei pro quo fidejussit,

justit, quasi reum esse obligatum, ex causa fidejussionis liberari. l. 5. ff. de fidejuss.

X.

The Sureties does not discharge the others.

Since the Engagement of the Fellow-Sureties does not cease to subsist, although the Creditor sues one of them, before he brings his Action against the others; therefore when there are several Sureties for one and the same Debt, the Suit which the Creditor commences against one of them, does not hinder him from bringing his Action afterwards against the others¹.

¹ Generaliter sancimus, quemadmodum in mandatoribus statutum est ut contestatione contra unum ex his facta alter non liberetur, ita & in fidejussoribus observari, &c. l. 28. C. de fidejuss.

XI.

11. The Surety for the delivery of a thing that perishes.

Altho' the Obligation of him who is bound to give or restore a thing, be annulled, if the thing perishes by an accident; and that the Surety, if there was any, be no longer obliged: yet nevertheless, if the thing does not perish till after the Debtor has been in fault for not delivering it; as if a Seller does not deliver what he has sold, or if one does not restore what he has hired, or borrowed, his Obligation continues to subsist, and makes that of the Surety to subsist likewise^m. For he ought to answer for the deed of the person for whom he engaged himself.

^m Cum facto suo reus principalis obligationem perpetuat, etiam fidejussoris durat obligatio: veluti si moram fecit in Stichio solvendo, & is decessit. l. 58. §. 1. ff. de fidejuss. See the ninth Article of the third Section of Covenants, and the third Article of the seventh Section of the Contract of Sale.



TITLE V.

Of INTEREST, COSTS and DAMAGES, and RESTITUTION of FRUITS.

Of the several sorts of Damages, and of their causes.

IT is a natural consequence of all the kinds of particular Engagements, and of the general Engagement to do wrong to no body, that they who cause any Damage, whether it be by contravening some Engagement, or failing in the performance of it, are

obliged to repair the Damage which they have done.

All the sorts of Damages, whatever cause they may proceed from, may be reduced to two kinds. One is, of the visible Damages caused by those who occasion the loss or destruction of some thing, or who damnify it; as he does who having borrowed a Horse, loses him, or lames him: or he who turns his Cattle a grazing into the Field of another person who does not owe him that Service. The other kind, is of the Damages caused by those who without destroying or damaging any thing, give occasion to some loss of another nature. As if he who owes a Sum of Money does not pay it at the term, if he who sells fails to deliver the thing sold, if he who undertakes a Work does not perform it.

We may distinguish Damages by another view, according to the intention of those who cause them. Some are the effects of a bad design, as of a Crime, of an Offence, of a Cheat: And others happen without any bad design in the person who is accountable for them; but barely either out of negligence, or thro' some fault, or even thro' an inability to perform some Engagement.

Of what nature soever the damage be, and from what cause soever it may proceed, he who is answerable for it ought to repair it, by an amends proportionable either to his fault, or to his offence, or other cause on his part, and to the loss which has happened thereby, according to the Rules which shall be explained in this Title.

Before we enter on the explanation of these Rules, it is necessary to make here some reflexions on the Principles on which they depend, the knowledge whereof may make the use of these Rules more easy and more profitable in the several cases where it is necessary to apply them.

All the sorts of Reparations of Damage, are reduced to two kinds: One which is called barely Interest; and the other Costs and Damages. Interest is the reparation, or satisfaction which he who owes a Sum of Money is bound to make to his Creditor, for the damage which he does him by not paying him the Money he owes him. As if he who has borrowed a Sum of Money, does not pay it at the term: if a Purchaser does not pay the price of the Sale: if a Tenant does not pay the Rent of the House which he hires, or a Farmer the Rent of his Farm. All the other

Difference between Interest, and Costs and Damages.

other reparations of Damage, of what nature soever the Damage be, are called Costs and Damages; as if a Tenant neglects to make the repairs which he is bound to by his Lease, and the House be thereby damaged: if a Partner neglects to take care of a thing belonging to all the Partners in common, with which he is intrusted, and the same perishes: if a Tutor fails to gather in the Debts that are owing to his Minor, and they be lost: if a Seller does not warrant the Purchaser against an Eviction. The same name of Costs and Damages, is given likewise to the Reparations which are due from those who have caused any Damage by a Crime, or an Offence. And in Crimes, the satisfaction for the Damage is called the Civil Interest, which is the same thing with Costs and Damages; but this word of Civil Interest is made use of, to distinguish this reparation of the Damage from the other Penalties which are inflicted for Crimes.

There is this difference by the Law, and by our Usage, between the Damages which arise from the bare default of paying a sum of Money that is due, and the Damages which have other causes, that all the Damages which those may suffer who are not paid a sum of Money at the term of payment, are all uniform, and fixed by the Law to a certain portion of the Sum that is due, for the space of a year, and proportionably for a longer or shorter time. Thus we have seen the Interest of Money at the rate of between eight and nine *per Cent.* that is, the twelfth part of the principal Sum; then between six and seven *per Cent.* then reduced lower, to between five and six; and at present it is fixed at five *per Cent.* But the other sorts of Damages are indefinite, and are extended or limited differently, by the prudence of the Judge, to more or less, according to the nature of the fact, and the circumstances. Thus, whoever owes Money, whether on the score of Loan, or for other causes, owes for all manner of damage, if he does not pay it, only the Interest that is settled by Law. But a Tenant who fails to make the Repairs which his Lease obliges him to; an Undertaker who fails to perform the Work which he has undertaken to do; or who does it ill; a Seller who does not deliver the thing which he has sold; or who having delivered it, does not warrant it against an Eviction; owe indefinitely the damages which may ensue upon their not per-

forming their Engagement; and they are regulated differently according to the diversity of the losses which happen, the quality of the facts which occasion them, and the other circumstances.

This difference between the Interest *Why the Interest of Money is fixed, and Costs and Damages undetermined.* settled by Law for sums of Money owing, and those Reparations of Damage, of which the estimation is undetermined, hath its foundation in the differences which are between the failing to pay a sum of Money that is owing, and the other various causes which give occasion to some damage.

We may remark as the first and most sensible of these differences, that among all the causes which may give occasion to a reparation of Damages, there is none so frequent as the default of paying a sum of Money that is due; and that there is likewise none from whence there arises so great a variety of damages to be repaired; so that if every Creditor had a right to have the damage estimated which he may suffer for want of the Money that was due to him, each demand of payment would be attended with an infinite number of discussions of the different damages which the Creditors might alledge they had sustained. One would pretend, that for want of payment, his Goods had been seized, and sold, and he by that means ruined; another would alledge that his House had fallen down for want of Money to repair it: a Merchant would pretend a considerable loss in his Trade: and according as the different wants and conjunctures should diversify the events, every one would distinguish himself by the circumstances of his Loss, and of his Damage.

Had there therefore been no other cause for fixing by a Law an uniform Reparation for all the sorts of Damages which may arise from the non-payment of Sums of Money, besides the consideration of retrenching this infinite multitude of different Liquidations and Law-suits which would follow thereupon, we could not well be without such a Regulation. But another difference which distinguishes the Engagement of Debtors of Sums of Money, from all other sorts of Engagements, is a Natural Cause, which makes this Regulation to be as equitable in it self, as it is useful to the Publick.

This difference consists in this, that the Damages which proceed from other causes than the non-payment of Money, arise from some Engagement which distinguishes and points out the nature of

of the Damage which one may be accountable for, if he fails to perform his Engagement; which is not to be met with in the Engagement of those who owe Sums of Money. Thus, for example, when a Tenant obliges himself to the small Repairs of a House which he rents, his Engagement points out to him precisely, that he obliges himself to those Repairs, in order to preserve the House in the good condition in which it is at the time it is let to him, and that consequently if he fails to make the said Repairs, he will be liable for the Damage that shall ensue thereupon, and be obliged to restore the House in the same condition in which it was at the time when he hired it. Thus, when an Undertaker of a Building obliges himself to make it such as it ought to be according to his bargain, his Engagement tells him the quality which the Work he undertakes ought to be of; that he is to answer for the defects of the materials, if by his Contract he is bound to furnish them, and for the faults of his Conduct and Workmanship. Thus, he who is engaged in a Guardianship, cannot be ignorant that his Engagement obliges him to an exact and faithful Administration, and that if he neglects either to call in the Debts, to cultivate the Lands, or to repair the Houses, he will be accountable for the consequences of his negligence. And it is the same thing in all the other sorts of Engagements, excepting that to pay the Money one owes. Thus in these Engagements, the deed of the person who is bound to repair the damage, is a cause which determines precisely the quality of the reparation which he may be liable to make. But the Engagement of those who owe Sums of Money, has no relation to any kind of particular and determined Damage that is to happen, if they do not pay; and does not mark whether it will be the ruin of a Building, or a Bankruptcy, or any other particular Damage, of a thousand that may happen. But the quality of this Damage will depend on the particular circumstances in which the Creditor who is not paid at the term shall find himself. And as the wants are diversified according to the differences of the Events and Conjunctions in which those persons happen to be, who are disappointed of what is due to them; so the Damages which happen to them from thence, are also of natures altogether different; and they are unforeseen, as well as the wants from whence they may proceed.

VOL. I.

This infinite variety of Damages which may ensue, upon the non-payment of a Sum of Money, is an effect of the nature of Money; which of itself having no particular and determined use, as all other sorts of things have, but having this general use of making the Price of all Things that may be valued, it is to every person instead of those things which he stands in need of. Thus, the use of Money being different according to the divers ways of employing it, and according to the particular occasions which one may have for it, the damages which may happen to those who are not paid by their Debtors, are different likewise, according to the diversity of the uses to which they intended to put the Money that was due to them.

It follows from this difference between the Engagement of those who are indebted in Sums of Money, and all other sorts of Engagements; that as in all other Engagements, the persons who are obliged may distinguish by the nature of their Obligation, what the damage will be for which they will be accountable, in case they do not perform their Engagement, and that this knowledge makes them foresee precisely what they oblige themselves to, and what the damages which they shall cause may amount to; one finds in every one of the said Engagements, a just foundation whereby to distinguish the reparation that may be due, and to ascertain the same. But as the bare quality of the Engagement of those who owe Money does not distinguish their condition, and does not point out to them precisely what may be the damage that may ensue, upon their failing to make payment, and that besides they are all obliged only to one and the same thing, which is, to pay a Sum of Money; their Engagement is not a Principle by which we can distinguish the Reparations to which they may be liable, nor does it oblige them differently to the respective damages which the Creditors may suffer, according to the diversity of the Events. But these Events are, with respect to the Debtors, as Accidents, which they could not foresee, and which their Obligation did not comprehend.

It follows from this difference between the Engagement of persons who are indebted for sums of Money, and all the other sorts of Engagements, that in one and the same Contract, of the nature of those which are binding on both sides, it may happen, and does

G g g

often

often so fall out, that altho' the Engagement of the Contractors be reciprocal, that is, that each of them on his part be bound to the other; yet their Engagements are neither alike in their nature, nor equal in their estimation, but are of different natures; and the same Contract limits the Engagement of one of the Contractors to the bare Interest of a Sum of Money, if it is not paid at the term of payment, whilst the Engagement of the other party is indefinite, and may be extended to damages of a far greater value. Thus in a Contract of Sale, the Obligation of the Seller informs him, that he is obliged to deliver the thing sold, and to warrant it with the qualities which it ought to have; which lets him know, that if the thing sold is not delivered, if it has not those qualities which it ought to have, if it is evicted from the Purchaser, he must answer for the damages which shall ensue thereupon, according to the Rules explained in the second, tenth, and eleventh Sections of the Contract of Sale. But the same Contract of Sale doth not form any such Engagement on the part of the Buyer. For it does not point out to him what damage the Seller may sustain for want of his Money, whether he shall suffer any at all, or whether, on the contrary, it may not endanger the loss of his Trade and Commerce; whether such a disappointment may not occasion his Goods to be seized and sold; or what other damage the Seller may sustain thereby. Thus, whereas with regard to the Seller, the Events which subject him to damages having been foreseen, he cannot say, when they happen to the Buyer, that they are Accidents which he could not foresee, and for which he ought not to be answerable; whereas the Buyer, on the contrary, may say, in respect of the different losses which may happen to the Seller, that not any one of them has been foreseen, and that therefore those which happen are, with regard to him, Accidents which his Obligation did not point out to him: and he may alledge, that if the Seller had proposed, that in case such Accidents should happen, the Buyer should be answerable for them, he would not have bought upon those terms, nor exposed himself to the danger of such consequences, in case of failure to pay the price of the thing sold.

It is easy to perceive the same difference of Engagements, in one and the

same Contract, in Leases of Lands and Houses, and in other sorts of Engagements, even those that are entred into without Covenant. But we must not draw this consequence from the difference we see between the Engagement of one party, and that of the other, that those who owe only Money are not liable to damages, if they fail in their payment, under pretext that their Engagement does not precisely point out to them what will be the damage that will ensue upon their non-payment. For it being certain that they do wrong to their Creditors by not paying them, it is just that they should make them amends; and in order to settle this reparation of damages, it was necessary to have a fixed Rule, that might be common to all Debtors in Sums of Money, and that should be founded on other principles than those which regulate the damages of all other kinds. And there could not have been made a more equitable Regulation in this matter, than what has been found out, by fixing the reparation of damages which the Debtor of a Sum of Money is liable to, in case he fails to pay it at the term, to a certain portion of the Sum due; for this reparation is founded on two Principles which are perfectly just and equitable. One is, that all Debtors for Sums of Money being under the same Engagement, and owing only one thing of the same kind, they are obliged only to the same reparation of damages. And the other is, that it being necessary to fix this reparation of damages upon one and the same foot, it could not be made more just and more certain, than by fixing it at the value of the common profits that may be made of Money by a lawful Commerce. And this is what has been done by comparing Money, which makes the price of all things, to those things which produce naturally some profit, and by regulating the profit of a Sum of Money, according to the profit that is made of a Thing of like value. And seeing the most ordinary, and most natural profits, are those which Lands yield, the reparation of damages which ought to be made to Creditors in Sums of Money, who are not paid at the term of payment, is estimated at the rate of the usual Produce or Revenue of a piece of Land of the same value with the Sum that is due. Thus, for example, if the common value of the Revenue of Lands is a *French Sol*, or Penny, in the *Livre*, the reparation of damages

which will be due from a Debtor who owes the Sum of a Thousand Livres which he does not pay, will be of fifty Livres a year, which is the Revenue that is commonly reaped every year from a Piece of Ground that may be worth a Thousand Livres. And it is upon the same foot that Annuities are regulated, where he who purchases an Annuity out of the Estate of his Debtor, does nothing else but purchase a yearly Revenue in Money, which may be of the same value with the ordinary Revenue that may be made of a Piece of Ground which might be purchased for the Money he lays out on the Annuity. But since the value of the Revenue of Lands is subject to changes, and that the same rises, or falls, according to the scarcity, or plenty of Money, and for other causes which render it necessary to make different Estimations, according to the changes which the times may produce, the Laws regulate differently the Standard of the Interest of Money, and that of Annuities, according as those changes may require. Thus we have seen in *France*, as has been already observed, Annuities, and Interest of Money, reduced from ten, to between eight and nine *per Cent.* and lowered, by degrees, to five in the Hundred, which is the present Standard.

Exceptions
to the Rule
which fixes
the Interest
of Money.

All these considerations, which justify the Rule by which the Interest of Sums of Money is fixed at a certain portion of the Principal, are to be understood only of the cases where the Debtors cannot be charged with any blame, that may deserve a Reparation of another kind. And this Rule does not justify the Debtors, who being able to pay, are unwilling to do it, and much less does it justify those, who, rather than pay their Debts, hoard up their Money, and let poor Families starve, for want of their own. This sort of Iniquity is of another kind than the bare delay of Debtors, who have not where-withal to pay their Debts at the time appointed: and this hardship would deserve punishments of a severer kind, than a bare reparation proportioned to the damages which it may occasion. It was for this reason that the Ordinance of *Orleans* in *France* required the Judges to condemn those who should be found in arrears for Wages due to Labourers and Workmen, to pay the double of what they owed^a. And altho' this Ordinance be not observed, and that such unjust Debtors go unpunished, yet we thought fit to insert this Remark, to

VOL. I.

shew that this Impunity is not agreeable to the Spirit of the Law, and that there are occasions in which the crying Injustice of those Debtors might be punished, agreeably to the Intention of the Law.

^a Article 60. of the Ordinance of Orleans.

We must also except from this Rule which fixes the Interest of Sums of Money that are owing, Bankers who do not punctually answer Bills of Exchange. For this kind of Obligation hath particular Characters which distinguish it; as to which the Reader must consult what has been said thereof, in the fourth Section of the Title of Persons who drive any publick Trade, &c. where we see that the engagement in Bills of Exchange is not only to pay a Sum, but implies the circumstance of remitting the Money from one place to another; which renders the party who fails in the performance of his engagement liable to other damages besides the bare delay of paying what he owes. And this matter is regulated by the Ordinance of 1673, in the Title of Bills of Exchange; and in that of the Interest of Change and Rechange^b.

^b *v. tit. ff. de eo quod certo loco.*

Neither must we comprehend under this Rule, the Engagement of Debtors to their Sureties. For it is not Money that Debtors owe to their Sureties; but they are bound to save them harmless from the damages which they may sustain on the part of the Creditor, if he is not paid; as if he distrains their Goods. Thus, the indemnity which the Debtor owes to his Surety, obliges him to make good the damages which he may have suffered by a Seizure of his Goods, at the instance of the Creditor.

After having made this distinction between the Interest of Money, and Damages, it is necessary to observe, as to Damages, that it is by two views that we may judge whether there be any at all due, and that we ought to regulate them. For we ought first of all to consider the quality of the fact from whence the damage proceeded, as if it is a Crime, an Offence, a Cheat: Or if it is barely some fault, some neglect, or an involuntary non-performance of an Engagement. For according to these differences, the Reparation of Damages may be greater or lesser, as we shall see hereafter. And we ought also to consider the Events which have ensued upon the said fact, and whether they be such as

Other Remarks concerning Damages.

G g g 2

ought

ought to be imputed to him who is Author of the fact, or whether there be other causes mixed with it, so that all those consequences ought not to be imputed to him.

As to what concerns the quality of the fact of the person from whom a reparation of damages is demanded, the question is only to know, if there be on his part any design to hurt, or any knavery, or if there be no such thing. And seeing it is an easy matter to know it, either by the fact itself, or by the circumstances, without any help of Rules, it is sufficient to remark barely here, that it is by this first view, that we ought to examine the questions concerning Damages.

As to the events which may ensue upon the fact of him who is charged with the Damage, there may arise difficulties about them, which may very well deserve Rules for deciding them. For it is to be observed, that it often happens, that there arises from one only fact a chain of consequences and events, which cause divers damages, whether it be that those events have been the immediate consequences of the said fact, so as that it may be averred that it was the real and only cause of them; or that they may be ascribed to other causes which have no dependance on the said fact, but to which that fact had barely given occasion, or that they happen to be joined with the said fact by some accidents. And according to these differences of Events, there may be a difference in the Damages, so that some of them may be justly imputed to the Author of the fact, and it may not be reasonable to charge him with others.

We shall be able to judge of these several sorts of Events, and of the regard which ought to be had to them in Questions relating to Damages, by the two following Examples. And we shall see likewise at the same time, the divers effects which the fact of the person who is answerable for the damage ought to have in these Questions, according to the quality of the fact, and the motive thereof.

We may suppose for the first Case, that a Merchant having hired a Shop for a Fair, in a Town which was not the place of his usual residence, and that having carried thither his Merchandize, it happens that he who had let him the Shop is himself turned out of the possession thereof, either by an Eviction, or by a Power of Redemption, or by a Seizure of his Estate, and that the Shop

is let to others, by the authority of the Court of Justice, so that the person who let it to the Merchant is not able to perform his Contract, and that therefore the Merchant finds himself under a necessity of hiring another Shop, like to the former, but at a much dearer rate. Or that not being able to get another Shop, he loses his Market, and for want of the assistance which he expected from the Sale of his Goods, to pay a pressing Debt, he becomes Bankrupt. We see in this case many damages which may follow from these different Events, which it is necessary to distinguish, in order to discern between those which are in such a manner a consequence of the non-performance of the covenants of the Lease, that they ought to be imputed to him who was bound to give the Shop; and the Events which may proceed from some other cause, jointly with that of the non-performance of the Lease, and for which it may not be reasonable to make the Lessor of the Shop accountable.

We see in the first of these Events, where the Merchant has hired another Shop, that all the damage consists in his having hired it at a dearer rate; and that the said damage having for its only cause the non-performance of the first Lease, he ought to be indemnified as to what it has cost him more to get this other Shop. But in the second case, where the Merchant could not get another Shop, we see that he sustains three different sorts of damages; that of the charges of transporting his Merchandize thither and back again, that of the loss of the profit which he would have made by the sale of his Goods, and that of the Bankruptcy.

The loss of the charges for the Carriage of the Goods, is a necessary consequence of the non-performance of the Contract for letting the Shop; and seeing this loss proceeds from no other cause, one may impute it to him who let the Shop.

The loss of the profit which might have been made by the sale of the Goods, is also a consequence of this non-performance of the Lease of the Shop; but this loss is not of the same nature with that of the charges of the Carriage. For whereas the loss by the Carriage of the Goods may be easily estimated, and is an effect which hath for its certain and precise cause the non-performance of the Lease; the loss of this profit which might have been made by the sale of the Goods, cannot be so easily known:

For this knowledge depends on uncertain events. It is well that the profit which this Merchant might make at the Fair, did not depend barely on his having a Shop or being in it; but it might happen, either because of the great quantity of Goods of the same kind with his, or because of the scarcity of Money, and the small number of Buyers, or through other causes, that there would be but little profit to be made, or perhaps none at all: and it might happen likewise that because of the scarcity of those Goods, the plenty of Money, and the great number of Buyers, the profit would have been great. So that it cannot be known exactly what this loss may have amounted to. But even altho' it could be known exactly what quantity of Goods this Merchant might have been able to sell, and what gain he might have made, judging of his profit by that which other dealers in the same Commodity had made; yet it would not be reasonable to charge all that loss on him who ought to have furnished the Shop. For besides that this Merchant having still the Goods in his possession, might yet make profit by them, and perhaps more than he would have done at the Fair, for which the Shop was hired, nobody knew any thing at that time of the events which might make the profit either greater or lesser, or which might occasion, perhaps, that there would be no profit at all, or that there would be loss, instead of gain. So that they did not reckon that the penalty for the non-performance of the Lease should amount to the value of the greatest gain that this Merchant could hope for from a good market. But because he who has failed to deliver the Shop ought to suffer some punishment for his not performing his Bargain; it is just to award under all these views some reparation of damages, and to regulate the same according to the circumstances.

As to the third Damage, which is that of the Bankruptcy, this unforeseen event having for its particular cause, the condition in which the affairs of the said Merchant were at that time, it is an accident with regard to him who had promised the Shop, and which consequently ought not to be laid to his charge.

We may suppose, for a second Case, that a Merchant having agreed with the Master of a Manufacture, for a certain quantity of Goods, to be delivered to him on a certain day, that they might

be embarked on board a Fleet appointed to sail at that time, and that the Merchant having paid beforehand the price of the said Goods, or a part thereof, and being come with Carriages to receive them, they are not delivered to him. We see also in this case several damages, the charges of the Carriages, the loss of the profit which this Merchant might hope to have made by the sale of those Goods in the place whither he purposed to send them, and that of the gain which he might have been able to make upon other Goods which he would have bought up in the same place, and likewise the Interest of the Money which he had advanced. The charges of the Carriages are due to him without any manner of difficulty, as well as the Interest of the Money which he advanced. The profit which he might hope to make upon the Goods which he intended to buy up with the Produce of his outward bound Cargo, is too remote from the deed of the person who has failed to deliver the Goods for the Embarkation, and ought not to be imputed to him. And as for the profit which might have been made by those Goods, if they had been embarked, we must consider, on one hand, that for want of having had those Goods delivered to him, the Merchant is deprived of the hopes of the gain which he might have expected, and that he who was bound to deliver them, having failed in the performance of his engagement to do it, ought to bear the punishment of his non-performance of his promise, by making some reparation of the damage. And on the other hand likewise, we ought to consider that this gain was not certain, that the Ship might perish by Shipwreck, or fall into the hands of Pirates or Enemies; and that other accidents might have prevented the making any profit at all. So that in this uncertainty of events, it would not be just that the reparation of damages should be equal to the gain which one might hope for from a success altogether favourable. But it ought to depend on the prudence of the Judge, to settle and to moderate some reparation of damages, according to the circumstances, and the particular Usages observed in such cases, if there be any.

We see by these Examples, and it is easy to remark in others, of what consequence it is to distinguish the events, in order to know wherein the reparation of damages ought to consist. And it remains that we should consider the

the divers effects which the different qualities of the facts from whence they proceed may have in Questions relating to Damages. Thus, for Example, in the first Case of the non-performance of the Lease of the Shop promised to the Merchant; if we suppose that, instead of an Eviction, or a Seizure, which may have hindered the execution of the Lease, it had happened that the Shop was burnt by a fire communicated from the neighbouring House, or that on the very day of the Fair the said Shop had been set apart for some publick Office, by the Authority of Justice, and that the Proprietor had not time nor opportunity to give notice to the Merchant of the said changes; seeing the said changes would be accidents which had happened without any fault on his part, he would not be liable to any reparation of damages, by the general Rule that no body is to answer for Accidents, except there be some fault on their part^d. But if we suppose that he who let the Shop to this Merchant, did afterwards let it to another, and put him into possession of it, that he might have a greater Rent for it; this Knavery will subject the Owner of the Shop to a much greater reparation of damages, than if the non-performance of the Lease had been occasioned only by a Seizure, or Eviction of the Shop. For whereas in the case of an Eviction, or Seizure, we ought to moderate the reparation that is to be made to the Merchant, for his loss in being disappointed of the Sale of his Goods, according to the Remarks which have been made; his knavish dealing cuts off all pretensions to any mitigation of the damages: and the Sentence which condemns the Party in damages, ought to have the utmost extent that the Rigour of the Law can give it, because the knavery implies a will and intention to do all the hurt that is possible.

^a See the seventeenth and eighteenth Articles of the second Section of the Contract of Sale, the eighth Article of the third Section of Letting and Hiring, the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth Articles of the fourth Section of Partnership, and the sixth Article of the second Section of Proxies.

^d See the ninth Article of the third Section of Covenants.

We may conclude from all these Remarks, that in all the cases where the question is to know if any Damages are due, and in what they consist, it is necessary to consider the quality of the fact which has occasioned the damage, the share which the person who is

charged with the damage may have had in the fact, his intention, whether the said fact happened by accident, what have been the consequences of it, either immediate, or more remote, and which may have proceeded from other causes. And it is by all these views, and by a consideration of the particular circumstances of every case, that the Judges ought, according to their prudence, to decide questions of this nature. As to which it is likewise necessary to observe, that there are cases in which the consequence of the non-performance of an Engagement may be such, that altho' there were no bad intention on the part of him who has failed to perform his Engagement, yet he might deserve not only to be condemned in a considerable Sum of Money, for Reparation of Damages, but also to be punished otherwise. As in the case of those who undertake to furnish Arms, Provisions, Forrage, or other things for an Army, and who fail in the performance of their Contracts. For in Contracts of this importance, wherein the Publick and State is concerned, imprudences and other faults, let them be never so small, are of such consequence, that they deserve to be punished with great severity, and are such as may be ranked in the number of Crimes, according to the circumstances.

We may add to all these Remarks, a distinction which it is necessary to make between two sorts of cases where damages happen that are to be estimated. One is, of the cases where the damage is present, and where the reparation may be known, and regulated by a view of the events which have actually happened. And the other is, of the cases where the damage is not present, but to come, and depends on future and uncertain events, altho' it be necessary to regulate the reparation for the damages, before they happen. We may see in one and the same kind of Contract, an example of each of these two sorts.

If the Lease of a Farmer, which was only for one year, be interrupted just before Harvest, by a change of the Proprietor, as if the Land was evicted from him who had leased it out, or if he sold it, he ought to make good to the Farmer the present loss which he suffers by not being allowed to gather the Crop that is on the Ground; and it is no hard matter to adjust this reparation of damages, because it appears wherein the loss does consist. But if the Lease was for several years, and the same be interrupted from

... or second year, the damage will consist in the loss which the Proprietor sustains by not enjoying his Estate for the remainder of his term. The Estimate of the Reparation therefore will depend on the several views of the Events which this Farmer might have reason to hope for, or fear, according to the quality of the Fruits or Revenues which his Farm yielded. It was possible that there might happen Hails, Frosts, Barrenness, a fall in the price of Provisions, and other causes of Losses: and it might likewise so fall out, that there might be plentiful Crops, that the price of Provisions might likewise rise, that there might be favourable opportunities for the Sale of them, and other causes of Profit: and, in a word, it might happen that the said Farmer would neither have been a gainer, nor a loser. But because Farmers usually make their bargains so as to be gainers, and that it is even the intention of the Proprietors, that their Farmers should reap some profit; the uncertainty of these Events is no reason why a reparation of damages should not be due to this Farmer. And all that Human Reason can do in a case where it is necessary to decree a reparation of damages to be made, and impossible to know what the Damage may amount to, is to take a Medium of the Profits which Farmers of such Lands may commonly make, adding thereto the considerations which the particular circumstances may deserve, as if the Farmer had enjoyed his Farm for the greatest part of the time of his Lease with a great deal of profit, or a great deal of loss; for in the first case, the Reparation of Damages ought to be less, and greater in the second: if the said Farmer found any where else an opportunity of taking much such another Farm; or if no such opportunity offered: if he had many years of his Lease to come; for in this case one ought not to allow for each year the same Reparation of Damages, as if there remained only one or two years of his Lease to run; because the Farmer might provide himself of another Farm in so long a time, and he might have many more casualties to fear. And we ought also to consider the cause of the interruption of the Lease; if it is an Eviction that was not foreseen, a voluntary Sale, or an Accident: For according to the cause, either there is no Reparation due at all, as if the Land was carried away by a Flood; or it might be lesser, or great-

er, according as the Proprietor had more or less share in it.

It is by all these views, and others of the like nature, that we may regulate the Reparations of Damages of this kind. Which may be reduced to the Remark already made, that the Reparations of Damages ought to be regulated by a view of the cause of the damage, and of the events which are the consequences of it.

Hitherto we have said nothing of the vulgar distinction in the matter of Damages, between those which are due for a Damage, or Loss that one suffers by a diminution of his present Goods, which he is actually possessed of, and those which are due on the account of a Gain that ceases. For it will be easier to distinguish these two sorts of Damages, after the other distinctions that have been remarked. Thus, for example, in the case of the Merchant to whom the Shop had been let, we see that the loss of the charges of transporting his Goods is of the first sort, and the loss of the profit which he might have made by the Sale of them is of the second; as well as that of the Farmer, whose Lease is interrupted. And as to the difference that may be between these two sorts of Damages, in what regards the application of the several Reflections above-mentioned, both to the one sort and the other, it is easy to distinguish them aright. And one will be able to judge both by these Reflections, and by the Rules which shall be explained in this Title, of the use that is to be made of them in the several cases of Damages of all kinds.

We must observe in the last place on the subject of the Estimate that is to be made of Damages, that in consequence of the Remarks already made, this Estimate may be settled in two manners, either by the Judge himself, or by skilful Persons, and this depends on the quality of the Damages that are to be estimated. For if they are such as the Judge may regulate himself, there is no occasion to call for the assistance of skilful Persons: who are not to be employed except in the cases where this Estimate depends on some Art or Profession, or on some facts which it would not be suitable to the Function or Dignity of the Judge to enquire into. We shall explain these sorts of Damages by two Examples.

If he who has purchased an Estate is evicted thereof, and demands for his Damages only the Fines of Alienation which

The Reparations of Damages are regulated either by the Judge, or by skilful Persons.

which he had paid to the Lord of the Mannor, and the charges he had been at for drawing and engrossing the Writings, and taking possession of the Estate; the Judge may by himself regulate these Damages, for he may easily see in what they consist. But if it is the Damages due by an Architect for a faulty Building which are to be regulated, this said Estimate, which depends on the quality either of the Materials, or of the Work, demands the Judgment of persons skilled in those matters.

But if the case be such, that the Estimate of the Damages depends barely on Reflections to be made on the quality of the Fact which has occasioned the Damage, and on the Events which have been the consequences or effects thereof, in order to distinguish between what ought to come under the Reparation, and what not, and that there be nothing besides which requires the judgment of skillful Persons; seeing these sorts of Reflections are equally consistent with the Dignity and Function of the Judge, he may take cognizance of them, and may regulate by his own Prudence the Damages of this kind. Thus, the Ordinances of *France* require, that the Judges themselves should regulate the Damages caused by false Imprisonments, unjust Seizures of Goods and Executions*, because the liquidating of these sorts of Damages depends on the consideration of the quality, and circumstances of the facts which occasion them. Thus, for example, if a Creditor causes his Debtor to be thrown into Jail, when he has no right to use the said constraint, whether it be that his Debt does not give him that power, or that the Age of his Debtor, or some other cause, does make the said imprisonment to be unjust, and that the said Debtor be a Day-Labourer, or other person who by his Labour maintains his Family, which for want of this assistance suffered likewise other losses; it will depend on the Prudence of the Judge to regulate a Reparation both for the loss of the day's work of this Prisoner, and for the other Damages, according as the injustice of the said Creditor may deserve upon consideration of the circumstances.

* Ordinance of Blois, Article 145.

We have judged it necessary to make here all these Remarks on the nature and Principles of this matter of Interest, and Damages, in order to explain the difficulties which the Laws themselves

acknowledge to be therein; since we see a Law of the Emperor *Justinian*, in which, to prevent these difficulties, and the infinite number of questions that arise from thence, he reduced all the Cases where there happens any Damages to two kinds. The one is, of those Cases where the question is about a certain quantity, or which have their nature fixed and regulated, such as Sales and Leases, and under this kind he comprehended all Contracts. The other kind is of all the other Cases whatsoever without distinction, whatever might be the cause of the Damage.

As for the Cases of the first kind, which have their nature fixed, and where the question is concerning a certain quantity, he established it for a Rule, that the Damages should not exceed the double of the said quantity: And as to all the other Cases where there should happen any Damages, he ordered that they should be regulated by the prudence of the Judge, according to the Estimate of the real Damage that was sustained†.

† Cum pro eo quod interest dubitationes antiquæ in infinitum productæ sint: melius nobis visum est hujusmodi prolixitatem, prout possibile est, in angustum coarctare. Sancimus itaque in omnibus casibus qui certam habent quantitatem, vel naturam, veluti in venditionibus & locationibus, & omnibus contractibus, hoc quod interest, dupli quantitatem minimè excedere. In aliis autem casibus qui incerti esse videntur, judices qui causas dirimendas suscipiunt, per suam subtilitatem requirere, ut hoc quod revera inducitur damnum, hoc reddatur, & non ex quibusdam machinationibus, & immodicis perversionibus in circuitus inextricabiles redigatur: ne dum in infinitum computatio reducitur, pro sua impossibilitate cadat: cum sciamus esse naturæ congruum, eas tantummodo pœnas exigere quæ vel competenti moderamine proferuntur, vel a legibus certo sine conclusionis statuuntur. Et hoc non solum in damno, sed etiam in lucro nostra amplectitur constitutio: quia & ex eo veteres id quod interest statuerunt. Et sit omnibus, secundum quod dictum est finis antiquæ prolixitatis, hujus constitutionis recitatio. l. 1. m. C. de Sen. qua pro eo quod int. prof.

Seeing this Regulation which limits the Damages to the double in all Contracts, and in the cases where the question is about a certain quantity, and which have their nature fixed and regulated, is a manner of deciding which does not unravel nor resolve the difficulties, and which often would not do justice to those who suffer damage, it is therefore not in use with us. For besides that it does not distinguish between the Facts in which there is Knavery, and those in which there is none, there is no more reason for lessening or retrenching

retrenching any thing of the lawful Reparation of Damages in the Cases where the question is about a certain quantity, and in Contracts, than there is in the other Cases of different natures. Thus, for Example, if a Tenant of a House who pays only one hundred Crowns for the Rent of it, had so far neglected to make the Repairs which he was bound to make, that he had caused a damage exceeding one thousand Livres, or if the House had been burnt by his fault, it would not be just that he should be quit for his Rent, nay, not for the double, nor even for the triple of it.

It is to be observed, as to this Rule of *Justinian*, which limited thus the Damages to the double in all those cases which have been mentioned, that it seems to have been made in imitation of another Rule, which ordered that the Interest of Money lent should never exceed the value of the Principal^a. And whereas this Rule concerning the Interest of Money, took place at first only in the cases where the Interest actually owing amounted to the value of the Principal Sum; *Justinian* extended it to all the cases where the Interest paid at different times, exceeded the principal Sum that was due^b.

^a L. 27. §. 1. C. de usur. Nov. 121. 138. 160.

^b Usuræ per tempora solutæ non proficiunt reo ad dupli computationem. Tunc enim ultra fortis summam usuræ non exiguntur, quoties tempore solutionis summa usurarum excedit eam computationem. l. 10. C. de usur. Cum igitur leges nostræ nihil ultra duplum solvi velint: & nos in hoc tantum differentiam habemus cum prioribus, quod illæ quidem debita constituent usque ad duplum, si nulla particularis facta fuisset solutio: Nos verò recipiamus ut particulares etiam solutiones debita dissolvant, si usque ad duplum pertingant. d. Nov. 121. c. 1.

This Rule relating to the Interest of Money, may have been made out of hatred to usurious and extravagant Interest, which, altho' tolerated in the *Roman Law*, was not very favourable; but it is not in use with us in *France*, except in some places. For seeing no Interest is adjudged to the Creditor, unless the same be demanded, and that it be justly due during the whole time of the delay, it would not be just to make him lose it. Thus, for Example, if a Merchant, or other Creditor, having occasion for his Money, and not being able to recover payment, after he has obtained Judgment for his Debt, finds himself obliged to seize upon the Effects of his Debtor, or to appear for his interest in a Seizure already made by other Creditors, and that the Debtor

prolongs the Suit relating to the said Seizure for many years, by Appeal, or other ways; it would be contrary to Equity, that after twenty years of delay, he should be deprived of the lawful Reparation of Damages that would be due to him.

There is also another sort of Damages, which is that of Expences due from the person who is cast in a Law-Suit; and that consists in the reimbursement of the Charges, which the person who gains the Suit has been at in carrying it on. But besides this Reparation of Damages, which the Ordinances oblige the Judges to decree to all those who gain their Law-Suitsⁱ, there was in the *Roman Law* other Costs and Damages against those whose Demands, or Defences were found to be nothing but Injustice and Cavil^l: and the *Romans* likewise made use of this precaution, to oblige the Plaintiff, and Defendant, and their Advocates, to make Oath, at the very beginning of the Suit, that it was not out of malice, or for the sake of cavilling, that they carried on the Suit, but that they looked upon their Cause to be just and well grounded^m. This Oath is not in use with us in *France*, and it was only a sure occasion of Perjury. But the Condemnation of those in Costs who prosecute or defend ill-grounded Law-Suits, has been found so just, that *Francis the First* revived it, having ordained, that in all Matters Civil and Criminal, the Costs occasioned by the temerity of him who is cast in the Law-Suit, should be given against him, if they are demanded; and that they should be taxed and moderated by the same Judge who decides the Law-Suitⁿ. But altho' this Ordinance be not at present put in execution, and that we see very seldom such Condemnations, yet the Equity of this Rule is not abolished, neither can it be; and the Judges are at liberty to observe it on all occasions where the Spirit of these Laws may require it.

See the Ordinance of Charles IV. in 1324. of Charles VIII. in 1493. Article 50. the Ordinance of 1667. Tit. 31. Art. 1.

ⁱ Improbis litigator & damnum, & impensas litis inferre adversario suo cogatur. §. 1. in f. infl. de poen. tem. litig.

^m Toro Tit. C. de Jurejur. propt. cal. dundo.

ⁿ See the Ordinance of 1539. Art. 88. & 89.

We shall not treat, under this Title, of the matter of Expences, because it is a part of the Order observed in Judicial Proceedings. And as to the Costs and Damages which may be due from

those who prosecute or defend unjust Law-Suits, these sorts of Costs and Damages have no other particular Rules, than those of the other kinds. And it is sufficient to take notice here of this Rule, which shall have its rank in this Title in its proper place.

Restitution of Fruits.

There remains still another matter to be considered under this Title; which is that of the *Restitution of Fruits*. We have added this matter to that of Interest, and of Costs and Damages, because the *Restitution of Fruits* is a kind of *Reparation of Damages*, which is due from him who has unjustly enjoyed a Land, the enjoyment whereof belonged to another person; and because *Fruits* are the *Revenue of Lands*, as *Interest* is that of *Money*, or rather because the *Interest of Money* has been invented after the Example of the *Fruits of the Ground*, and because *Interest of Money* is instead of those *Fruits*, as has been already observed.

SECT. I.

Of Interest.

AFTER the Remarks that have been made in the Preamble to this Title, on the differences between Damages and Interest, it is not necessary to explain here what is the subject matter of this Section, and of that which follows. Since it appears clearly enough that the subject matter of the present Section, is the *Reparation of Damages* which is due from Debtors who owe Sums of Money, and who fail in the payment thereof; and that the matter of the other Section comprehends all the other kinds of *Reparation of Damages*.

The CONTENTS.

1. *Definition of Interest.*
2. *In what it consists.*
3. *When it becomes due.*
4. *The Purchaser of Lands owes the Interest of the Price.*
5. *Interest after a demand of the Debt.*
6. *A case where one may stipulate Interest, when it would not otherwise be due by the nature of the Debt.*
7. *Interest of Marriage Portions.*
8. *Interest due from those who turn to their own profit the Monies belonging to other persons.*

*

9. *The Debtor never owes Interest.*
10. *But he may owe Interest for some Venues.*
11. *How we are to understand the prohibition of taking Interest.*
12. *A case where he who pays Interest for another, cannot demand Interest for that Sum.*
13. *A case where Interest of Interest is due.*
14. *Four Causes from whence Interest arises.*
15. *Divers views by which we may judge whether Interest be due, or not.*

I.

BY Interest is meant the *Reparation of Damages* which the Law directs to be made to Creditors in Sums of Money, by Debtors who fail to pay what they owe^a.

^a In bonæ fidei contractibus usuræ ex mora debentur. l. 32. §. 2. ff. de usur. Propter moram solventium infliguntur. l. 17. §. 3. in fin. eod.

The word *Usury*, which we read in these texts, has the same signification in the Roman Law, as the word *Interest* has with us; with this difference, that we take the word *Usury* always in evil part, because we give this name only to unlawful Interest; such as *Interest for Money lent*, as has been explained in the Preamble of the Title of the *Loan of Money*, and that in the Roman Law, which allowed the taking of *Interest for Money lent*, and by which it was lawful to covenant for *Interest upon a simple Bond*, or *Promissory Note for Money lent*, the word *Usury* was not taken in a bad sense, but signifies the *Interest which the Law allows to be taken for Money lent*.

We shall not take up time here to explain the Principles of the Roman Law, touching the difference between the Contracts which the Romans called *bonæ fidei*, of which mention is made in the first text cited on this Article, and those which they termed *stricti juris*. For as to what concerns this distinction in general, it is sufficient to observe what has been said thereof in the twenty second Article of the third Section of *Covenants*: And as to the relation which that distinction may have to the matter of *Interest for Sums of Money lent*, the principles thereof shall be explained in this Section.

See the following Article.

II.

The *Interest which Debtors in Sums of Money owe for default of payment*, is fixed by the Law, at a certain proportion of so much in the Pound, every year, and for more or less time in proportion^b. And this *Interest* is computed on this foot from the moment that the Debt becomes due, till it is acquitted.

^b Usurarum modus ex more regionis ubi contractum est, constituitur. l. 1. ff. de usur. Quæ in regione frequentantur. l. 37. ff. eod.

This Regulation of the *Interest of Money*, as well as that of *Annuities*, depends on the *Edicts which fix it differently*.

differently according to the different times, as has been observed in the Preamble to this Title.

III.

3. When it becomes due. Debtors incur the penalty of Interest by their delay to pay what they owe^c, according as the said delay may be imputed to them, and may have that effect. Which depends on the nature of the Credits, and on the circumstances^d. For in some Debts the bare default of paying at the term of payment makes the Interest to run for the benefit of the Creditor, altho' he do not demand it: and in other Debts, this Interest is not due except from the time that a Demand has been made of the Debt, in a Court of Justice, altho' there was a term fixed for payment, and that it was expired. We shall be able to judge of this distinction by the Rules which follow.

^c Usuræ non propter lucrum petentium, sed propter moram solventium infliguntur. l. 17. §. 3. in fin. ff. de usur.

^d Mora fieri intelligitur non ex re, sed ex persona. Id est si interpellatus oportuno loco non solverit. Quod apud Judicem examinabitur. l. 23. ff. de usur. An mora facta intelligitur, neque constitutione ulla, neque juris auctorum questione decideri posse: cum sit magis facti, quam juris. d. l. 32. See the Remark upon the fifth Article.

IV.

4. The Purchaser of Lands owes the Interest of the Price. The Purchaser of a Land, or Tenement, who has got possession thereof, owes the Interest of the Price, if he does not pay it at the term of payment, altho' it be not demanded of him, or if he does not consign it, in case the Seller refuses to receive it. And with much more reason would the Interest be due, if there was no term fixed for payment of the price, or if it was agreed that the Buyer should pay ready Money, at the time that the Lands should be delivered to him, and that he had failed to make payment^e. For this Interest is due for the Fruits of the Ground. And although the Purchaser reaps less profit from the Lands, than the Interest of the Price amounts to, or that even by some accident the Land yields him no Revenue at all, he will nevertheless be liable to pay the said Interest for the Right of Enjoyment: and the Accidents which deprive him of the enjoyment affect him as Proprietor, and do not discharge him of the Interest, which ought not to cease, nor to be diminished by reason of the said loss, as it would not be augmented, were the Fruits of never so great value. But this Rule hath its use only in the cases where

VOL. I.

the Contract of Sale has not otherwise regulated what relates to the Interest of the Price. For if the Contractors have explained their minds touching this matter, their agreement will be instead of a Law.

^e Usuras emptor, cui possessio rei tradita est, si pretium venditori non obtulerit, quamvis pecuniam obignatam in depositi causam habuerit, aequitatis ratione prestare cogitur. l. 2. C. de usur.

Post traditam possessionem defuncto venditore, cui successor incertus fuit, medii quoque temporis usuræ pretii, quod in causa depositi non fuit, prestabuntur. l. 18. §. 1. ff. de usur.

Veniant autem in hoc iudicium infra scripta, imprimis pretium quanti ea res venit: item usuræ pretii post diem traditionis. Nam cum re emptor fruatur, æquissimum est eum usuras pretii pendere l. 13. §. 20. ff. de act. empt. & vend. l. 2. C. eod. See the fifth Article of the third Section of Covenants.

As to the consigning of the Price, see the eighth Article of the second Section of Payment.

V.

If that which is due proceeds from a Cause which in its own nature produces no Revenue, the Interest thereof will be due only after the Debt has been demanded in a Court of Justice: and in this case it is only this legal Demand that makes the delay of payment to be imputed to the Debtor^f. Thus, a Debtor who owes a Sum of Money which he has borrowed, failing to pay it at the time appointed, does not owe Interest for it: and the Interest will not run but from the time that it has been demanded in a Court of Justice. Thus he who has been condemned either in Costs^g, or in Damages^h, will not owe Interest for the said Sum, till after that the said Costs and Damages have been liquidated, and the Creditor has demanded in a Court of Justice, the Interest of the Sum at which they have been taxed. For in all these cases, the Debt not producing Interest in its own nature, the Debtor does not begin to owe any until the Creditor sets forth by his Demand the damage which he suffers: and the Debtor, on his part, owes then the said Interest, as a punishment for his delay of payment.

^f Lite contestata usuræ currunt. l. 35. ff. de usur.

The Interest, according to our Usage, runs not only from the time of Contestation of Suit, as is said in this Law, but from the time of the Demand made by the Service of the Citation. As to which it is necessary to observe, that by Contestation of Suit is meant that which passes before the Judge between the Plaintiff, who explains his Demand, and the Defendant who contests it. Lis autem contestata videtur, cum iudex per narrationem negotii causam audire cœperit. l. no. C. de lit. contest. Post narrationem negotii propositam, & contradictionem objectam. l. 14. §. 1. C. de jud. After

H h h 2

After which the Judge makes his first Order, or Assignment, in the Cause.

This Contestation of Suit was necessary in the Roman Law, to make the Defendant guilty of delay. For oft times he was ignorant what the person who summoned him had a mind to demand of him. Deducunt hominem invitum ad judicem datum, & nihil scientem compellunt facere lris contestationem. Nov. 53. cap. 3. But by our Usage, pursuant to the Ordinances which are confirmed by that of 1667, Title 2. Art. 1. the Plaintiff being obliged to explain his Cause of Action in his Citation, it is just that the Defendant should be deemed refractory after he is served with the Citation, and that he, knowing from the tenour of the Citation what is demanded of him, and not complying therewith, should bear the punishment of his backwardness to acquit what he justly owes.

By the Ordinance of Orleans, Art. 60. the Interest for Sums of Money due upon Promissory Notes, or Bonds, ought to be decreed from the day of the Service of the Citation.

^a The Interest of Costs given to the Party who gains the Cause, is due after a legal demand thereof; and that with much greater Reason than the Interest of Money advanced by one Co-Partner for another, or by those who take care of the Affairs of others without their knowledge, or by those who have any thing in common with others. See the eleventh Article of the fourth Section of Partnership, the fifth Article of the second Section of those who manage the Affairs of others, &c. and the fourth Article of the second Section of those who chance to have any thing in common together.

^b We have inserted in this Article for one of the Examples of the cases where Interest is not due till after Demand thereof, that of Damages; which is to be understood of that sort of Damages which shall be treated of in the second Section, and not of Interest, which is the subject of this Section, and which cannot produce Interest, as shall be shewn in the ninth Article of this Section; whereas Damages may produce Interest, for the reason which shall be explained in the Remarks on the tenth Article.

VI.

6. A case where one may stipulate Interest, when it would not otherwise be due by the nature of the Debt.

There are cases in which one may stipulate Interest for Sums of Money which of their own nature would yield none, and where the agreement makes the Interest to be lawful according to the circumstances which give occasion thereto. Thus in a Sale of Moveables which would not produce any Revenue, the Seller may stipulate Interest for the Price, till it be paid; for that Interest makes a part of the Price. Thus, in a Transaction, where the pretensions of the Parties are regulated at a certain Sum of Money which one party is to give to the other, it may be covenanted that Interest shall be paid for the Money, and that even from the day of the Transaction, altho' there be a term fixed for payment thereof. For this Interest is made a condition of the Transaction, either to compensate what he who stipulates the Interest may remit in another respect, or for other causes. And such a stipulation may be considered as having the effect of a Condemnation, by the Sentence or Decree of a Court of Justice. For Transactions have the

same authority as the Decree of the Courtⁱ.

ⁱ Non minorem auctoritatem quam rerum judicatarum esse, recta l. 20. C. de transact.

VII.

The Dowry given with a Woman in Marriage, ought of its own nature to produce Interest, without a Sentence of Condemnation; for it is given to the Husband, to help him to bear the charges of the Marriage⁷. This however is not to be understood of the Debtor whose Bond shall be assigned over to the Husband in payment of his Wife's Portion, for this Cession will not change the nature of the Debtor's Obligation; but it must be understood of the person himself who makes the Settlement, such as a Father, or a Mother, who endows their Daughter. But if the Marriage Settlement were conceived in such terms as to make one judge, that the intention of the Contracters was, that the interest of the Sum promised should not be due till after a certain time, it would be necessary to keep to that which appears to be their intention; whether the Dowry were promised by the Father, or Mother, or by other persons.

ⁱ Si aliae res praeter immobiles, vel aurum fuerint in dotem datae, five in argento, five in muliebris ornamentis, five in veste, five in aliis quibuscumque, si quidem aestimatae fuerint, simili modo post biennium & earum usuras ex tertia parte centesimae currere. l. ult. §. 2. C. de jur. dot. See the second Article of the first Section of Dowries.

We have not put down in this Article the delay of two years, which is regulated by this Law for Interests of this kind, seeing our Usage does not regulate it in this manner. But according to the circumstances, the Judge may grant a reasonable delay for the delivery of such kinds of things, and direct Interest to be paid for them, if it appear reasonable.

We have not set down here any Rule for the Interest which the Husband owes, who does not restore the Dowry he had with his Wife in Moveables after the dissolution of the Marriage, when there are no Children. For the Rule of the Roman Law, which allowed a year to the Husband without obliging him to pay Interest, is not in use with us. V. l. un. §. 7. verfic. fin autem Cod. de rei ux. act. As to the Dowry consisting in Lands and Tenements, see the end of the Preamble to the Title of Dowries.

VIII.

Those who retain in their hands Monies belonging to other persons, and who divert them, and turn them to their own profit, without the consent of those persons, are bound to pay Interest, altho' it be not demanded. For it is an injustice which they do to those whose Money they keep: and this Interest is due as a satisfaction for the loss which they may occasion, and as a just punishment⁸.

ishment for their knavish dealing. As when a Partner happens to have in his hands Monies belonging to the Partnership, which he has converted to his own use, and laid out upon his own particular concerns, he ought to pay Interest for the same, according to the Rule which has been explained in the Title of Partnership^m. Thus a Creditor who is overpaid his Debt, either by the sale of a Pledge, or by the enjoyment of the Fruits of the Thing which he had in pawn, or otherwise, owes to his Debtor Interest for what he has received over and above his Debt, if he has converted the same to his own proper useⁿ.

^m Socium, qui in eo quod ex societate lucri faceret reddendo moram adhibuit, cum ea pecunia ipse usus sit, usuras quoque cum præstare debere, Labeo ait. l. 60. ff. pro socio.

Socius, si ideo condemnandus erit, quod pecuniam communem invaluerit, vel in suos usus converterit, omnimodò etiam mora non interveniente, præstabitur usurae. l. 1. §. 1. ff. de usur. See the fifth Article of the fourth Section of Partnership.

ⁿ Si creditor pluris fundum pignoratim vendiderit, si id foeneret, usuram ejus pecuniae præstare debet ei qui dederit pignus. Sed etsi ipse usus sit ea pecunia, usuram præstari oportet. l. 6. §. 1. ff. de pign. acti. See the fourth Article of the fourth Section of Pawns and Mortgages.

IX.

9. The Debtor never owes Interest of Interest.

Whatever delay there may be on the part of the Debtor, to pay the Interest, and whatever may be the cause of it, he is never bound to pay second Interest for the Interest which he owes: and the Creditor cannot accumulate the Arrears of Interest with the principal Sum, in order to make the whole a Capital, which may produce Interest; but the same will be reduced to the amount of the Principal Sum which is capable of producing Interest^o.

^o Ut nullo modo usurae usurarum a debitoribus exigantur & veteribus quidem legibus constitutum fuerat, sed non perfectissime cautum. Si enim usuras in sortem redigere fuerat concessum, & totius summae usuras stipulari: quæ differentia erat debitoribus a quibus revera usurarum usurae exigebantur? Hoc certè erat non rebus, sed verbis tantummodò legem ponere. Quapropter hoc apertissima lege definimus, nullomodo licere cuiquam usuras præteriti temporis vel futuri in sortem redigere, & earum iterum usuras, stipulari. Sed etsi hoc fuerit subsecutum, usuras quidem semper usuras manere, & nullum usurarum aliarum incrementum sentire: sorti autem antiquæ tantummodò incrementum usurarum accedere. l. 28. C. de usur.

X.

10. But he may owe Interest for other Revenues.

We must take care in applying the preceding Rule, not to confound with the Interest of Money the Revenues of another nature, such as the Rent of a

Farm, of a House, and others of the like kind. For these sorts of Revenues differ from the Interest of Money; because the Interest of Money is not a natural Revenue^p, and is only, on the part of the Debtor, a punishment which the Law inflicts on him for his delay of payment; and on the part of the Creditor, it is a compensation for the loss which he suffers by lying out of his Money; whereas the Price of the Fruits of the Ground, and of the Rents of a House, is a natural Revenue, which on the part of the Debtor is the value of an Enjoyment which he has reaped the benefit of; and on the part of the Creditor, is a real Good, which in his hands makes a Capital, as his other Goods do. So that the Debtor of the Rent of a Farm, or of a House, owes justly Interest for the same, from the time that it has been demanded^q.

^p Usura non natura pervenit. l. 62. ff. de rei vind. Usura pecuniae quam percipimus in fructu non est, quia non ex ipso corpore, sed ex alia causa est, id est, nova obligatione. l. 121. ff. de verb. sign.

^q Ex locato qui convenitur, nisi convenerit, ut tardius pecunia illata usuras debeat, non nisi ex mora usuras præstare debet. l. 17. §. 4. ff. de usur. Si in omnem causam conductionis etiam fidejussor se obligavit, eum quoque exemplo coloni tardius illatarum per moram coloni pensionum præstare debere usuras. l. 54. ff. locat.

Annuities are of another nature than the Rents of a House, or of a Farm; for Annuities are not the Fruits of Houses or Lands, and have for their Principal only a Sum of Money which was the price of the purchase of the Annuity. So that the Arrears of Annuities can never produce Interest, nor be accumulated with the Principal, in order to make a Capital for which the Debtor may be obliged to pay new Interest.

It is to be remarked on this Rule, that as we ought not to confound the Fruits of Lands and Houses with the Interest of Money, of which we cannot make a Capital for producing new Interest, so neither ought we to confound with the Interest of Money, the Damages which are the subject matter of the following Section. For one may obtain a Sentence for the Interest of Sums of Money arising from Damages; as if a Seller has been condemned in Damages on account of an Eviction, or an Undertaker on the score of a Building that is faulty, or other persons, for causes of another nature. In all these cases the Damages having been adjudged and liquidated, if the person to whom they are due does not receive payment of them, he may demand Interest for the same in a Court of Justice. For these Damages are a Capital, which is in the place of a real Substance, of which he to whom they are due has been deprived. See the fifth Article.

We ought to place in the same rank the Costs adjudged by a Sentence, or Decree of a Court: and the party to whom they are due may demand Interest for them after they have been liquidated, if they are not paid at the time. For it is a Capital, which is in lieu of the Charges which have been laid out upon the Law-Suit. See the same fifth Article.

XI.

The prohibition of taking Interest of Interest, relates only to the Creditor who would take Interest for the Interest that

11. How we are to understand the prohibition that

tion of tak-
ing Interest
of Interest.

that is still owing by his Debtor; for the said Interest can never be reckoned to him as a Principal Sum. But if a third person pays for a Debtor Interest to his Creditor, the same, with regard to this third person, is a Principal Sum, which he lends to the said Debtor: and if he should not receive payment of it at the term, he might demand in a Court of Justice, both the said Principal, and the Interest thereof^r.

^r Nullo modo usuræ usurarum à debitoribus exigantur. l. 28. Cod. de usur.

The Rule is only for the Creditor with respect to his Debtor; à debitoribus.

XII.

12. A case
where he
who pays
Interest for
another,
cannot de-
mand Inte-
rest for that
Sum.

We must except from the preceding Rule the Creditor, who to secure his own Mortgage, acquits the Principal Sum and Interest owing by his Debtor to a Creditor who is prior to himself. For this second Creditor cannot pretend from his Debtor, Interest for the Sum which he has paid to the first Creditor on the score of Interest that was due to him; because he paid the same as taking care of his own concerns, and not of the concerns of his Debtor; and seeing he paid for the Debtor only with this view of securing his own, he could not make the Debtor's condition worse^r.

^r Usurarum quas creditori primo solvit (secundus creditor) usuras non consequitur: non enim negotium alterius gessit, sed magis suum, l. 12. §. 6. ff. qui pot.

See the sixth Article of the sixth Section of Mortgages.

XIII.

13. A case
where In-
terest is
due.

The Rule which prohibits the taking Interest of Interest, does not hinder a Minor from exacting lawfully from his Tutor or Guardian, not only Interest for the Sums arising from the Interest which the Minor's Debtors have paid to the Guardian, but also Interest of the Interest of Sums of Money which the said Guardian may owe upon his own account to his Pupil. For all the said Interests in the hands of Tutors and Guardians are Capitals, which their Office obliges them to lay out for the benefit of their Pupils. And if they have failed to do it, either thro' negligence, because they have laid out the Money upon their own particular concerns, they are bound to pay Interest for it; that the same may be to the Minors instead of the Profit which they would have reaped from Lands, or Houses, or

Annuities, if their Money had been laid out in the purchase of such things^r.

^r See the twenty third, twenty fourth, and twenty fifth Articles of the third Section of Tutors; with the Remarks upon them.

XIV.

It follows from all the Rules which have been explained in this Section, that we may reduce to four sorts of Causes, all those which may give occasion for paying Interest of Sums of Money. For the same may be due, either by the effect of an Agreement; as if it has been stipulated in a Transaction: Or by the nature of the Obligation, as the Interest of a Portion given with a Woman in Marriage, and that of the Price of Houses or Lands that are sold: Or by a Law, as that which Tutors and Guardians are bound to pay to their Pupils, for the Monies which they have neglected to lay out for their behoof: Or as a punishment of the Debtor who defers payment, after the Creditor has made his demand in a Court of Justice, both of his Principal, and of the Interest due for default of payment^r.

^r This Article is a consequence of all the other Articles of this Section.

XV.

We have reduced here to these few articles, the Rules concerning this matter of Interest of Money; for besides that in every Engagement we have marked under their proper Titles those in which Interest is due, it sufficeth that we have remarked in general the several Rules which comprehend the principles on which the Decisions of cases of this nature depend, and that we have pointed out the use of them in some Examples. To all which we shall add, that in order to discern aright between the cases where Interest is due, and those where it is not due, it is necessary to consider in every one what the Debt is, as if it is a Loan, a Sale, or other Contract, or what other kind of Engagement, and of what nature it is; the quality of the thing that is due, as if it is a Suit of Hangings, Silver Plate, or other things which yield no revenue except to such as let them out to hire; or if they are things from which the Creditor might have drawn some profit, either from the thing itself, or by selling it; that we may judge whether Interest be due for the value of the Thing, or whether any thing is due for Damages: the circumstances

es of the delay of payment: those
ne fair or unfair dealing of the Debt-
and the other circumstances which
help us to make a right judgment
whether there be ground to condemn
the Debtor to pay Interest, or to dis-
charge him from it^a.

Videamus, an in omnibus rebus petitis, in fruc-
tus quoque condemnatur possessor. Quid enim, si
argentum, aut vestimentum, aliamve similem rem:
quid præterea, si usufructum, aut nudam pro-
prietatem, cum alienus usufructus sit, petierit? Ne-
que enim nude proprietatis, quod ad proprietatis
nomen attinet, fructus ullus intelligi potest: ne-
que usufructus rursus fructus eleganter computa-
bitur. Quid igitur, si nuda proprietatis petita sit?
ex quo perdidit fructuarius usufructum, æsti-
mabuntur in petitione fructus. Item, si usufruc-
tus petitus sit, Proculus ait, in fructus perceptos
condemnari. Præterea Gallus Aelius putat, si vesti-
menta, aut scyphus petita sint, in fructu hæc nu-
meranda esse, quod locata ea re, mercedis nomine
capi potuerit. l. 19. ff. de usufr.

Cum multa oriri possint, quæ pro bono sunt æsti-
manda. Ideoque hujusmodi varietas viri boni arbi-
trio dirimenda est. l. 13. §. 1. ff. de ann. legat.

Altho' this last Text concerns another subject, yet it
may be applied to this.

As to the Engagements in which Interest is due, see
the Articles which follow.

Art. 4. Sect. 3. of Covenants.

Art. 5. Sect. 3. of the Contract of Sale.

Art. 3. Sect. 3. of the Loan of Money.

Art. 5. and 11. Sect. 4. of Partnership.

Art. 4. Sect. 2. of Proxies.

Art. 23, 24, 25. Section 3. of Tutors.

Art. 5. Sect. 5. of the same Title.

Art. 5. Sect. 3. of Curators.

Art. 8. Sect. 1. of those who manage the Affairs of
others, &c.

Art. 5. Sect. 2. of the same Title.

Art. 4. Sect. 2. of those who chance to have any
thing, &c.

Art. 1. Sect. 3. of those who receive what is not due
to them.

Art. 1. Sect. 2. of that which is done to defraud
Creditors.

Art. 2. Sect. 3. of Cautions, or Sureties.

SECT. II.

Of Damages.

The CONTENTS.

1. Definition of Damages.
2. Two sorts of questions in the matter of Damages. The first, whether any are due?
3. The second question is, in what they do consist. Example of this Question.
4. Another example of the same Question.
5. The third Question, about the Estimate of Damages.
6. Two sorts of Damages which ought to be distinguished.

7. Damages either for a loss sustained, or
for having failed to make a pro-
fit.

8. Difference in Damages, according as
the person who owes them has act-
ed fairly, or unfairly.

9. Of the regard which ought to be had
to the quality of the Fact which
has caused the damage.

10. Damages may be due, even although
they have not been occasioned by any
fault.

11. Consequences which appear remote,
and yet enter into the Estimate of
Damages.

12. Damages for losses which depend on
future events.

13. The prudence of the Judge in esti-
mating Damages.

14. Damages against litigious persons:

15. Stipulation of a certain Sum, in lieu
of all Damages.

16. All Damages are estimated in Money.

17. Losses which he who is the cause of
them is not obliged to make good.

I.

BY Damages, is meant here, the re-
paration, or satisfaction, which is
due from those who are answerable for
some damage^a.

^a Ut damneris mihi quanti interest mea. l. 5. §. 1.
ff. de præscript. verb. Quanti ea res erit. l. 29. §. 2.
ff. de adil. adil. Quanti res est, id est, quanti ad-
versarii interfuit, l. 68. ff. de rei vindic.

II.

All the Rules concerning the matter
of Damages, respect either the Quest-
ion, whether any be due? or in what
they do consist? The question whether
any Damages be due, is always a questi-
on of Law, which depends on know-
ing if the person to whom they are im-
puted ought to be answerable for them.
Thus, for Example, the question which
arises upon the Case explained in the se-
venth Article of the fourth Section of
the Title of Damages occasioned by
Faults, in relation to the person who
cuts the Ropes of a Ship, in order to
disengage his own Vessel, which a blast
of Wind had thrown upon the other,
is a question of Law, in which it is ne-
cessary to judge whether this damage
ought to be imputed to him, or whe-
ther those who suffered it ought to bear
it as an accident^b.

^b All Questions are either concerning matter of Fact,
or Law, de facto an de jure. l. ult. ff. de jurej. We
call those Questions of Fact, where the matter is to
know the truth of a Fact: if an Event has happened, or
not; if the person whose Inheritance is controverted has
made

made a Testament, or if he has made none: if he who complains of Damage has really sustained some Loss, or if he has sustained none.

We call those Questions of Law, wherein the matter is to know how we ought to judge, and where it is necessary to reason upon Principles and Rules, in order to form the Decision.

As to the difference between Questions of Law, and those of Fact, see the first Section of the Vices of Covenants.

III.

3. The second question is in what they do consist. Example of this Question.

This first question, whether any Damages be due, being decided, then follows the second question, which is to know, in what they do consist? that is, to discern in the whole extent of the Damage which has happened, what part thereof ought to be imputed to him who is obliged to indemnify, and what ought not to be imputed to him. For it often happens, as has been mentioned in the Preamble to this Title, that one bare Fact gives occasion to several Damages, part whereof is not imputed to him who is said to have been the cause of them. Thus, for example, if he who had sold Corn, and promised to the Buyer to deliver it on a certain day, in a certain place, does not keep his word, and that the said Buyer either be obliged to buy other Corn at a dearer rate, or finding none other to buy, he loses the Sale thereof in another place, where he might have hoped to have made profit by it; or that for want of the said Corn, which he designed for the subsistence of a great many Workmen, he by that disappointment suffers the loss of their days labour, and the interruption of a Work that is useful or necessary to him; these Events will give rise to the Question, whether this Seller shall be answerable either for all these consequences, or a part of them; and what shall be the damage that he will be obliged to make good. And this question, which is to fix and ascertain what is the precise Damage that is to be repaired, is a second question of Law, of which we shall see another Example in the following Article.

* Cum per venditorem steterit quominus rem tradat, omnis utilitas emptoris in aestimationem venit, quæ modo circa ipsam rem consistit. Neque enim si potuit, ex vino putà negotiari, & lucrum facere, id aestimandum est, non magis quàm si triticum emerit, & ob eam rem quod non sit traditum, familia ejus fame laboraverit; nam pretium tritici, non cervorum fame necatorum consequitur. Nec major fit obligatio quod tardius agitur: quamvis crescat si vinum hodie pluris sit. Merito, quia si datum esset, haberet emptor: si ve non, quoniam saltem hodie dandum est, quod jam oportuit. l. 21. §. 3. ff. de act. empt. & vend.

We have not put down in this Article the Example mentioned in the Law that is here cited, because it is

in the eighteenth Article of the second Section of the Contract of Sale.

IV.

If the Proprietor of a Vineyard, or other person who had right to the Fruits thereof, having hired Carriages for gathering the Grapes thereof on a certain day, he who undertook to furnish them fails in his promise, and the Owner of the Vineyard is obliged to hire other Carriages at a dearer price; or that finding none to hire, he is forced to defer his Vintage, and it happens that a shower of Hail comes and destroys all the Grapes; with the Produce of which the Owner had proposed to pay off a Creditor, who being disappointed of his payment, seizes on the Owners Goods, and exposes them to Sale, the person who undertook to furnish the Carriages, will without doubt be obliged, in the first case, to make good the Overplus, that the Owner of the Vineyard was forced to give for other Carriages. But in the second case, of the loss of the Vintage, and of the Seizure of the Owner's Goods by a Creditor, this will be a question of Law, to know what this Event will oblige the Carrier to. And one clearly sees that the Seizure and Sale of the Goods is a consequence too remote from the deed of this Carrier, and that it proceeds likewise from another Cause, to wit, the disorder in which the affairs of the Owner of the Vineyard were; for which reason this last loss ought not to be imputed to him^d. For his condition ought not to be worse for having failed in his promise to a person who was under such straits and difficulties, than it would have been if he had disappointed a person whose affairs were in a better state. But as to the loss of the Fruits, is the Carrier bound to make good the whole, or a part thereof, or nothing at all? Will it be said, that this is an Event altogether unforeseen, which ought not to be imputed to him^e; or that it was natural to foresee it, and that his non-performance of his Engagement deserves some punishment; if not a Condemnation to make good the whole loss of the Vintage, yet at least a part of it? This question ought to depend on the circumstances, and it is necessary to consider if the disappointment of the Carriages was occasioned by some accident that happened to the Carrier, or if he had preferred a greater gain in another place; or if some other cause had hindered him from performing his Engagement.

4. Another example of the same Question.

Engagement, if it was possible to hire other Carriages: and according to these circumstances, and others of the like nature, the Judge will determine whether he ought to make some reparation of this damage, or none at all; and it would be just to acquit him of all damages, if he had been hindered from performing his Engagement, by an Accident which had happened without any fault of his.

^d This is a consequence of the foregoing Article, and of the Remarks which have been made in the Preamble to this Title.

^e Ea quæ raro accidunt non temere in agendis negotiis computantur. l. 64. ff. de reg. jur.

V.

5. The third Question, about the Estimate of Damages.

When the Questions of Law have been decided, and it is determined that Damages are due, and wherein they do consist, there remains a third Question, to know what they are to be estimated at; which is to be looked upon only as a Question of Fact^f. Thus, for Example, if he who had sold Corn which he promised to deliver on a certain day, in a certain place, having failed in his promise, it be adjudged by the circumstances, that no other Damages are due, except on account that the said Buyer was obliged to buy other Corn in the same place at a dearer rate; there is nothing necessary for estimating this Damage, but to enquire how much dearer he has bought the other Corn^g. Which is only a matter of Fact.

^f Quatenus cujus interfit in facto, non in jure consistit. l. 24. ff. de reg. jur.

^g Si merx aliqua quæ certo die dari debebat, petita sit, veluti vinum, oleum, framentum, tanti litem æstimandam Cassius ait, quanti fuisset eo die, quo dari debuit. Idemque juris in loco esse, ut æstimatio sumatur ejus loci quo dari debuit. l. ult. ff. de cond. trit.

Quoties in diem, vel sub conditione oleum quis stipulatur, ejus æstimationem eo tempore spectari oportet, quo dies obligationis venit. Tunc enim ab eo peti potest. l. 59. ff. de verb. oblig.

VI.

6. Two sorts of Damages which ought to be distinguished.

It appears from the Rules explained in the third and fourth Articles, that the Damages and Losses of which reparation may be demanded, are of two sorts. One is of the Losses which are in such a manner a consequence of the deed of the person from whom reparation is demanded, that it is evident they ought to be imputed to him, as proceeding from no other cause. And the other sort is of those Losses which are only remote consequences of the said deed, and which proceed from other causes^h.

VOL. I.

Thus in the case of the preceding Article, the Loss is of this first kindⁱ. Thus, for another Example of the same kind, if an Architect, either out of Ignorance, or thro' a defect in the Materials which he was obliged to furnish, makes a Building faulty, the damages of the Owner of the Building consisting either in the charges of rebuilding what is necessary to be rebuilt, or in the Estimate which skilful persons shall make of the defects of the Work, if it is to remain in the condition it is in; these damages are such as have no other cause besides the fault of the Architect, and therefore they ought to be imputed to him^j. Thus, for the second sort of Losses, we see in the case of the fourth Article, that the Seizure of the Goods of the person whose Vintage was destroyed by a shower of Hail, is, 'tis true, a consequence of the disappointment of the Carriages which he had agreed for, but a consequence so remote from that fact, and so visibly owing to another cause, that it ought not to be imputed to the person who was to have furnished the Carriages^m.

ⁱ See the Preamble to this Title.

^j Cum per venditorem steterit, quominus rem tradat, omnis utilitas emptoris in æstimationem venit, quæ modò circa ipsam rem consistit. l. 11. §. 3. ff. de act. empt. & vend. Causa omnis restituenda. l. 31. ff. de reb. cred.

^k See the seventeenth Article of the second Section of the Contract of Sale.

^l Poterit ex locato cum eo agi qui vitiosum opus fecerit. l. 51. §. 1. ff. locat.

^m See the eighteenth Article of the second Section of the Contract of Sale, and the Preamble to this Title.

VII.

It is necessary likewise to distinguish Damages under another view, into two other kinds. One is of those which consist in an effective loss, and a diminution that one suffers of his present Estate. And the other kind, is of those which deprive one of some profit to be made. Thus, the Landlord of a House, which is damaged, by the neglect of the Tenant to make the repairs which he was obliged to make, suffers a loss and diminution of his present Substance. Thus, a Farmer, whose Lease is interrupted, is deprived of the profit which he might have made, had he been permitted to enjoy the Farm. In the damages of the first kind, the Estimate that is to be made thereof, being in relation to a loss that has actually happened, it is easy to see wherein the said loss consists, and to regulate the reparation that may be due for it, when it is the

7. Damages either for a Loss sustained, or for having failed to make a Profit.

the whole loss that is to be made good. But in the Damages of the second kind, where an Estimate is to be made of the loss of a profit to come, and which depends on uncertain Events which might render it greater or lesser, and which might also occasion that there would be no profit at all, or that there would be only loss, it is not possible to make an exact Estimate of such a Loss, and to regulate such a Reparation of Damages as may do exact justice both to the Farmer, and to the person who is bound to make good his damage. But as for these sorts of Reparations of Damages, it is necessary to adjust them according to the principles which have been explained in this Title, and from whence we have drawn what shall be said relating thereto in the twelfth Article.

* *Colonus si ei frui non liceat, totius quinquennii nomine statim recte agat. l. 24. §. 4. ff. locati. Et quantum per singulos annos compendii facturus erat, consequetur. d. l. Si colonus tuus fundo frui a te, aut ab eo prohibetur quem tu prohibere ne id faciat possis, tantum ei prestabis, quanti ejus interfuit frui. In quo etiam lucrum ejus continebitur. l. 33. in fin. ff. locati.* See the sixth Article of the sixth Section, and the fourth Article of the third Section of Letting and Hiring.

It is to be remarked on this Article, that in the Reparation of Damages to be made to this Farmer, we ought to distinguish between that which relates to the Estimate of the profit which he might have hoped to make, if his Lease had not been interrupted, and another sort of Damage which he might suffer at the present; as if his having taken the Farm had obliged him to buy Cattle, or other things necessary, or to settle there, or put him to other charges of the like nature; the loss of which would be a Damage of the first kind, which might be estimated at its just value, and separately from the loss which the Farmer sustains by not enjoying the Farm.

VIII.

8. Difference in Damages, according as the person who owes them has acted fairly, or unfairly.

In all the cases where Damages are due, it is necessary to consider the quality of the Fact which has occasioned them, and to distinguish between the Facts in which there is no fraud, or knavish dealing, and those in which there is. For according to this difference, the Damages may be either greater or lesser, although all the other circumstances should chance to be equal. Thus, for example, if the Purchaser of a House, or Lands, is turned out of possession by an Eviction, after he has made not only necessary Repairs, and Improvements, which have augmented the Revenue, but also been at some charges for Imbellishments; these useless and superfluous Expences will not be comprehended in the Damages for the Eviction, if the Seller has acted honestly and fairly, having had reason to look

upon himself as the true Owner of the House or Lands which he sold. For the Warranty ought not to be extended to such consequences for Expences which the Seller could not foresee, and which he had not laid out only for his pleasure. But if the Seller knew well enough that he was not the right Owner of the House or Lands which he sold, and so sold knavishly a Thing belonging to another person, this circumstance of his knavish dealing would give a larger extent to the Warranty, and he would be bound to refund the superfluous Expences, which the Purchaser would not have laid out, if he had known any thing of the Seller's unfair dealing with him. Thus, for another Example, if a Thing that was sold happens to have some defect in it, which occasions some damage, as if it was Cattle infected with some contagious distemper, which caused not only the death of the Cattle that were bought, but also of those which the Buyer had before; the Seller who knew nothing of this distemper, would be answerable only for the loss of the Cattle which he had sold; his Engagement not extending to this consequence of the loss of the other Cattle. But if the Seller knew of the distemper, he would be likewise liable to make good the loss of the other Cattle which the Buyer had before, because he ought to have warned him of the infection that was among the Cattle which he sold him, and it is his knavery that has given occasion to this other loss which the Buyer sustains by the death of his other Cattle. Thus, in general, Damages have a larger extent against those whose knavery makes them answerable for them, than against those who have acted honestly and fairly. For altho' that a Seller, for Example, who knavishly sells what he knows to be another's, may be ignorant, as well as one who believes what he sells to be his own, whether the Purchaser will lay out any superfluous Expences on the Thing that is sold, yet he cannot but know, that his Knavery implies a will to do all the evil which may ensue upon the said Sale. Thus, whereas the Eviction is, in regard to a Seller who has dealt fairly and honestly, an Accident which he could not foresee: the said Eviction, and the losses which follow upon it are, with respect to a Seller who has acted unfairly and knavishly, a natural consequence of his Knavery, for which he ought to be accountable.

* De sumptibus verò quos in erudiendum hominem emptor fecit, videndum est. Nam empti iudicium ad eam quoque speciem sufficere existimo: non enim pretium continet tantum, sed omne quod interest emptoris servum non evinci. Placuit, si in tantum pretium excedisse proponas, ut non sit cogitatum à venditore de tanta summa, veluti si ponas agitatore postea factum vel pantomimum, evictum esse eum qui minimo venit pretio, iniquum videtur in magnam quantitatē obligari venditorem. *l. 43. in ff. de act. empt. & vend.* In omnibus tamen his casibus, si sciens quis alienum vendiderit omnimodò teneri debet. *l. 45. §. 1. in ff. eod.* See the eighteenth Article of the tenth Section of the Contract of Sale.

Julianus libro quinto decimo inter eum qui sciens quid, aut ignorans vendidit differentiam facit in condemnatione ex empto. Ait enim, qui pecus morbosum, aut tignum vitiosum vendidit, si quidem ignorans fecit, id tantum ex empto actione præstaturum quanto minoris esset empturus, si id ita esse scissem: si verò sciens reticuit, & emptorem decepit, omnia detrimenta quæ ex ea emptione emptor traxerit, præstaturum ei. Sive igitur ædes vitio tigni corruerunt, ædiutæ æstimationem: sive pecora contagione morboſi pecoris perierunt, quod interfuit idoneè venisse, erit præstandum. *l. 13. ff. eod. ff. d. l. §. 1.*

One may be able to judge by the Examples mentioned in this Article of the use of this Rule, for distinguishing in all sorts of Cases between the Damages which are due from those who have given occasion to them by any fraud or knavery, and those which may be due even when there is no unfair dealing. See an Example of another nature in the nineteenth Law, §. 1. ff. locat. where it is said, that if a Pasture-Ground being farmed out, the Cattle who depasture therein die by eating of venomous Herbs, the Owner of the Ground knowing nothing of this bad quality which it had, will not be accountable for the loss of the Cattle; but he will be bound only to discharge the Farmer of his Rent: but if the Owner of the Ground knew of this bad quality, he will be obliged to make good the loss of the Cattle which perished by feeding therein.

Si quis doli vitiosa ignarus locaverit, deinde vinum effluxerit, tenebitur in id quod interest, nec ignorantia ejus erit excusata. Et ita Cassius scripsit. Aliter atque si saltum pascuum locasti: in quo herba mala nascebatur: hic enim, si pecora vel demortua sunt, vel etiam deteriora facta, quod interest præstabitur, si scisti: si ignorasti, pensionem non petes. Et ita Servio, Labeoni, Sabino placuit. *l. 19. §. 1. ff. locat.*

See the sixth and seventh Articles of the eleventh Section of the Contract of Sale, the eighth Article of the third Section, and the first and second Articles of the eighth Section of Letting and Hiring.

It is observable, that in the Roman Law they made this difference, as to Damages which might be due from those who did not restore a Thing which they were bound to restore or deliver up, that if there was no knavery in the case, the Condemnation in Damages went no higher than the value of the effective Damage which the person suffered who had interest therein. But if the party was guilty of any fraud or Contumacy; that is, if it was a wilful delay, the party who was injured thereby was allowed to give in upon Oath an Estimate of the Loss or Damage which he sustained, and it was left to the discretion of the Judge to limit the Oath to a certain Sum, and even to mitigate the Condemnation after Oath had been made. Interdum quod interfit agentis solum æstimatur, veluti cum culpa non restituentis, vel non exhibentis puniuntur: cum verò dolus, aut contumacia non restituentis, vel non exhibentis, quanti in litem juraverit actor. *l. 2. §. 1. ff. de in lit. jur.* Sed judex potest præfixire certam summam, usque ad quam juretur. *l. 5. §. 1. eod.* Item et si juratum fuerit, licet judici vel absolvere, vel minoris condemnare. *d. l. 2. ff. de in lit. jur.*

VOL. I.

IX.

When there is neither any design to hurt, nor any knavery in the Fact which has caused the damage, it is necessary to enquire, in the next place, if the Damage has happened thro' any negligence, or any fault, or if there is nothing that can be imputed to the person who is pretended to be answerable for it. Thus, for Example, if he who has hired a Horse, rides him in a dark night, in a stony way, full of bad steps, and the Horse lames himself, or if, for want of care, he is stolen, these sorts of faults may be imputed to the person who hired him. But if without his fault the Horse is lamed, or if he is carried off by Robbers, at noon-day, in a highway, the Owner of the Horse will bear the loss. For these Losses are accidents which fall upon the Owner.

* In judicio tam locati quam conducti dolum & custodiam, non etiam casum cui resisti non potest, venire constat. *l. 28. C. de locato.*

X.

Altho' there be no fault on the part of the person from whom a Reparation of Damages is demanded, yet this is not always enough to discharge him of it. For there are cases in which Damages are due, altho' they have not been occasioned by any fault; but are due by the bare effect of an Engagement. Thus, he who had sold honestly a Thing which he believed to be his own, is obliged to put a stop to the demand of the person who pretends to be Owner of it, and if he does not do it, he will be liable for the damages of the Eviction, altho' there be on his part no unfair dealing, nor any other kind of fault. Thus, he who fails to deliver what he has sold, is accountable for the damages which are occasioned by his failing to deliver it. And these Damages are bare consequences of the Engagements which the Seller is under.

* Evicta re, ex empto actio non ad pretium duntaxat recipiendum, sed ad id quod interest, competit. *l. 70. ff. de evict. l. 60. eod.* See the tenth Section of the Contract of Sale.

Si res vendita non tradatur, in id quod interest agitur. Hoc est, quod rem habere interest emptoris. *l. 2. ff. de act. empt. & vend.*

Causa omnis restituenda. *l. 31. ff. de rebus cred.* See the sixteenth and seventeenth Articles of the second Section of the Contract of Sale, and the fourth Article of the third Section of Covenants.

XI.

It hath been remarked in the sixth Article, that we ought not to impute to

near re-
more, and
yet enter
into the Es-
timate of
Damages.

to the person whose fact hath caused some damage, the consequences that are remote, and which may proceed from other causes which some conjuncture hath joined with the said fact; and that these sorts of consequences do not enter into the Estimate of Damages. But we must not reckon in the number of those remote consequences, the different losses which may be occasioned by the same fact, if the said losses have that fact for their only cause. Thus, for instance, if an Architect having undertaken to build a House, and to perfect it by such a time, for a Tenant who had hired it, does not finish it by the time appointed, or makes it so faulty, that a part of it falls to the ground, either by a defect in the foundation, or by some other cause for which the Architect is answerable; this event will cause three sorts of Losses, that of the Expence for rebuilding the House, the loss of the Rent which the Landlord ought to have had, and that of the Damages which the Landlord will be liable for to the Tenant, for disappointing him of his House. And altho' this second and third loss be consequences that appear remote from the deed of the Undertaker, yet seeing they have no other cause, and that his Contract implied the Obligation to put the House in a condition to be inhabited; these losses may be imputed to him. And if this case had happened by the fault of an Architect who was able to make good all these losses, he would be bound to do it. But because Undertakers have not always the means to make such ample Reparations of Damages, and that Humanity obliges us on some occasions to moderate the Rigour which a strict Justice might demand, a temperament may be applied in estimating these sorts of Damages, by considering that these are Events which happen to the most skilful and most careful persons. Thus it depends always on the prudence of the Judge, and of the persons employed to make those Estimates, to regulate them according to the circumstances^r.

^r Multa oriri possunt que pro bono sunt aestimanda. Ideoque hujusmodi varietas viri boni arbitrio dirimenda est. l. 13. §. 1. ff. de ann. leg.

Altho' this Law relates to another subject, yet the Principles on which it depends may be applied here.

Bonus judex variè ex personis, causisque constituet. l. 38. ff. de eval.

XII.

^{12.} Damages for loss-ten moderate the Damages of present

Losses, by the motives of the preceding Article, do oblige us to mitigate the losses which are not present, and to regulate the Estimate thereof, according to the nature of the events which cannot be known, cannot be regulated on any certain foot. Thus, in the case of the Farmer mentioned in the seventh Article, it is necessary to adjust his Damages by several views: And to consider what is the cause which turns him out of possession, as if the person who let him the Farm is turned out of possession by a Recovery at Law, or if he has sold it without obliging the Purchaser to stand to the Lease: what have been the profits, or losses, which this Farmer hath already had: the number of years which his Lease had still to run; the quality of the Fruits of his Farm; according as they were more or less obnoxious to the injuries of the weather, and to other losses; the uncertainty of the value of Provisions; that of the Opportunities which the Farmer might have had, or not have had, during the time of his Lease, to sell the said Fruits; the usual profits made by other Farmers of the like Revenues in the same places: and by all these views, and others of the like nature, we may balance both the profits which this Farmer might hope to make, and the losses which he had to fear; and may regulate by these considerations, such a Reparation of Damages as may be agreeable to Equity^r.

^r Colonus, si ei frui non liceat totius quinquennii nomine statim rectè aget. l. 24. §. 4. ff. locat. Et quantum per singulos annos compendii tacturus erat, consequetur. d. l.

See the seventh Article.

XIII.

It follows from all the preceding Rules, that as the questions relating to Damages arise always from Facts which vary according to the circumstances, it is by the Prudence of the Judge that they are to be decided, he joining to the light which the Principles of Law and Equity may give him, a prudent discernment of the circumstances, and of the regard that ought to be had to them: whether it be for lessening the Damages that are to be adjudged, by cutting off pretensions for distant losses, and upon other considerations, if there be ground for it, as in the cases where no bad design, nor any fault, can be imputed to the person who is bound to make good the damage: or for increasing the Damages which are to be given in consideration^{13.} The Prudence of the Judge in estimating Damages.

consideration of the intention to hurt, if there was any. Thus, for Example of the lessening of the Damages, in the case where a Seller, who has sold a Thing which he verily believed to be his own, is bound to warrant the Thing sold against an Eviction, the Reparation of Damages will not be extended to the superfluous Expences which the Purchaser may have laid out barely for his own pleasure: and much less will there be any regard had to the particular considerations which might render the said Purchase more precious in the eye of the Purchaser, whether it were because it had been an ancient Patrimonial Estate belonging to his Family, or that he took delight therein because he had been brought up in it. For the price of things is not regulated by affection, which may make them more valuable to some than to others; but only on the foot of what they may be worth to all persons indifferently*. Thus, on the contrary, in the case where one had, by some trespass, occasioned the loss of a thing which was of necessary use for the matching of others, which, for the want of that which perished, became useless, as it may happen on several occasions; the person who had caused this damage would be accountable, not only for the value of the thing lost, but also for the damage which the said loss had occasioned besides, by the want of the use of the other things". For this damage which might have been considered as an Accident, if the loss of the thing had happened only thro' some imprudence, might be imputed to him who had caused it, with an intention to do harm.

* Pretia rerum non ex affectu, nec utilitate singulorum, sed communiter funguntur. l. 63. ff. ad leg. Falcid.

Non affectiones aestimandas, sed quanti omnibus valeret. l. 33. ff. ad leg. Aquil.

Si dicat patronus rem quidem iusto pretio venisse, verumtamen hoc interesse sua, non esse venditum, inque hoc esse fraudem, quod venierit possessio in quam habebat patronus affectionem, vel opportunitatis, vel vicinitatis, vel coeli, vel quod illic educatus sit, vel parentes sepulti, an debeat audiri volens revocare? Sed nullo pacto erit audendus. Fraus enim in damno accipitur pecuniario. l. 1. §. 15. ff. de quid in fraud. patr. factum sit.

What is said in this Law touching the fraud committed against the Rights of a Patron, may be applied to the case of an Eviction.

Sed utrum corpus ejus solum aestimamus, quanti fuerit, cum occideretur: an potius, quanti interfuit nostris, non esse occisum? Et hoc iure utimur, ut ejus quod interest, fiat aestimatio. l. 21. §. 2. ff. ad leg. Aquil. Item causae corpori cohaerentes aestimantur, si quis ex cornedibus, aut symphoniacis, aut gemellis, aut quadriga, aut ex pari mularum unum, vel unam occiderit. Non solum enim per-

empti corporis aestimatio facienda est: sed & ejus ratio haberi debet, quo cetera corpora depretiata sunt. l. 22. §. 1. eod.

XIV.

Among all the causes from whence ^{14. Damages against litigious persons.} Damages may arise, there is none more frequent than the injustice of those persons, who by prosecuting or defending unjust Law-Suits, cause to their adverse parties not only charges, which are almost never made up by the Costs of Suit which they are condemned in, but likewise other damages of which those Law-Suits are the only cause; such as the loss of time, especially in those who live by their Labour, and many other consequences of the injustice and cavilling humour of litigious persons. Which makes it very just and reasonable, that such persons should be condemned in Damages, whenever the vexation is such as may deserve it. And altho' this Rule be so rarely observed, that it looks as if it were quite abolished; yet seeing it is founded upon Equity, that it is agreeable to the Law of Nature, and that it has been revived by the Ordinances, it would be proper for the Judges to put it in execution, whenever the injustice, the cavilling and vexatious humour of the parties may deserve it*.

* Improbis litigator & damnum, & impensis litis inferre adversario suo cogatur. §. 1. in f. inst. de pona tem. litig. V. tit. C. de iur. prop. cal. dam.

In all matters Real, Personal, and Possessory, Civil and Criminal, there shall be Judgment for Damages arising from the Suit, and from the calumny and severity of the person who loses the Cause, which shall be taxed and moderated by the same Sentence or Judgment at a certain Sum, provided always, that the said Damages have been demanded by the Party who has gained the Cause, and of which the Parties may give in a Summary Account in the Proceedings of the Cause. Ordinance of Francis I. in August 1539. Art. 88.

Those persons who do not understand Latin, must be here informed, that the word Calumny in the above-mentioned Ordinance, as well as in the Roman Law, signifies the vexation and cavilling of those who knowingly and wilfully prosecute or defend unjust Law-Suits.

In England we have several Acts of Parliament which direct the Judges to give Costs, in order to discourage litigious persons from vexing their neighbours. As by Stat. 23 H. VIII. cap. 15. which directs, that if the Plaintiff be Non-suit, or overthrown by lawful Trial in any Action, Bill, or Plaint, the Defendant shall in such case have his Costs, to be assessed by the Judge or Judges of the Court, and to be recovered as the Plaintiff might have recovered his in case Judgment had been given for him. Likewise by Stat. 4 Jac. I. cap. 3. it is enacted, that if the Demandant or Plaintiff be Non-suit, or overthrown by lawful Trial, in any Action whatsoever, the Tenant or Defendant shall have Costs.

By Stat. 1 Gul. & Mar. Seff. 1. cap. 21. it is ordained, that upon dismission of a Bill in Chancery, the Plaintiff shall pay full Costs, to be taxed by a Master. And by Stat. 8 & 9 W. III. cap. 11. it is enacted, that in all Actions of Trespas, where it shall appear at the Trial, and be certified by the Judge on the back of the Record, that the Trespas was wilful and malicious,

the Plaintiff shall recover not only his Damages, but his full Costs of Suit.)

XV.

15. Stipulation of a certain Sum in lieu of all Damages.

The difficulties in settling the value of the Damages which may ensue upon the non-performance of an Engagement, oblige sometimes those who contract together to agree on a certain Sum, which he who fails to perform what he has promised on his part, shall be bound to pay to the other, to be to him instead of a Reparation of Damages. But seeing these sorts of Stipulations are not so much a just Estimate of the Damage, as a precaution for engaging the Contracter to a more exact fidelity, thro' fear of incurring the penalty of paying the Sum agreed on, it depends on the prudence of the Judge to moderate the said Sum, if it exceeds the real damage. For he who has suffered the damage cannot reasonably pretend to more than what may be lawfully due to him. And this Stipulation hath its just effect by a reasonable Satisfaction for the loss that is to be repaired. But if the Agreement is conceived in such terms as shew that it was the intention of the Parties to limit the Reparation of Damages to a certain Sum in favour of the person who might be liable thereto, and to prevent his being obliged to any thing beyond that Sum, altho' the Damage should chance to be greater; in this case the Damage could not be estimated at more than the Sum agreed on. For the persons who have contracted in this manner, had power to mitigate the Reparation of Damages that might be due.

* In ejusmodi stipulationibus quæ quanti res est promissionem habent, commodius est certam summam comprehendere: quoniam plerumque difficilis probatio est quanti cujusque interit: & ad exiguum summam deducitur. *l. ult. ff. de stip. prator. §. ult. inf. de verb. oblig.* See the eighteenth Article of the fourth Section of Covenants in general.

XVI.

16. All Damages are estimated in Money.

All Damages, of what nature soever they may be, are reduced to Sums of Money which those persons owe who are obliged to make any Reparation, whether it be for having failed to perform their Engagements, or for other causes. For Money is in place of all things that are capable of being estimated.

* Quia non facit quod promissit, in pecuniam numeratam condemnatur: sicut evenit in omnibus faciendi obligationibus. *l. 13. in f. ff. de re judic.*

XVII.

We must not reckon indifferently in the number of the cases where Damages may be due, all the Events where one person may cause by his deed some loss to another. For it often happens, that one is the cause of loss without being bound to make it good. And when the facts which have been the occasion of the loss have been lawful, and that the loss has been only a privation of some conveniency, and a consequence of the fact of a person who did nothing but use his own Right, he will not be bound to repair it. Thus, for example, he who digging in his own Grounds, finds there a Spring which he turns to his own use, will not be bound to make good the loss which his neighbour will suffer by being deprived of the said Spring, which will by this means cease to rise any more in his Ground, unless the said change had been made with no other view but to do harm. Thus, he who not being subject to a Service, raises his Building higher, and by that means takes away the Light, or Prospect, from his Neighbour's House, cannot be hindered from doing it. But if the change made by a person in his own Ground destroys, or damages a thing belonging to his Neighbour, as if one digging in his own Ground, weakens thereby the foundations of his Neighbour's Wall, and puts it in danger of falling, he will be answerable for it; for the facts which hurt in this manner cease to be lawful; and one cannot dig in his own Ground near the confines of his Neighbour, nor make other Works, unless he observes the distances, and uses the other precautions prescribed by the Usage and Custom of the places.

* Proculus ait, cum quis jure quid in suo faceret, quamvis promississet damni infecti vicino, non tamen eum teneri ea stipulatione. Veluti si juxta mea ædificia habeas ædificia, eaque jure tuo altius tollas: aut si in vicino tuo agro, cuniculo vel fossa aquam meam avoces. Quamvis enim & hic aquam mihi abducas, & illic luminibus officias, tamen ex ea stipulatione actionem non mihi competere: scilicet quia non debeat videri is damnum facere, qui eo veluti lucro, quo adhuc utebatur, prohibetur: multumque interesse utrum damnum quis faciat, an lucro quod adhuc faciebat uti prohibeatur. Mihi videtur vera Proculi sententia. *l. 26. ff. de damno inf.* Denique Marcellus scribit, cum eo qui in suo fodiens, vicini fontem avertit, nihil posse agi: nec de dolo actionem. Et sane non debet habere, si non animo vicino nocendi, sed suum agrum meliorem faciendi id fecit. *l. 1. §. 12. ff. de aqua & ag. pluv. arc.* Si tam altè fodiam in meo, ut paries tuus stare non possit, damni infecti stipulatio committitur. *l. 24. §. 12. ff. de damno inf.* See the eighth and ninth Articles of the second Section of

Services;

Services; and the ninth and tenth Articles of the third Section of Damages occasioned by Faults.

XVIII.

general remarks relating to Damages. As we have remarked in the matter touching the Interest of Money, the several views by which we may judge if any Interest be due, or not^b; so we ought also to discern in Questions that arise about Damages, whether any be due, or not. And this depends on the quality of the Fact which may have given occasion to the Damage; if it is an accident, a slight fault, an imprudence, a crime, an involuntary non-performance of an Engagement, or some other cause. And then Enquiry is made, in the next place, what the Damages may consist in; giving them either the extent, or bounds, which Equity may demand, according to the different causes of the Damages, the diversity of the Events, and the circumstances, observing therein the Rules which have been explained^c.

^b See the fifteenth Article of the first Section.

^c This is a consequence of the preceding Articles. Hoc quod revera inducitur damnum, & non ex quibusdam machinationibus, & immodicis perversionibus in circuitus inextricabiles redigatur. l. un. C. de sent. qua pro eo quod int. prof.

10. Another case of the like nature.
11. We must deduct from the value of the Fruits to be restored, the Expences laid out upon them.
12. The Fruits belong to the Master of the Ground, and not to him who sows it.
13. The unjust Possessor is bound to make Restitution of the Fruits which have been gathered from the Ground.
14. The Heir or Executor of an unjust Possessor succeeds to his Engagement.
15. Estimate of Fruits and other Revenues.
16. Restitution of the Revenues of Moveable Things.
17. There is no Interest due for the Fruits, till after a Demand.

I.

THE Restitution of Fruits is a kind of Reparation of Damages, which is due from him who hath unjustly enjoyed the Revenue of another. For this Restitution repairs the loss of the person who ought to have enjoyed the Revenue^a.

^a As Interest is the Reparation of Damages which is due from Debtors who owe Sums of Money, and are behind hand in payment; so the Restitution of Fruits is a Reparation of Damages due from those who have unjustly enjoyed the Revenues belonging to other persons.

II.

This word Restitution of Fruits, comprehends not only the obligation to restore those which are in being; but altho' the enjoyment has been for several years, and that the Fruits of those years be consumed; yet seeing it is the value of the said Fruits which ought to be restored, and that their value is instead of the Fruits themselves, the Restitution of the Fruits is to be understood both of such Fruits as are still extant, and also of those which are consumed^b.

^b This is a consequence of the foregoing Article.

III.

We must not in this place limit the word Fruits, to the ordinary sense of word Fruits, the Fruits which the Earth produces; but this word signifies here, all the different sorts of Revenues, of what nature soever they may be. And they may be distinguished into two kinds; one is of those which the Earth produces, whether it be of it self, and without being cultivated, such as Hay, the Fruits of Trees, Coppice Wood, the Minerals dug out of Mines, the Stones of Quarries,

SECT. III.

Of the Restitution of Fruits.

The CONTENTS.

1. The Restitution of Fruits is a Reparation of Damages.
2. The extent of this Restitution.
3. The word Fruits is understood of all sorts of Revenues.
4. The unjust Possessor is bound to restore all the Fruits which he has enjoyed.
5. The Possessor who verily believed himself to be the right Owner, does not restore the Fruits which he has enjoyed during this belief.
6. The upright Possessor restores the Fruits after a Legal Demand.
7. The Fruits that are cut down belong to the upright Possessor, altho' they be still lying on the Ground.
8. Of Revenues which come in successively.
9. A case where the Possessor, who believes himself to be the true Owner, restores the Fruits.

ries, and others of the like nature: or by culture, such as Corn, and other Grain^c. The other kind is of Revenues which are not the Fruits of the Earth, nor things which it produces either of it self, or by culture, but which are reaped by industry and care, either from some Tenement, or Animals, or from some Right established by Law. Thus one gathers Rent from a House, or other Building^d: Thus one draws from a Ferry-Boat, or a Ship, a Revenue for the carriage of Persons and Goods^e: Thus Mills and Pigeon Houses have their Revenues: And the several sorts of Animals which are for our use, have also their Revenues^f: Thus one has Rights of Fishing and Hunting, Tolls, and divers other Rights of several natures. And all these different Revenues of these two kinds, which come in yearly, or daily, are so many sorts of Goods, the enjoyment whereof may be the subject matter of the Restitution spoken of here.

^c Quidquid in fundo nascitur, quidquid inde percipi potest, ipsius fructus est. l. 9. ff. de usufr. l. 59. §. 1. cod.

^d Prædiorum urbanorum pensiones pro fructibus accipiuntur. l. 36. ff. de usufr.

^e Item vecturæ navium. l. 29. in f. ff. de hered. pet. l. 62. ff. de rei vind.

^f In pecudum fructu etiam foetus est, sicut lac, & pilus, & lana. Itaque agni & hædi & vituli statim pleno jure sunt bonæ fidei possessoris. l. 28. ff. de usufr.

IV.

4. The upright Possessor is bound to restore all the Fruits which he has enjoyed, All those who enjoy a Revenue which they know they have no right to, are bound to restore to the person whom they have deprived of it, the value of all that they have reaped from it, altho' they have not been disturbed in their enjoyment, by any demand. For they were sensible of the injustice which they were doing to the person who had a right to enjoy^g.

^g Certum est malæ fidei possessores, omnes fructus solere cum ipsa re præstare. l. 22. C. de rei vind. l. 17. cod. l. 3. C. de conduct. ex leg.

V.

5. The Possessor who verily believed himself to be the right Owner, does not restore the Fruits which he has enjoyed during this belief. Those who are honestly in possession of an Estate, which they believe to be their own, when it is not, are not bound to any Restitution of what they have enjoyed, during the time that they were fully persuaded of their right and title to the said Estate. For the integrity of a Possessor hath this effect, that he may look upon himself as Master of the thing which he possesses; and this upright persuasion of his, which he has reason

to take for truth, ought to put him in the same condition as if he were really Master^h. Thus, the loss which the right Owner sustains, by not enjoying, is, in regard to him, an accident which he cannot impute to this Possessor.

^h Bonæ fidei possessor in percipiendis fructibus id juris habet, quod dominis prædiorum tributum est. l. 25. §. 1. de usufr.

Bonæ fidei emptor non dubie percipiendo fructus, etiam ex aliena re, suos interim facit: non tantum eos qui diligentia & opera ejus provenerunt, sed omnes. Quia quod ad fructus attinet, loco domini penè est. l. 48. ff. de acq. rer. dom.

Bona fides tantundem possidenti præstat, quantum veritas, quoties lex impedimento non est. l. 136. ff. de reg. jur. See the fifth Article of the third Section of Possession. See concerning the cases where the upright Possessor restores the Fruits which have been reaped before the demand, the ninth and tenth Articles of this Section.

We call him an upright Possessor, who has just cause to believe himself to be Master of the Thing, as if he has purchased an Estate which he thought did belong to the person of whom he bought it, if it has descended to him by Inheritance, if it has been given him, or if he has acquired it by some other just Title, being ignorant of the right of the true Owner.

VI.

The integrity of the Possessor, which gives him the right to enjoy the Estate, ceases at the same time that his possession is called in question, by a demand made by the right Owner. For having once known the right of the true Owner of the Estate, he cannot any longer deprive him of the enjoyment thereof. And altho' he may pretend that the Demand is ill founded, and may think that his defences against it are just, yet if afterwards he is condemned to restore the Estate, his upright persuasion of his own Right and Title, when he defended himself, will be of no avail to him; and he will be obliged to make Restitution of the Fruits, from the time of the Demandⁱ. For this belief of his own Right, let it be never so upright and sincere, cannot have the effect of hurting the true Owner, who has known his Right, and demanded his Estate, or of counter-balancing the Authority of a Thing that is adjudged.

ⁱ Litigator victus, qui post conventionem rei incumbit alienæ, non in sola rei redhibitione teneatur, nec tantum fructuum præstationem eorum quos ipse percepit, agnoscat: sed etiam eos quos percipere potuisset, non quos cum redigisse constat, exolvat, ex eo tempore ex quo re in judicium deducta, scientiam malæ fidei possessionis accepit. l. 2. C. de fructib. & lit. exp. Ut omne habeat petitor, quod habiturus foret, si eo tempore quod judicium accipiebatur, restitutus illi homo fuisset. l. 20. ff. de rei vind. See the thirteenth Article.

VII.

7. The Fruits that are cut down belong to the right Possessor, altho' they be still lying on the Ground.

If a Possessor, who is verily persuaded of his own right, is summoned just before Harvest time by the Master of the Ground, to deliver up the possession, and to restore the Fruits, and that in the event of the Law-Suit he is condemned, he will be obliged to restore the Fruits of that Crop. For seeing they were not cut down at the time of the demand, they made a part of the Ground, and the demand interrupted the right which the Possessor had to enjoy them. But if the Fruits were separated from the Ground before the demand, altho' they were not yet carried away, but lay still in the Field, they will belong to this Possessor¹. For he having gathered and separated them from the Ground, they belonged to him: and one cannot afterwards take away his property in them, nor hinder him to carry off what is his own.

¹ Bonæ fidei possessoris (fructus) sunt mox cum à solo separati sunt. l. 13. ff. quib. mod. usufruct. vel us. amit.

Etiā priusquam percipiat, statim ubi à solo separati sunt, bonæ fidei emptoris sunt. l. 48. ff. de acq. rer. dom.

Perceptionem fructus accipere debemus, non si perfectè collecti, sed etiam cœpit ita percipi, ut terra continere se fructus desierint. Veluti si oliuæ, uvæ lectæ, nondum autem vinum, oleum ab aliquo factum sit. Statim enim ipsè accepisse fructum existimandus est. l. 78. in fin. ff. de rei vind.

VIII.

8. Of Revenues which come in successively.

If the Revenues of a Tenement which is possessed by one who sincerely believes himself to be the true Owner thereof, come in successively, and day after day, as the Rents of a House, the Revenue of a Mill, of a Ferry-Boat, of a Toll, and others of the like nature, and the said Tenement be recovered by Law, from the Possessor; he shall have whatever fell due before the demand, and must restore the rest^m.

^m See the sixth Article of the first Section of Usufuct.

IX.

9. A case where the Possessor who believes himself to be the true Owner, restores the Fruits.

There are cases where the Possessor who takes himself to be the right Owner, is obliged to make restitution of the Fruits which he has enjoyed. Thus, for instance, if two Brothers being Co-heirs to their Father, one of them being absent, the other has enjoyed all the Goods and Effects of the Inheritance, believing that his Brother was already dead, he will be obliged to restore to him when he returns, all his

VOL. I.

share of the Inheritance, with the Fruits which it has yielded. And it is the same thing, with respect to all other Co-heirs, whether they succeed by Testament, or without Testament, when one of them has enjoyed the portion belonging to the otherⁿ. For the Title of Heir gives him only right to his own portion; and the portion of his Co-heir is increased by the Fruits which proceed from it. Thus the integrity of the Heir who enjoys all the Goods of the Succession, implies the condition, that in case it shall be found that he has a Co-heir, he will do him justice as to his portion. And this distinguishes the condition of this Heir, from that of another Possessor who takes himself to be the true Owner, and who has no reason to think that any body besides himself has a right in what he possesses.

ⁿ Non est ambiguum, cum familiæ eriscundæ titulus inter bonæ fidei judicia numeretur, portionem hereditatis, si qua ad te pertinet, incremento fructuum augeri. l. 9. C. famul. erisc.

Cohæredibus divisionem inter se facientibus juri absentis & ignorantis minimè derogari, ac pro diviso portionem eam quæ initio ipsius fuit in omnibus communibus rebus, cum retinere certissimum est. Unde portionem tuam cum redditibus arbitrio familiæ eriscundæ percipere potes; ex facta inter cohæredes divisione nullum præjudicium timens. l. 17. C. eod. l. 44. ff. eod.

Fructus omnes augent hereditatem, five ante aditam, five post aditam hereditatem accesserint. l. 20. §. 3. in f. ff. de hered. petit. Fructibus augetur hereditas, cum ab eo possidetur à quo peti potest. l. 2. C. de petit. hered.

If the person who succeeded alone to an Inheritance, which was not then claimed by any other Heir, having enjoyed it, for several years, there started up another Heir, in the same degree with him, but whose Relation was till then unknown: and if the Heir who had enjoyed the whole Inheritance during this long time, was not able to restore the Fruits of the Portion belonging to his Co-Heir without being ruined, or very much incommoded thereby, it would be equitable to moderate the said Restitution by some temperance according to the circumstances.

X.

If one Co-Partner has enjoyed alone a House, or Lands belonging in common to the whole Partnership, altho' he thought that he had the sole right to it, and altho' his enjoyment thereof was honest, and with an upright intention, yet he will nevertheless be obliged to make restitution of the Fruits for the shares of his Co-Partners^o. Thus, for Example, if in the case of an universal Partnership of all Goods without distinction, one of the Partners, to whom a Relation or Friend had devised by Will, or given by Deed of Gift, an Estate, had enjoyed the same apart by himself, believing, thro' an Error in Law, that his Co-Partners had no share therein,

Kkk

therein, he will be bound notwithstanding his upright intention, to restore to them their portions of the Fruits of that Estate ¹¹, because their Partnership making the said Estate common to them all, the right of that Partner was restrained to his own portion: and his upright intention, which had for its foundation only an Error in Law, did not give him a title to enjoy the portions of the other Partners ⁹.

⁹ In societatis fructus communicandi sunt. l. 32. §. 2. ff. de usur. Si tecum societas mihi sit, & res ex societate communes, quos fructus ex his rebus ceperis, me consecuturum, Proculus ait. l. 38. §. 1. ff. pro socio.

¹¹ See the fourth Article of the third Section, and the first Article of the fourth Section of Partnership. See in the fourteenth Article of this Section, another Case where a Possessor who believes himself to be the right Owner restores the Fruits. See the third Article of the third Section of those who receive what is not their due, and the Remark on the said Article.

⁹ See the sixteenth Article of the first Section of the Vices of Covenants.

XI.

¹¹ We must deduct from the Value of the Fruits to be restored, the Expenses laid out upon them.

The Restitution of the Fruits does not extend to their full value, but we must deduct from the value the Expenses that were necessary for the enjoyment thereof: Such are the Expenses for tilling the Ground, for the Seed, and those which are necessary for gathering in the Fruits, and preserving them. And this deduction is allowed even to Possessors who knew what they enjoyed not to be their own¹²; for these Expenses being necessary, they diminish the effective value of the Revenues, which consists only in what remains after all charges are deducted.

¹² Hoc fructuum nomine continetur, quod iustis sumptibus deductis superest. l. 1. C. de fruct. & lit. exp. Fructus eos esse constat, qui deducta impensa supererunt. l. 7. ff. solut. matr. Fructus intelliguntur deductis impensis, quæ quærendorum, cogendorum, conservandorumque eorum gratia fiunt. Quod non solum in bonæ fidei possessoribus naturalis ratio exoptulat, verum etiam in prædonibus. l. 36. §. ult. ff. de hered. pet.

This deduction of the Expenses that are necessary for enjoying the Fruits, is grounded on the same Equity as the Restitution that is due to a Possessor of all useful and necessary Expenses, which have been laid out for improving the Thing which he had in his possession, or for preserving it: and which is allowed even to unjust Possessors, when they are turned out of their Possession. Benignius est in hujus quoque persona (prædonis) haberi rationem impensarum (necessariorum & utilium); non enim debet petitor ex aliena jactura lucrum facere. l. 38. ff. de hered. pet.

See the sixteenth Article of the tenth Section of the Contract of Sale, and the fourth Section of those who receive what is not their due.

XII.

¹² The Fruits be-

Altho' in many sorts of Revenues, the industry of the person who has en-

joyed them may have a share therein, yet the person who is Master of the Ground which has produced them: and such Fruits is not the share of another, because the industry of another person has been instrumental in producing them. For the culture, the seed, and all the industry that is necessary for reaping Fruits, or other Revenues, do presuppose the Ground which is to produce them. Thus, it is to the Right of Property which one has to the Ground, that the Right of Enjoyment is annexed; and the Revenue which may be drawn from the Ground belongs to him who is Master of it, deducting from the value of the Revenue the Expenses necessary for enjoying it¹³.

¹³ Omnis fructus non jure seminis, sed jure soli percipitur. l. 25. ff. de usur.

In percipiendis fructibus magis corporis jus ex quo percipiuntur, quam seminis ex quo oriuntur, aspicitur. Et ideo nemo unquam dubitavit, quin si in meo fundo frumentum tuum severim, segetem & quod ex messibus collectum fuerit, meum fieret. d. l. 25. §. 1.

XIII.

The Possessor who knows what he possesses not to be his own, is not only bound to make restitution of the Fruits which he has reaped; but if by his absence, or thro' negligence, and for the want of cultivating, he has not reaped any Fruits from the Ground which he was in possession of, or if he has reaped only a part of what the Ground might have yielded if it had been cultivated, he will be accountable for the Fruits which a good Husband might have reaped. For the Master of the Ground might have enjoyed it in this manner. But with regard to a fair Possessor, who takes himself to be the right Owner, and who is notwithstanding obliged to restore the Fruits, the Restitution may be regulated differently, according to the circumstances. Thus, a fair Possessor, who believed himself to be the right Owner, having been sued by the Master of the Thing which he is in possession of, may afterwards be compared to an unjust Possessor, and condemned to the same Restitution with him, if after the demand made by the right Owner, he has neglected the enjoyment thereof, or if he has diminished the Revenue, by not making the necessary Repairs; and he will be answerable for it, as having done it in fraud of the Restitution which he had reason to be afraid of. But he who is obliged to make Restitution of Fruits which he had honestly and fairly

fairly reaped before any demand was made, as in the cases mentioned in the ninth and tenth Articles, might be excused, if for want of Repairs, or by reason of any other neglect, he had not drawn from a Ground, which he thought he might neglect with impunity, believing it to be his own, that profit which another person might have made of it with greater care¹⁴.

* *Fructus non modò percepti, sed & qui percipi honestè potuerunt, restimandi sunt.* l. 33. ff. de rei vindic. See the sixth Article of the third Section of Possession.

See the Texts cited on the sixth Article.

¹⁴ Altho' the Text quoted on this Article makes no distinction between Possessors who believe themselves to be the right Owners of what they possess, and those who know that they possess what is another's, yet it seems to be just to distinguish them in the manner they are distinguished in this Article.

XIV.

¹⁴ The Heir or Executors of unjust Possessors, are bound to the same Restitution as they are to whom they succeed, for they come in their place. And as they have the Goods and Rights belonging to the said persons, so they bear likewise their burdens: and they enter into the same Engagements which they were under; and altho' they may happen to be altogether ignorant of any unfair or disingenuous dealing, yet their integrity will not hinder the effect of the unjust possession of those whom they represent¹⁵.

* *Hæredis quoque succedentis in vitium, par habenda fortuna est.* l. 2. in f. C. de fruct. lit. C. exp.

XV.

¹⁵ Estimate of Fruits and other Revenues year by year. In the Restitution of Revenues, the value whereof may rise or fall from one year to another, whether they consist in Money, as the Rents of a House, the Farm of a Mill, of a Toll, and others of the like nature; or whether they be the Fruits of the Ground, or Rent paid in Corn, and other kinds; the Arrears thereof are estimated on the foot of what the House or Lands may have produced, and of the value of the Kinds, according as the differences of the times may alter their price: or this liquidation is made according to the Leases, if there be any that are not liable to suspicion.

* *Quanti fuisset eo die quo dari debuit.* l. ult. ff. de condic. tritic. See the seventeenth Article of the second Section of the Contract of Sale.

In France, this Estimate is made in the manner as is prescribed by the Ordinances, of which these are the words:

In Causes or Actions, Real and Personal, which are commenced for Lands and Things Immoveable, if there is Restitution of Fruits decreed, they shall be adjudged

not only from the time of Contestation of Suits, but also from the time that the Party who is cast has been in delay, and has had knowledge of his unjust possession before the Contestation of Suit; nevertheless, according to the common way of making such Estimates, which shall be settled according to the Extract taken out of the Registers of the ordinary Jurisdictions. Ordinance of 1539.

Art. 94. In all our ordinary Courts of Judicature, whether general or particular, report shall be made every week of the Value and common Estimate of all kinds of great Fruits, such as Corn, Wine, Hay, and others of the like kind, &c. Art. 102 and 103. And by the Extract taken out of the Registers of the said Courts, and no otherwise, shall be proved for the future the Value and Estimate of the said Fruits, as well in Execution of Decrees or Sentences, as in other matters, in which Appraisements are necessary. Art. 104. If there is a Sentence, or Decree for Restitution of Fruits, those of the last year shall be delivered in kind: And as to those of the preceding years, in liquidating them regard shall be had to the four Seasons, and the common price of every year, unless it shall have been otherwise directed by the Judge, or agreed on between the Parties. Ordinance of 1667 Tit. 30. Art. 1. See the other Articles of the said thirtieth Title.

XVI.

Altho' the Restitution of Fruits be commonly understood only of the Revenues of Immoveable Things, yet seeing there are Moveable Things which produce Revenues, we may apply to them the same Rules, according as they are applicable thereto: as for Example, to the Revenues which arise from Animals, and to the profit which may be made of Things which are let to Hire by those who make a trade of it, such as an Upholsterer who lets out a Suit of Hangings¹⁶.

* *Si vestimenta, aut scyphus petita sint, in fructu hæc numeranda esse, quod locata ea re, mercedis nomine capi potuerit.* l. 19. ff. de usur.

XVII.

Whatever number of years the enjoyment, for which Restitution is to be made, may have lasted, altho' the Possessor may have known that what he possessed was not his own, yet there is due only the bare Estimate of that enjoyment, without any interest for the Value of the Fruits of each year. But if a legal Demand has been made of the said Interest, the same will be due from the time of the Demand. For the Value of the said Fruits, which are a real Substance, is in lieu of a Capital¹⁷.

* *Neque eorum fructuum qui post litem contestatam, officio judicis, restituendi sunt, usuris præstari oportere: neque eorum qui prius percepti, quasi male fidei possessori condicuntur.* l. 15. ff. de usur. Fructuum post hæreditatem petitam perceptorum usura non præstatur. Diversa ratio est eorum qui ante actionem hæreditatis illatam percepti, hæreditatem auxerunt. l. 51. §. 1. ff. de hæred. petis. Paulus respondit, si in omnem causam, conductionis etiam fidejussor se obligavit, eum quoque, exemplo coloni, tardius illatarum per moram coloni pensionum præstare debere usuras. l. 54. ff. locat.

TITLE VI.
Of PROOFS and PRESUMPTIONS, and of
an OATH.

What is a
Proof.

WE call that a Proof which convinces the Mind of a Truth: and as there are Truths of diverse sorts, so likewise there are different kinds of Proofs. There are Truths which are independent on the deed of Man, and on all sorts of Events, which are immutable and always the same. Thus, without meddling with the Divine Truths of Religion, which are above all certainty, because of the Authority of God who reveals them to us, and who makes us to feel and to love them, and also by reason of other different Proofs of an infinite force, which it is not our business to treat of here. We have in Sciences the knowledge of a great number of Truths which are certain and unchangeable; but there are others which are called Truths of Fact, that is, of what has been done, of what has happened; as, for Example, that one has committed a Robbery or a Murder, that a Testament is forged, that in a Fire, a thing which was saved out of it was deposited in the hands of a neighbour, who denies the Deposit, that a Possessor of a House or Lands has enjoyed it for the space of ten, twenty, or thirty years, and an infinite number of other Facts of several natures.

What Truth
is.

There is this which is common to all the different sorts of Truths, that *Truth is nothing else but that which is in reality*: and to know a Truth, is barely to know if a Thing is, or is not, if it is such as is said, or if it is different. But the Proofs which lead us to the knowledge of the Truth in matters of Fact, are very different from those which establish the Truths that are taught in Sciences. For in Sciences, all the Truths which may be known in them have their nature fixed and immovable, and are always the same necessarily, without any dependance on the deed of Man, or on any sort of change. Thus, the Proofs of these Truths are drawn from their own nature; and they are known either by their self-evidence, if they are first

Different
sorts of
Proofs.

Principles, and Truths which are in themselves: or if they depend on other Truths, their Proofs consist in the connexion that links them together, which makes them to be known one by the other, according as they are necessary consequences one of another. But in Facts which might happen, or not happen, as depending on Causes whereof the Effects are uncertain, it is not by Principles which are certain and unchangeable, on which depended that which has happened, that we can know it: but we must have recourse to Proofs of another kind; and it is by other ways that we must discover this sort of Truths. Thus, for Example, if a man has been killed on the high way, being alone in the night time; the truth of the cause of this Murder, and the question to know who it is that has killed this man, will not depend on Principles that are certain, and of which the Evidence will lead us to the precise knowledge of the Author of this Crime, with a certainty like to that which Demonstrations in Sciences do produce. And it may likewise so fall out that it may be impossible to know it. But if it is discovered, it will be only by Proofs that may be drawn from circumstances which shall happen to be linked together with this Crime, and which will depend on Events that have happened by accident, such as the casual rencounter of some Witnesses, and such signs and tokens as there may happen to be, conjectures, and presumptions. And even altho' there should chance to be two Witnesses, beyond all manner of Exception, who should say that they had seen the Murderer, whom they knew, actually stabbing the said man, yet the certainty of such a Proof is of another kind than that of the Truth of a Proposition clearly proved in a Science, and has not the character of a Demonstration; because it is not impossible that two Witnesses may be deceived, or even that they may have a mind to deceive. But the force of this Proof consists in this, that it is presumed from their good sense, that they are not deceived themselves, and from their probity, that they do not intend to deceive others. So that this Proof seems in effect to be grounded only on Presumptions. However, these Presumptions of Truth, which arise from the testimony of two Witnesses are such, that the Laws both of God and Man have appointed them to be held as a sure Proof, when the Depositions agree with

ne another, and when the Witnesses are persons against whom there is no Exception. And altho' it be true that this kind of Proof has not the character of the certainty of a Demonstration, because it is of quite another kind; yet nevertheless it has another sort of certainty which persuades fully, when the fidelity of the Witnesses is well known; because this Proof hath its foundation in the certainty of a Truth which is a sure Principle, and which is drawn from the very Nature of Man, and from the Causes which govern his Actions. According to this Principle, it is certain that two persons who have Reason, and who are not byassed by some impression of Hatred, Revenge, Interest, or some other Passion, can never agree to bear false witness together in a Court of Justice, and that upon Oath. And we may conclude certainly from the natural Principles of our Actions, that Witnesses who swear that they will say nothing but the Truth, do really tell it, if nothing changes in them the Natural Order. And altho' it be true, that the Judges cannot always be sure that the Witnesses are sincere, and that they give their Evidence without interest, and without passion, and that there are often even false Witnesses; yet it would be unjust, as well as absurd, to give credit to no Witness at all, because we cannot be certain of all Witnesses that they do not lie. And it is a sufficient justification of the Rule, which declares the testimony of two Witnesses to be a sufficient Proof, that it be true in general, that it is the Natural Order for Men to tell the truth which they know, when they cannot do otherwise without involving themselves in the guilt of Perjury: and in particular, if in the Evidence that is given there appear no reason which may make us doubt of the fidelity of those who are produced as Witnesses; for by that one judges, that it is the Truth which they have declared.

This same Principle of the consequences that may be drawn from the Natural Causes which govern our Actions, furnishes us likewise with other different proofs of Facts, by the connexion that is between the said Causes and their Effects. Thus *Solomon* founded his Judgment between the two Women, upon the discovery which he made of the true Mother, by the commotion and trouble which he foresaw the Maternal Affection would produce in her,

at the sight of the danger to which he feigned to expose the Child.

It may be remarked on the nature of the Proofs of Facts in this Example, and that of Proofs by two Witnesses, and we shall find it the same likewise in all the other kinds of Proofs of Facts, that although they be different from those which we may have of a Truth in a Science, yet there is still this common to all kinds of Proofs in general, that their force consists in the certain consequence which we may draw from some Truth that is known, to conclude from thence the Truth of which we search the proof; whether it be that we draw a consequence from a Cause to its Effect, or from an Effect to its Cause, or from the connexion of one Thing with another.

We have made here these Remarks, to shew by these Principles of Proofs, that in all the Questions where the matter is to know if a Fact is proved, or if it is not, it is necessary to judge thereof by the certainty of the Foundation on which the Proof is built, and by the connexion which the Fact that is to be proved may have with that Foundation. And as it happens very often, either that the Foundation is not very sure, or that the Fact in question is not necessarily linked with it, we find then, instead of Proofs, only Conjectures, which are not sufficient to establish a certain proof of the Truth. Thus, for Example, if some days after a quarrel happening between two persons, one of them is found killed, and that there is against the other no manner of proof besides the bare circumstance of that quarrel, we cannot from thence conclude with certainty, that it was that person who committed the murder. For besides that Enmities and Quarrels are but seldom carried to such extremities, this Murder may have had many other causes. So that as there is no necessary connexion between this death and that quarrel, this circumstance alone will not be sufficient to ground a Sentence of Condemnation upon, and it can only form a Conjecture.

It may be gathered from these Remarks, that there are two sorts of Presumptions: Some of which are drawn by a necessary consequence from a Principle that is certain; and when these sorts of Presumptions are so strong, that one may gather from them the certainty of the Fact that is to be proved, without leaving any room for doubt, we give

give them the name of Proofs, because they have the same effect, and do establish the truth of the Fact which was in dispute. The other Presumptions are all those which form only Conjectures, without certainty; whether it be that they are drawn only from an uncertain Foundation, or that the consequence which is drawn from a certain Truth is not very sure.

It is because of the difference between these two sorts of Presumptions, that the Laws have appointed some of them to have the force of Proofs, and have not left the Judges at liberty to consider them only as bare Conjectures, because in effect these sorts of Presumptions are such, that one sees in them a necessary connexion between the truth of the Fact that is to be proved, and the certainty of the Facts from whence it follows. Thus, for instance, in *France* it is enacted, by an Edict of *Henry II.* that if a Woman has concealed her being with Child, and is brought to bed privately, without any witness, and it be found that the Child never was christened, nor had any publick Burying, she shall be reputed to have murdered her Child, and be punished with death*. And there are other sorts of Presumptions which the Law directs to be held as certain Proofs; so that we ought to take good heed not to distinguish the sense of the word *Presumptions* from that of *Proofs*, in such a manner as never to take Presumptions to be Proofs, seeing there are such Presumptions as are sufficient to establish the Proof of a Fact. But whereas the word *Proof* is taken for a full conviction, the word *Presumption* is extended to all the consequences which may be drawn from the several arguments that may serve to prove a Fact, whether it be that those consequences amount to the Evidence which may make a full Proof, or that they leave some doubt.

* See the Edict of *Henry II.* of the year 1556, touching Women who have concealed their big bellies, V. l. 34. ad leg. Jul. de adult.

We have thought it necessary to make here these Reflexions upon the nature of Proofs and Presumptions, in order to establish the Principles of the Rules concerning this matter, and to discover the natural causes of that which may establish the certainty of the truth of matters of Fact. For it is by these Principles that we are enabled to judge of the strength or weakness of the ar-

guments which the parties bring to prove a Fact. There remains only that we should distinguish the different manners in which Facts are proved, and they may be reduced to five Kinds; viz. Writing, Witnesses, Presumptions, Confession of the Parties, and an Oath. These five Kinds shall be the subject matter of so many Sections. And because there are Rules common to all the sorts of Proofs, we shall explain in the first Section those Rules which are common to them all.

We shall not set down among these Rules, such as regard only the Proceedings observed in Courts of Justice in the matter of Proofs; such as the formalities necessary to be observed for the proof of private Writings; in examining and interrogating Witnesses, in swearing them, taking down in writing their Depositions, and receiving the Objections that may be made against the Witnesses, by those against whom they are produced: the form of interrogating the Parties upon Facts, of taking the Oath of the Party, when the Adversary is willing to have the matter in dispute decided by it; and the other different Proceedings, whether it be in Civil or Criminal Matters. For all these things relate to the Order of Judicial Proceedings, and therefore do not belong to this place, and are regulated by the Ordinances, for the most part otherwise than they were by the *Roman Law*. And here we shall explain only the essential Rules which relate to the Nature and Use of the several sorts of Proofs and Presumptions.

SECT. I.

Of Proofs in general.

THE CONTENTS.

1. Definition of Proofs.
2. Proofs are of two sorts.
3. Facts which have no need of proof.
4. He who advances a Fact, ought to prove it.
5. The Defendant ought to prove the facts on which he grounds his defence.
6. Each party may on his part prove the contrary of the facts alledged by the adverse party.
7. The parties have mutual liberty to alledge facts, and to prove them.
8. Provided the facts have relation to the affair in hand.

9. A thing adjudged holds the place of Truth.
10. The effect of the Proofs depends on the prudence of the Judge.
11. In proofs it is necessary to examine,
1st. If they are according to form.
12. 2^{dly}. If they are concluding.

I.

1. Definition of Proofs.

BY Judicial Proofs, is meant the ways which the Law has prescribed for discovering, and for establishing with certainty the truth of a matter of Fact that is contested^a.

^a Ut quod actum est facilius probari possit. l. 4. ff. de fid. instr. Ad fidem rei gestæ faciendam. l. 11. ff. de testib.

II.

2. Proofs are of two sorts.

There are two sorts of Proofs; those which the Law appoints to be held as certain, and those whereof the effect is left to the discretion of the Judge. Thus the Law will have the uniform Depositions of Witnesses that are unexceptionable, and who are in the number required by Law, to be received as a certain proof of a Crime, or other Fact. Thus the Law establishes it for a sure proof of an Agreement, if the Contract is signed by the parties, or if they have not been able, or could not write, if it is signed either by a Notary and two Witnesses, or by two Notaries without any Witness, according to the different Usages of the places. But when there is nothing else but presumptions, tokens, conjectures, imperfect evidence, or other sorts of Proofs which the Law has not directed to be held for certain, it leaves it to the discretion of the Judge, to discern what may be received as Proofs, and what ought not to have that effect^b.

^b See the fifth Article of the fourth Section.

III.

3. Facts which have no need of proof.

The use of Proofs does not concern Facts that are naturally certain, and whereof the Truth is always presumed, if the contrary is not proved. But it respects only Facts which are uncertain, and of which the truth is not presumed unless it be proved. Thus, for Example, he who demands a Succession, or a Legacy, by virtue of a Testament, has no occasion to prove that the Testator was in his right Senses when he made the Testament, in order to establish from thence the validity of the Testament. For it is naturally presumed, that every one has the use of his Reason. But the Heir

of blood, or next of kin, who in order to annul the said Testament, alleges the insanity of the Testator, ought to prove that Fact. Thus he who demands to be relieved from an Obligation because of his Minority, ought to prove his Age^c. Thus he who pretends to be Proprietor of a House or Lands which are in the possession of another person, ought to make proof of it^d.

^c Cum te minorem viginti quinque annis esse proponas; adire præsidem provincie debes, & de ea ætate probare. l. 9. C. de probat.

^d Possessiones, quas ad te pertinere dicis, more judiciorum persequere. Non enim possessori incumbit necessitas probandi eas ad se pertinere, cum te in probatione cessante, dominium apud eum remaneat. l. 2. C. de probat.

See the seventh Article of the fourth Section.

IV.

It follows from the preceding Rule, that in all the cases of a Fact that is contested, if it is such that it be necessary to make proof of it, it lies always on the person who advances it, to prove it. Thus all those who make any demands that are founded upon some matter of fact, ought to prove the truth of the fact, if it is contested. Thus, he who demands a Legacy bequeathed by a Codicil, ought to prove the Codicil to be true. This is the reason why it is commonly said, that it is incumbent on the Plaintiff to prove his fact^e.

4. He who advances a Fact, ought to prove it.

^e Semper necessitas probandi incumbit illi qui agit. l. 21. ff. de probat.

Ei incumbit probatio qui dicit, non qui negat. l. 2. eod.

Actore non probante, qui convenitur, etsi nihil ipse præstat, obtinebit. l. 4. m. f. C. de edendo.

See the seventh Article of the fourth Section.

V.

As the Plaintiffs are obliged to prove the facts on which they ground their demands, so likewise if the Defendants on their part alledge facts which they make use of as a foundation of their defences, they ought to prove them. Thus, a Debtor who confessing the debt, alleges for his defence that he has paid it, ought to make proof of the payment. And altho' he be Defendant in the Suit, yet he is considered in regard of this fact as Plaintiff^f.

5. The Defendant ought to prove the facts on which he grounds his defence.

^f In exceptionibus dicendum est, reum partibus actoris fungi oportere. Ipsumque exceptionem, velut intentionem implere: ut puta si pacti conventi exceptione utatur, docere debet pactum conventum factum esse. l. 19. ff. de probat.

Nam reus in exceptione actor est. l. 1. ff. de except. præf. & præjud. Ut creditor qui pecuniam petit numeratam, implere cogitur, ita rursum debitor qui solutam affirmat, ejus rei probationem præstare debet. l. 1. C. de probat.

VI. Altho'

VI.

6. Each party may on his part prove the contrary of the facts alledged by the adverse party. Altho' the person against whom one alledges a fact which it is necessary to prove, be not obliged on his part to prove the contrary^a; yet he may nevertheless, if he pleases, the better to establish his Right, prove the truth of the opposite fact^b.

^a Frustra veremini ne ab eo qui lite pulsatur, probatio exigatur. l. 8. C. de probat.

^b Si quis fiducia ingenuitatis suæ ultro in se suscipiat probationes non ab re esse opinor, morem ei geri probandi se ingenuum. l. 14. ff. de probat.

VII.

7. The Parties have mutual liberty to alledge facts, and to prove them. It is equally free both for the Plaintiff and Defendant, to alledge the facts which may serve as a foundation to build their Right upon. And each of them is admitted, both to prove the facts which he himself alledges, and also to prove the contrary of the facts alledged by his adversaryⁱ.

ⁱ This is a consequence of the preceding Articles. See the following Article.

VIII.

8. Provided the facts have relation to the affair in hand. The liberty of alledging and proving of facts, does not extend to all sorts of facts indifferently; but the Judge ought to receive the proof only of those that are called pertinent, or relevant; that is, from which one may draw the consequences which may serve to establish the Right of the person who alledges the said facts: and he ought on the contrary to reject those facts of which the proof, if they were true, would be useless. Thus, for instance, he who should pretend to evict a House or Land from the person who had purchased it, believing himself to be Proprietor thereof, because he had lent the Money for the purchase, would demand to no purpose to be admitted to prove this fact; and this proof would be of no manner of use to his pretention, seeing the property of the House or Land does not belong to him who advanced the Money to the purchaser¹.

¹ Jure competenti prædiorum, quæ in questionem veniunt, dominium ad te ostendere pertinere. Nam res vindicantem ab emptore, suos numeratos nummos asseverantem erga probationem laborare non convenit: siquidem hujusmodi licet probetur factum, tamen intentioni nullum præbet adminiculum. l. 21. C. de probat. See the fourth Article of the fifth Section.

IX.

9. A thing adjudged holds the place of Truth. Things that are adjudged hold the place of Truth with regard to those between whom they are adjudged, if they have not appealed, or if there lies no

Appeal from the Sentence. Thus, for Example, if in the case of two Brothers claiming each of them their share in their Father's Inheritance, one of them has been by Sentence declared to be a Professed Monk, this fact will be held for true, and well proved: and he will be incapable of having a share in the Inheritance^m. But the facts which have been formerly adjudged between other persons than those who contest them at present, are undecided with respect to these, and must be proved; for they might have reasons to offer, which had not been urged by the othersⁿ.

^m Res judicata pro veritate accipitur. l. 207. ff. de reg. jur.

ⁿ Sæpe constitutum est res inter alios judicatas, aliis non præjudicare. l. 63. ff. de re jud. tot. tit. C. quib. res jud. non noc. Et tit. C. inter al. act. vel jud. al. n. noc.

X.

In all the kinds of Proofs, whether by Witnesses, or by Writing, or by other ways, the question whether a Fact is proved, or is not, depends always on the prudence of the Judge, who ought to discern whether the Depositions of the Witnesses, or the other sorts of Proofs, be sufficient, or not^o. And this implies two sorts of discussion, which shall be explained in the two following Articles.

^o Quæ argumenta ad quem modum probandæ cuique rei sufficiant, nullo certo modo satis definiri potest. l. 3. §. 2. ff. de testib. Hoc ergo solum tibi rescribere possum summam, non utique ad unam probationis speciem, cognitionem statim alligari debere, sed ex sententia animi tui te æstimare oportere, quid aut credas, aut parum probatum tibi opinaris. d. §. in fine.

XI.

The first enquiry that a Judge ought to make, in order to know what ought to be the effect of a Proof, and what regard ought to be had to it, is concerning the Formalities thereof; that is, if the Proof be according to the Order prescribed by Law. Thus in the cases where Proofs by Witnesses may be received, it is necessary to enquire if they are in the number which the Law demands, if they have given their testimony by word of mouth, if there be no cause which may render their Evidence suspected, if they have been summoned, if they have been sworn; and, in a word, if their Depositions have been accompanied with all the Formalities which the Law requires^p. Thus when it is by a Writing that one pretends to prove a Fact, it is necessary to examine if it be an Original, or a Copy:

Copy: if it is an Act made in presence of a Publick Notary, and of which the date is certain; or if it is only a private Writing, signed only by the Parties, and to which they may have put what date they pleased: and if the Act has the Formalities required to make it Authentick, and if it be such as ought to be received for a Proof^q.

^p Si testes omnes ejusdem honestatis, & existimationis sint. l. 21. §. 3. ff. de testib. v. l. 3. cod.

Divus Hadrianus Junio Rufino Proconsuli Macedoniæ rescripsit, testibus se, non testimoniis crediturum. l. 3. §. 3. ff. de testib. See the third Section.

^q Non ex indice & exemplo alicujus scripturæ, sed ex authentico. l. 2. ff. de fide instr. See the second Section.

XII.

^{2^{dy}} If they are concluding.

The second examination of the Proofs, consists in discerning that which results from them for establishing the truth of the Facts which were to be proved, whether it be by Witnesses, or by Writing, or otherwise. Thus, as for the Depositions of Witnesses, the Judge examines if the Facts to which they depose are the same which ought to have been proved, or if they are other Facts from which one may be able to draw certain consequences of the truth of the Facts in dispute: If the Depositions agree one with the other, or in case they differ, whether the difference can be reconciled so as to make a Proof, or whether it leaves the thing uncertain: If the multitude of Witnesses leaves no manner of doubt: If among several Witnesses who depose differently, the probity and authority of some of them gives more weight to their testimony: If there is no variation in a Deposition: If the facts are notoriously evident, and confirmed by publick fame, in the cases where these circumstances may be considered: If some of the Witnesses be suspected of partiality, by reason of favour or hatred to one of the parties. Thus in Proofs by Writing, and in all the other kinds of Proofs, it depends on the prudence of the Judge to discern that which may suffice for establishing the truth of a Fact, and that which leaves it doubtful: to consider the relation and connexion which the Facts resulting from the Proofs may have with those which are to be proved: to examine if the Proofs are concluding, or if they are only conjectures, signs, and presumptions, and what regard ought to be had to them: and in a word, to judge of the effect of the Proofs by all the different views which one may have

VOL. I.

from the knowledge of the Rules, and from the Reflections on the facts and circumstances^r.

^r Quæ argumenta ad quem modum probandæ cuique rei sufficient, nullo certo modo satis definitur potest. Sicut non semper, ita sæpe, sine publicis monumentis cujusque rei veritas deprehenditur, aliis numerus testium, aliis dignitas & autoritas, aliis veluti consentiens fama confirmat rei, de qua quaeritur, fidem. Hoc ergo solum tibi rescribere possum summam, non utique ad unam probationis speciem, cognitionem statim alligari debere, sed ex sententia animi tui te æstimare oportere, quid aut credas, aut parum probatum tibi opinaris. l. 3. §. 2. ff. de testib.

In testimoniis dignitas, fides, mores, gravitas examinanda est, & ideo testes qui adversus fidem suam testationis vacillant, audiendi non sunt. l. 2. ff. de testib. Si testes omnes ejusdem honestatis & existimationis sint, negotii qualitas, ac judicis motus cum his concurrat, sequenda sunt omnia testimonia. Si verò ex his quidam eorum aliud dixerint, licet impari numero, credendum est. Sed quod naturæ negotii convenit, & quod inimicitiae, aut gratiæ suspicione caret. Confirmabitque iudex motum animi sui, ex argumentis & testimoniis, & quæ rei aptiora, & vero proximiora esse comperit. Non enim ad multitudinem respici oportet, sed ad sinceram testimoniorum fidem, & testimonia quibus potius lux veritatis afficit. l. 21. §. 3. ff. de testib.

Indicia certa, quæ jure non respuuntur, non minorem probationis, quam instrumenta, continent fidem, l. 19. C. de rei vindic.

SECT. II.

Of Proofs by Writing.

THE force of Proofs by Writing consists in this, that men have agreed to preserve by Writing the remembrance of things that have been transacted, and to perpetuate the memory of them to posterity, whether it be that they may serve as Rules to the parties themselves, or as a perpetual proof of what is written. Thus Covenants are put down in writing, in order to preserve the memory of what the contracting parties have bound themselves to, and to make to themselves thereby a fixed and unchangeable Law, as to what has been agreed on. Thus Testaments are written, that a remembrance may be kept of what has been ordered by the Testator, who had a right to dispose of his Goods, and that it may serve as a Rule to his Executor, and to the persons to whom he has left Legacies. Thus it is thought fit to write Sentences and Decrees of Courts, Edicts, Ordinances, and every thing which is to serve as a Title, or a Law. Thus it is customary to write down in publick Registers, Marriages, Christenings,

and other Acts which ought to be recorded; and other the like Registers are kept as a publick and perpetual Repository of the truth of the Acts which are there recorded.

The written Contract therefore is a proof of the Engagements of those who have contracted, and the written Testament is a proof of the will of him who has made it. And these Proofs are in the place of Truths to the persons whom they concern. Thus, a written Contract serves as a proof against the Contractors, against their Heirs, and against all those who represent them, and who succeed to their Engagements. Thus, a Testament proves the truth of the dispositions made by the Testator, and obliges the Executors and Legatees to execute them.

It is easy to comprehend how necessary the use of Writing has been, for preserving the memory of Agreements, of Testaments, and of other Acts of all kinds; and that there can be no better proof of them, seeing the Writing preserves without change or alteration, whatever is set down therein, and expresses the intention of the persons by their own proper testimony and Evidence. But seeing all persons cannot write, it has been thought fit, for the conveniency of those who cannot write, to establish publick Officers, who are called Notaries Publick, and whose Function is such, that the Acts signed either by two Notaries, without any witness, or by one Notary and Witnesses, according to the different usages of places, make a legal proof of the truth of that which is written between the persons who cannot either write or read. And as to persons who can write, their Sign Manual, without the presence of a Notary, makes likewise a proof of the truth of that which is written: but with this difference between Acts written without the presence of Notaries, which are called private Writings, and those which are signed by Notaries; that these are received as a proof in Courts of Justice, and prove two facts. One is, that the Act has been sped between the persons who are named in it, at the time, and in the place there specified: And the other is, that the intentions of the Parties concerned are there explained. And the authority of this Proof is founded on the publick Function of Notaries, who are established for this very purpose, to render the Acts which they sign, authentick. But private Writings do not even prove by

whom they are written, and it is necessary to verify them; that is, to prove by whom they are signed.

The great facility there is of writing Covenants, and the infinite number of inconveniences that attend the admission of the proof of unwritten Covenants, in the manner that it was received by the *Roman Law*, have been the motives which induced the Kings of *France* to make the Ordinances, whereby it is prohibited to receive other proofs than writing for Covenants, where the Sum exceeds One Hundred Livres, as has been remarked in another place^a. And it is for the same reason that the Ordinances have directed that there should be kept publick Registers of Christenings, Marriages, Deaths and Burials, Ordinations, Admissions into any Religious Order, to the end that people may easily come at the certain proof of these sorts of Facts^b. Which does not hinder but that in case the said Registers should happen to be lost or destroyed, one may be allowed to make use of the other kinds of proofs^c.

^a See the Remark on the twelfth Article of the first Section of Covenants in general. It is necessary to observe, with respect to this Prohibition by the Ordinances of France against receiving the proof of Covenants by Witnesses, that it does not extend to things deposited in a case of necessity, nor to the other cases explained in the third and fourth Articles of the twentieth Title of the Ordinance of the month of April 1667.

^b Ordinance of 1539, Art. 50. and 51. Of Blois, Art. 181. Of Moulins, Art. 55. Declaration in July 1566, Art. 11. Ordinance of 1667, Tit. 20. Art. 7. 8. and 15.

^c Ordinance of 1667, Tit. 20. Art. 14. *Actus probatur aut ex nativitatibus scriptura, aut aliis demonstrationibus legitimis. l. 2. §. 1. ff. de excus.*

[It has been already observed, in relation to the Usage observed in England in the matter of unwritten Contracts, that by Statute 29 Car. II. cap. 3. §. 17. it is enacted, That no Contract for the Sale of any Goods, Wares and Merchandizes, for the price of Ten Pounds Sterling, or upwards, shall be allowed to be good, except the Buyer shall accept part of the Goods so sold, and actually receive the same, or give something in earnest to bind the Bargain, or in part of payment, or that some Note, or Memorandum in writing, of the said Bargain be made and signed by the parties to be charged by such a Contract, or their Agents thereunto lawfully authorized.]

THE CONTENTS.

1. What are written Proofs.
2. Use of these Proofs.
3. Written proofs are the strongest.
4. No Proofs are received against Writing.
5. Unless it be pretended that the Writing is forged.
6. Written Acts are not received as proofs, unless they be in due form.

7. The

7. The witnesses to a written Act will not be received to prove the contrary.
8. Written Acts prove only against those who are parties to them.
9. No man can by himself make a Title to himself.
10. It is by the Original Acts that we ought to examine the proofs.
11. Cases where the Copies of Deeds, and other Proofs, may serve, when the Originals cannot be had.
12. When mention is made of one Deed in another.
13. Deeds that contradict one another.
14. Counter-Letters.
15. Counter-Letters cannot prejudice third persons.

I.

1. What are written Proofs.

PROOFS by Writing are those which are drawn from some written Act, such as a Contract, a Testament, or other Writing, which contains the truth of the fact in question^a.

^a Quibus causa instrui potest. l. 1. ff. de fide instr.

II.

2. Use of these Proofs.

People put down in writings, Contracts, Testaments, and other Acts, in order to preserve the proof of what has been done, by the testimony of the persons themselves who express therein their intentions^b.

^b Fiant scripturæ, ut quod actum est, per eas facilius probari possit. l. 4. ff. de fide inst. l. 4. ff. de pignor.

Written Acts are of several sorts, and they may be reduced to four kinds: Private Writings, Acts made in the presence of Publick Notaries, those which are made in Courts of Justice, such as the naming of a Tutor, or Guardian, and those which are made before other publick persons, as Matrimony in the presence of a Clergyman, the Promotion to Holy Orders, and other Acts of which publick Registers are kept.

III.

3. Written Proofs are the strongest.

Seeing the force and validity of Proofs by Writing consists in this, that they are a testimony which the persons who are parties to the said Acts give against themselves, and a testimony which is unchangeable; there can be no better proof of what has past between them, than what they themselves have expressed of the matter^c.

^c Generaliter sancimus, ut si quid scriptis cautum fuerit pro quibuscunque pecuniis ex antecedente causa descenditibus, eamque causam specialiter promissor edixerit: non jam ei licentia sit causæ probationem stipulatorem exigere: cum suis confessionibus acquiescere debeat. l. 13. C. de non. num. pecu.

VOL. I.

IV.

This strength of written Proofs, is the reason why we do not receive contrary proofs by Witnesses^d. Thus, he who would call in question a Testament that is made according to form, pretending to prove by witnesses, either that the Testator had altered his will, or that his intention was otherwise, would not be admitted to make such a proof; nor he who should offer to prove by witnesses, that he had not received a Sum of Money for which he had given an Acquittance.

^d Contra scriptum testimonium, non scriptum testimonium non fertur. l. 1. C. de testib.

Census & monumenta publica potiora testibus esse, senatus censuit. l. 10. ff. de probat. See the thirteenth Article of this Section, and the Remarks at the end of the Preamble to this Section.

V.

We must not extend the Rule explained in the preceding Article, to the cases where the truth of an Act is called in question; as if it be pretended that it is forged, or that it has been made through the impression of fear and violence, which render it null. For the proof which is drawn from a written Act, hath for its foundation the fidelity of the testimony which the Writing gives of the truth of what it contains, and when this fidelity is called in question, the Writing loseth its force. Thus, he who pretends to prove that his hand has been counterfeited in a Writing that appears to be signed by him, ought to be received to prove this fact^e. Thus, he who pretends that an Obligation has been extorted from him by force and violence, may make proof of it^f. And it would be the same thing in all the cases where the written Act should be opposed on the head of some vice which might annul it, as on the account of some fraud, or some error which might have this effect^g. Or if it were an Act counterfeited in order to colour some fraud, such as a Disposition made to a third person, whose name is made use of for transmitting some Liberality to another person, who by Law is incapable of receiving it directly in his own name, or for acquiring to the said person a Thing whereof the Commerce was prohibited to him^h.

^e Quid sit falsum queritur & videtur id esse, si quis alienum chirographum imitetur. l. 23. ff. ad leg. Corn. de fals.

^f Si quis vi compulsus aliquid fecit, per hoc edictum restituitur. l. 3. ff. quod metus causa.

^g See the Title of the Vices of Covenants.

L. 1. 2

^h Acta

ⁿ Acta simulata velut non ipse, sed ejus uxor comparaverit, veritatis substantiam mutare non possunt. Quæstio itaque, facti per judicem, vel præsidem provincie examinabitur. *l. 2. C. plus val. quod agitur.* Nec per interpositam personam aliquid eorum sine periculo possit perpetrari. *l. 20. §. 3. C. de contr. jud. V. l. 46. ff. de contr. empte. V. l. 10. ff. de his q. ut ind. l. 1. l. 3. l. 40. ff. de jure fisci.* See the nineteenth and twentieth Articles of the first Section of the Rules of Law, the Preamble to the eighth Section of the Contract of Sale, and the first Article of the same Section.

VI.

6. *Written Acts are not received as proof, unless they be in due form.* Written Acts have not the force of Proofs, except they have all the formalities which the Law prescribes. For these formalities are necessary precautions for qualifying them to serve as Proofs, and are marks by which the Law points out to us what written Acts it receives as Proofs, and what it rejects. Thus, for Example, in the Provinces where it is necessary to have seven Witnesses to a Testament, it would be to no purpose to produce a Testament which had only six Witnesses, altho' they were persons of never so great integrity¹. For besides that it is necessary to observe the prescription of the Law, the practice of authorizing a Testament, barely in consideration of the probity of the witnesses, would be opening a door to a thousand inconveniences. Thus, for another Example, a Contract which the parties intended to execute in the presence of a Publick Notary, and Witnesses, would be without effect, if it were not signed, both by the Parties themselves, and by the Witnesses who could write their names, and by the Notary. Thus, a private Writing which is only written, but not signed by the party, would make no proof¹.

¹ Septem testibus adhibitis. §. 3. *inst. de testamentis ordin.*

¹ Non aliter vires habere sancimus (contractus quos in scriptis fieri placuit) nisi instrumenta in mundum recepta, subscriptionibusque partium confirmata, &c. si per tabellionem conscribantur, etiam ab ipso completa, &c. postremo à partibus absoluta sint. *l. 17. C. de fide instr.* See the fifteenth Article of the first Section of Covenants.

VII.

7. *The Witnesses to a written Act will not be received to prove the contrary.* When the written Acts are according to form, not only are contrary proofs not received, but even not so much as a hearing is granted to one of the Parties who should desire to have the Witnesses to an Act examined Judicially, in order to make some change in the Act, or to explain it. For besides the danger of some infidelity on the part of the Witnesses, the Act having been committed to writing, only with

design that it might remain unchangeable, its force consists in remaining always the same as it was made at first^m.

^m Contra scriptum testimonium, non scriptum testimonium non fertur. *l. 1. C. de testib.* See the fourth and fifth Articles.

VIII.

The authority of Proofs which are drawn from written Acts, hath its effect against the Persons whose consent is therein express, as being Parties thereto, and against their Successors, and those who have their Rights, or who represent them; and these Acts serve as a Rule and a Proof against the said Personsⁿ. But they can be of no prejudice to third persons, whose interest may be thereby injured^o. And if it were said, for Example, in a Testament, that a Land or Tenement devised by the Testator did belong to him, this declaration would be of no manner of prejudice to the person who should pretend to be Owner of the said Land or Tenement.

ⁿ Cum suis confessionibus acquiescere debeat. *l. 13. C. de non num. pecu.* See the third Article.

^o Non debet alii nocere quod inter alios actum est. *l. 10. ff. de jurej.* See the following Article.

IX.

No body can acquire to himself a Right, nor make himself Creditor to another, by Acts which he himself may make at his pleasure. Thus, for instance, a Judge will not pronounce Sentence, upon the bare Authority of a Journal or Day-book of any person, which mentions a Sum of Money to be owing to him by another, that the said Sum is due, if there be no other proof of it, with what exactness soever the Book may be kept, and how great soever may be the integrity of the person who wrote it^p.

^p Rationes defuncti, quæ in bonis ejus inventiuntur, ad probationem sibi debitæ quantitatis solas sufficere non posse, sæpe rescriptum est. Eiusdem juris est, &c. si in ultima voluntate defunctus, certam pecuniæ quantitatem, aut etiam res certas sibi deberi, significaverit. *l. 6. C. de probat.*

Exemplo perniciosum est ut ei scripturæ credatur, quæ unusquisque sibi adnotatione propria debitorem constituit. Unde neque fiscum, neque alium quemlibet in suis subnotationibus debiti probationem præbere posse oportet. *l. 7. C. cod. Nov. 48. c. 1. §. 1. l. 5. C. de conv. fisc. debit.*

X.

The truth of written Acts is made out by the Acts themselves; that is, by the Original Acts. And if the person against whom a Copy only is produced, demands a sight of the Original, the proof.

ginal, it cannot be refused him, whatever quality the person may be of who makes use only of a Copy⁹.

⁹ Quicumque a fisco convenitur, non ex indice & exemplo alicujus scripturæ, sed ex authentico conveniendus est. l. 2. ff. de fide instr.

The ingrossed Copies of Contracts, Testaments, and other Acts, of which the Minutes, which are the true Originals, have been deposited in the hands of Publick Notaries, are in the place of Originals, and are not called Copies; for they are signed by the Notaries themselves. But if there were any Accusation of Forgery, or if it were necessary to amend some error in the ingrossed Copy, it would be necessary in that case that the Minute it self should be produced.

XI.

11. Cases where the Copies of Deeds, and other Proofs, may serve, when the Originals cannot be had.

If the Original Deed or Instrument is lost, as if it has perished by fire, or other accident, one may in that case prove the contents of the Deed, either by Copies thereof duly collated, or by other proofs, if there be any such, which the Judge in his discretion may think fit to be received^r. Thus, for Example, mention being made of a Bond, in the Inventory of the Goods of a person deceased, the Guardian of the Heir who is under Age might make use of the said Inventory, to prove the truth of the said Bond, if it should happen to be lost thro' some accident^s. Thus, when a Creditor receives from his Debtor payment of a Rent, if he takes from him a Copy of the Acquittance which he gives him, and if the said Copy, which is called a Duplicate of the Acquittance, be signed by his Debtor, it may serve as a proof of his Title to the Rent, if the Title chances to be lost. For it is the Debtor himself who acknowledges the truth of the Creditor's Title, by this Act which he signs^t.

^r Sicut iniquum est instrumentis vi ignis consumptis debitores quantitatum debitarum retinere solutionem: ita non statim casum conquerentibus facile credendum est. Intelligere itaque debetis, non existentibus instrumentis, vel aliis argumentis, probare debere fidem precibus vestris adesse. l. 5. C. de fide instrum.

Si aliis evidentibus probationibus veritas ostendi potest. l. 7. C. eod.

Emancipatione factâ, etsi actorum tenor non exillar, si tamen aliis indubiis probationibus, vel ex personis, vel ex instrumentorum incorruptâ fide, tactam esse emancipationem probari possit, actorum interitu veritas convelli non solet. l. 11. C. eod.

Chirographis debitorum incendio exustis, cum ex inventario tutores convenire eos possent ad solvendam pecuniam, &c. l. 57. ff. de adm. & per tut.

^t Si voluerit is qui apocham conscripsit, vel exemplar cum subscriptione ejus qui apocham suscepit ab eo accipere, vel antapocham suscipere, omnis ei licentia hoc facere concedatur, necessitate imponenda apochæ susceptori antapocham reddere. l. 19. C. de fide instr.

XII.

It is not ground enough for demanding a Debt, or claiming any other Right, that the Title thereof be set forth in some other Deed which makes mention of it. For this bare mention of it makes no proof, if the Title it self does not appear; unless the person against whom one would make use of such a declaration, had been a party to the Deed which contains the said declaration; or that because of other considerations it should appear to be equitable, and conformable to the intention of the Law, that such a declaration should be received as a proof; as in the case of the preceding Article^u.

^{12.} When mention is made of one Deed in another.

^u Et hoc insuper jubemus, ut si quis in aliquo documento alterius faciat mentionem documenti, nullam ex hac memoria fieri exactionem: nisi aliud documentum, cujus memoria in secundo facta est proferatur: aut alia secundum leges probatio exhibeatur, quia & quantitas, cujus memoria facta est, pro veritate debetur. Hoc enim etiam in veteribus legibus invenitur. Nov. 119. c. 3. v. l. 37. §. 5. ff. de legat. 3. l. ult. ff. de probat.

XIII.

If one and the same person makes use of two written Deeds, or Titles, whereof the one contradicts the other, they destroy one another mutually, by the opposite consequences which will be drawn equally from the one and the other^x.

^{13.} Deeds that contradict one another.

^x Scripturæ diversæ fidem sibi invicem derogantes, ab una eademque parte prolatae, nihil firmitatis habere poterunt. l. 14. C. de fide instr. See the following Article.

XIV.

We must not comprehend under the Rule explained in the preceding Article, the Acts of which there are Counter-Letters that are contrary thereto, or which make some change therein. For the Counter-Letters are Acts which those who treat together separate from their Contracts, when they have no mind to comprehend in them what they reserve to explain apart in these Counter-Letters. So that the contrariety between a Contract and a Counter-Letter does not destroy the former, but only restrains it, and makes therein such other changes and alterations, as the parties had a mind to make. Thus, for Example, if in a Contract of Sale, the Seller obliges himself to Warranty against all manner of Evictions, and the Buyer declares in a Counter-Letter that he consents that the Seller shall be bound only

^{14.} Counter-Letters.

only to warrant against his own proper act and deed, the contrariety of these two Covenants will not have the effect to annul either the one or the other. For one sees that the intention of the Parties is, that the Contract should subsist with the condition regulated by the Counter-Letter. Thus, he who obliging himself for a Sum of Money, takes a declaration from the Creditor whereby he consents that the Obligation shall have its effect only for half the Sum, will owe no more than what shall have been agreed on by this last Writing. And altho' the Counter-Letters be of the same date with the Acts which are explained therein, and which are changed thereby, yet they are considered as a second will, which revokes the former, or derogates from it¹.

¹ Si cum viginti deberes pepigerim ne decem petam, efficeretur per exceptionem mihi opponendam, ut tantum reliqua decem exigere debeam. l. 27. §. 5. ff. de pact. See the following Article.

XV.

15. Counter-Letters cannot prejudice third persons.

The Rule explained in the foregoing Article is not to be understood indifferently of all sorts of Counter-Letters, but it is restrained to such as may have their effect among the contracting Parties, without prejudice to the interest of any other third person. And Counter-Letters, and all secret Acts which derogate from Contracts, or which make any change in them, have no manner of effect, with regard to third persons, whose interest may be prejudiced thereby². Thus, for Example, if a Father, in marrying his Son, had given him, as a Marriage-Settlement, either a Sum of Money, or an Estate in Land, or an Office, taking from him a Counter-Letter, declaring that the Gift should be valid only for a lesser Sum, or that the Son should give back out of the Land, or out of the Office, a Sum of Money, such as they had agreed upon among themselves; this Counter-Letter would have no effect with regard to the Wife, and the Children that should be born of the said Marriage, nor with regard to other third persons, who might be any ways interested therein, such as the Creditors of this Son. For this Agreement would be an infidelity contrary to Good Manners, and would destroy the fidelity and sincerity that is due not only to the Wife and her Parents, who would not have consented to the Marriage on the conditions of this Counter-Letter, but to all the persons whom this fraud may

any way concern. And it is for the Publick Interest, to restrain the bad use which private persons may make of the facility they have in their Families, to collude together in order to deceive others by such like clandestine Acts³.

² Non debet alii nocere quod inter alios actum est. l. 10. ff. de iur. Non debet alteri per alterum iniqua conditio inferri. l. 74. ff. de reg. iur.

Acta simulata, velut non ipse, sed ejus uxor comparaverit, veritatis substantiam mutare non possunt. Quæstio itaque facti per judicem vel præsidem provincie examinabitur. l. 2. C. plus val. quod ag. quam quod sim. conc.

Si quis gestum a se, alium egisse scribi fecerit, plus actum quam scriptum valet. l. 4. cod.

³ Si quidem clandestinis ac domesticis fraudibus facile quidvis pro negotii opportunitate confingi potest, vel id quod verè gestum est aboleri. l. 27. C. de donation.

Altho' these words be taken out of a Law which has no relation to Counter-Letters, yet they may be applied to them.

S E C T. III.

Of Proofs by Witnesses.

WE do not speak here of the proof which Witnesses make in Contracts, in Testaments, and in the other Acts where the Law requires the presence of some Witnesses to confirm the truth of what is there transacted; for this kind of Proof is comprehended in the Proofs by Writing, of which we have treated in the foregoing Section. And in this Section we mean to speak only of the Proof that is made by the Depositions of Witnesses who are judicially examined, that the Judge may learn from their mouths, the truth of Facts for which no written proofs can be produced, or where the proofs which may be alledged, are not sufficient. Thus, for Example, if a fair and honest Possessor of an Estate, who knows of no better right to it than his own, and yet has no Title to produce, but has possessed it during the time necessary for Prescription, is disturbed in his possession, and has no Writings to prove it, or has only wherewithal to prove his possession for part of the time which he has enjoyed it; as if he has Leases of some years, or some Acquittances for Quit-Rents which he has paid as Possessor, he may produce Witnesses to declare what they know of the said possession, and of its duration: and his adverse party may likewise on his part prove the contrary. Thus one proves by Witnesses all the other Facts which

it may be just and necessary to prove, such as Accusations in Crimes, and Facts contested in Civil Matters, except such as the Law does not allow to be proved by Witnesses, as has been remarked at the end of the Preamble to the foregoing Section.

There is this difference between the Proof by Witnesses, which is the subject matter of this Section, and the Proofs which Witnesses make in written Deeds; that in the said Deeds the Witnesses are persons which one has the liberty to chuse to be present at them, and they ought to be in the number regulated by Law, and of the quality which it prescribes; whereas in the Proofs which are to be treated of in this Section, the Witnesses are persons who happen by chance to have knowledge of the Facts which one would prove, without having been chosen and called upon to see what passes, and to remember it. And this is the reason why in Informations in Criminal Prosecutions, and in Trials concerning Civil Matters, the Judges admit the Depositions of Witnesses who would not be allowed of as proper Witnesses to Deeds. Thus, for Example, Women, who cannot be Witnesses in a Testament, or in a Contract, are admitted to give Evidence in Criminal Prosecutions, and Trials in Civil Causes.

Examination of Witnesses ad futuram rei memoriam abolished in France.

We shall put down nothing in the Articles of this Section, touching that kind of Proof by Witnesses which was called Examination of Witnesses *ad futuram rei memoriam*, which was in use under the Roman Law, and which was likewise observed in France, before the Ordinance of 1667, which abolished the use thereof^a. But this Remark is made here, only to give the Reader an Idea of that sort of Examination of Witnesses which served to preserve their Evidence to posterity, and to inform him that the same is abolished in France.

^a Ordinance of 1667. Tit. 13.

This Examination of Witnesses, in order to preserve their testimony to futurity, was used in the cases where any one foreseeing that he might have occasion for a proof by Witnesses, and fearing lest they should die, or that other changes should happen which might deprive him of his Proof, before his Law-Suit were so far advanced as that he might be admitted to make his Proof, or that the Judge could examine his Witnesses, he demanded leave of the Judge to have them examined before

the time, that their Evidence might be thereby perpetuated to futurity^b. But this precaution, which is attended with many inconveniences, has been judged useless likewise for other reasons. For those who may be in haste to make their Proofs, may take their measures accordingly; may make their Demands, and alledge their Facts, in order to have the proof of them decreed, if it be necessary, without having recourse to an Usage that is inconvenient and full of uncertainty.

^b Si deletum chirographum mihi esse dicam, in quo sub conditione mihi pecunia debita fuerit, &c. interim testibus quoque id probare possim, qui testes possunt non esse eo tempore quo conditio extiterit. l. 40. ff. ad leg. Aquil.

Finge esse testes quosdam qui dilata controversia aut mutabunt consilium, aut decedent, aut propter temporis intervallum non eandem fidem habebunt. l. 3. §. 5. ff. de Carbon. Ed.

It may not be amiss to observe here *The general* by the by, that the same Ordinance of 1667 hath also abolished in France another kind of Examination of Witnesses, which was called *Enquête par Turbes*, or a General Inquest, and which was used in Questions relating to the Interpretation of some Custom. The usage of these Inquests was founded on this, that the particular dispositions of Customs were considered as Facts^d. So that they received proof by Witnesses of the usage and interpretation of some article of a Custom. They called these Inquests, *par Turbes*, because ten Witnesses were only reckoned as one: and these Witnesses were chosen from among the Officers of the Places, and the Advocates, who were the likeliest persons to know what was the Usage and Practice as to the Dispositions of their Customs. But these Inquests were attended with an infinite number of inconveniences, as may easily be perceived; and the Superior Judges have better ways to find out the sense and meaning of Customs, and to interpret that which may require an explanation.

^c Ordinance of 1667. Title 13.

^d See the eleventh Chapter of the Treatise of Laws, Numb. 20. towards the end.

[This Usage of the Roman Law, in relation to the Examination of Witnesses in perpetuam rei memoriam, is observed in the Court of Chancery in England. And the method is, first to exhibit a Bill, and shew a Title to the Thing, and that the Witnesses to prove it are old, and not like to live long, whereby the Party is in danger to lose it; and then to pray a Commission into the Country to examine them, and a Subpcena to the Parties interested, to shew cause, if they can, to the contrary. But the Depositions are not to be made use of, or given in Evidence, against any other but the Defendants, who were warned to defend it, or those who claim under them. Praxis Almx Curix Cancellarie, p. 37.]

The CONTENTS.

1. *Witnesses, and their Evidences.*
2. *Use of Witnesses in all matters.*
3. *Who may be a Witness.*
4. *Two qualities in Witnesses.*
5. *Witnesses who are suspected.*
6. *Witnesses who are interested.*
7. *Witnesses engaged in the same interest with the Party.*
8. *Witnesses who are Relations, or Allies.*
9. *Witnesses who are Friends.*
10. *Witnesses who are Enemies.*
11. *Witnesses who are domesticks, and depend on the party.*
12. *Witnesses who waver in their depositions.*
13. *There must be two Witnesses to make a proof.*
14. *One may produce many Witnesses.*
15. *Several views by which we are to judge of proofs by Witnesses.*
16. *Witnesses against whom there lies no exception, may be mistaken.*
17. *Witnesses may be compelled to give evidence.*
18. *The Witnesses ought to be examined by the Judge.*
19. *And ought to be first sworn.*
20. *Excuses of Witnesses, which are called Effoigns.*
21. *Witnesses who are excused by reason of their Dignity.*
22. *Letters of Request for the examination of a Witness who lives out of the Jurisdiction of the Court.*
23. *The Advocate of the Party cannot be a Witness.*
24. *The expences of the Witnesses paid by the Party who summons them.*
25. *A false Witness is punished.*

I.

Witnesses, and their Evidences.

Witnesses are persons who are summoned to appear in Judgment, in order to declare what they know of the truth of the Facts contested between the Parties. And the declaration which they make of the matter, is their Evidence^a.

^a Ad fidem rei gestæ faciendam. l. 11. ff. de testib.

II.

Use of Witnesses in all matters.

The use of Evidences is infinite, according to the infinite number of events which may render the proof of a Fact necessary, whether it be in Civil Matters, or in Criminal^b.

^b Testimoniorum usus frequens, ac necessarius est. l. 1. ff. de testib. Adhiberi quoque testes possunt

non solum in criminalibus causis, sed etiam in pecuniariis litibus, sicuti res postulat. d. l. §. 1.

III.

All persons of both Sexes may be Witnesses, if there be no exception against them regulated by some Law^c. Thus, for Example, Children and Madmen cannot be admitted as Witnesses, nor persons whose Reputation has received some blemish, either by a Sentence of Condemnation in a Court of Justice, unless they be restored again to their good Name, or by the Infamy of their Profession; nor those whom other Causes may render incapable of giving Evidence^d, as shall be shewn in the sequel of this Section.

^c Mulier testimonium dicere in testamento quidem non poterit: alius autem posse testem esse mulierem, argumento est Lex Julia de adulteris quæ adulterii damnatam testem produci, vel dicere testimonium vetat. l. 20. §. 6. ff. qui test. fac. poss. l. 18. ff. de testib.

^d Hi quibus non interdictitur testimonium. l. 1. §. 1. ff. de testib. Quidam propter lubricum consilium sui, alii vero propter notam & infamiam vitæ suæ admittendi non sunt ad testimonii fidem. l. 3. §. 5. in f. ff. de testib. Quive impuberes erunt: quique iudicio publico damnatus erit: qui eorum in integrum restitutus non erit: quive in vinculis, custodiae publicæ erit: quive palam quæstum faciet, feceritve. d. §. 5. Qui iudicio publico reus erit. l. 20. eod.

IV.

The proofs which are drawn from^e two Evidences, depend chiefly on two qualities that are necessary in the Witnesses. Probity^f, which engages them to say nothing but the truth; and a steddiness in relating the circumstances of the Fact, which may shew the Witnesses to have been careful and exact in observing and retaining them^g. And it is for want of one or the other of these qualities that Evidences are suspected, and rejected. And this depends on the Rules which follow.

^e Fides, mores. l. 2. ff. de testib. Eos testes ad veritatem jurandam adhiberi oportet, qui omni gratiæ, & potentatui fidem religioni judicariæ debitam possint præponere. l. 5. C. de testib.

^f Quorum fides non vacillat. l. 1. ff. de testib.

V.

Whatever proves the want of probity^h in a Witness, is sufficient to make his Evidence to be rejected. Thus, we do not receive the evidence of a Person condemned by a Court of Justice for Calumny, or Forgery, or for having born false witness, or for writing a Defamatory Libel, or for other Crimesⁱ. For these Condemnations cast a blemish on the Honour of the person, and make him

him forfeit the reputation of Probity. And it would be the same thing, and that with much more reason, if it were proved that the Witness had received Money to give his Evidence^b.

^a *Quæsitum scio, an in publicis judiciis calumniæ damnari testimonium judicio publico perhibere possint? Sed neque lege Remmia prohibentur, & Julia lex de vi, & repetundarum, & peculatus, eos homines testimonium dicere non vetuerunt: verumtamen, quod legibus omisum est, non omittitur religione judicantium. l. 13. ff. de testib.*

Lege Julia de vi caveretur ne hac lege in reum testimonium dicere liceret, qui judicio publico damnatus erit. l. 3. §. 5. eod.

Repetundarum damnatus nec ad testamentum, nec ad testimonium adhiberi potest. l. 15. eod.

Ob crimen famosum damnatus, instabilis fit. l. 21. eod.

^b Qui ob testimonium dicendum, vel non dicendum, pecuniam accepisse judicatus, vel convictus erit. l. 3. §. 5. eod.

VI.

6. Witnesses. If the Witness has any interest in the Fact concerning which he is desired to give evidence, he will be rejected¹. For one cannot be sure that he will make a declaration contrary to his own interest.

¹ Nullus idoneus testis in re sua intelligitur. l. 10. ff. de testib. Omnibus in re propria dicendi testimonii facultatem jura submoverunt. l. 10. C. eod.

VII.

7. Witnesses engaged in the same interest with the Party. The same reason which serves for rejecting the testimony of persons interested in the Facts that are to be proved, makes the testimony likewise of the Father in the Cause of the Son to be rejected, as also that of the Son in the Cause of the Father. For the interest of the one touches the other, as his own proper interest. And altho' the Father should offer to give evidence against his Son, or the Son against his Father, they would not be admitted to do it. For this affectation and forwardness would render them suspected of having an intention either to favour, or to hurt¹.

¹ Testis idoneus pater filio, aut filius patri non est. l. 9. ff. de testib. Parentes & liberi invicem adversus se, nec volentes ad testimonium admittendi sunt. l. 6. C. de testib.

VIII.

8. Witnesses who are Relations, or Allies. As we reject the testimony of persons who are interested in the Facts which are to be proved, or who take part in the interest of those whom the said Facts concern, so neither do we receive the evidence of those who are related by Consanguinity, or by Affinity, to the persons interested in the said Facts.

VOL. I.

And if there should be any enmity between those persons and the Witnesses who are their Relations or Allies, such Witnesses ought to be rejected with greater reason. And they may on their part refuse to give their Evidence, especially in Criminal Prosecutions. We may reckon in the number of Allies, with respect to the use of this Rule, those who are only so by Spousals, the Marriage not being as yet accomplished^m. And we must understand Consanguinity and Affinity in the extent of the degrees regulated by Lawⁿ.

^m Lege Julia judiciorum publicorum caveretur, ne invito denuntiaretur ut testimonium litis dicat adversus socerum, generum, vitricum, privignum, sobrinum, sobrinam, sobrino natum, coque qui priore gradu sunt. l. 4. ff. de testib.

In legibus quibus excipitur ne gener, aut socer invitatus testimonium dicere cogeretur, generi appellatione sponsum quoque filie contineri placet: item soceri, sponsæ patrem. l. 5. eod.

ⁿ In France, by the Ordinance of 1667, Tit. 22. Art. 11. the Testimony of Relations, and Allies of the Parties, even down to the Children of second Cousins inclusively, is rejected in Civil Matters, whether it be for, or against them.

IX.

The ties made by strict Friendships, 9. Witnesses or engagements of Familiarity, may likewise render suspect the testimony of a Friend in the Cause of his Friend^o. And this depends on the prudence of the Judge, according to the quality of the tie of Friendship, and that of the facts and circumstances.

^o An amicus ei sit pro quo testimonium dat. l. 3. ff. de testib.

Amicos appellare debemus, non levi notitia conjunctos: sed, quibus fuerint jura cum patrefamilias honestis familiaritatis quæsitæ rationibus. l. 223. §. 1. ff. de verb. sign.

X.

The Enmities that are between Witnesses and the persons against whom they depose, are just causes for doubting of the fidelity of their testimony. For we ought to mistrust that their passion may lead them to make a declaration prejudicial to the interest of their Enemy. And unless their Evidence were accompanied with some other proof, it would be suspicious. So that we ought to judge by the circumstances of the quality of the persons, of the causes and consequences of the Enmity, and of what results from the other proofs, what regard ought to be had to the fact of Enmity^p.

^p An inimicus ei sit adversus quem testimonium fert. l. 3. ff. de testib.

Facile mentiuntur inimici. Causa cognita habenda fides, aut non habenda. l. 1. §. 24. C. 25. ff. de quæst. V. Nov. 90. c. 7. l. 17. C. de test.

M m m

XI. The

XI.

11. *Witnesses who are Domesticicks, and depend on the party.*

The persons who have a dependance on the party who would make use of their testimony, such as Menial Servants, being suspected to favour the interest of their Master, and to declare only what he desires, their Evidence ought to be rejected^a.

^a Idonei non videntur esse testes, quibus imperari potest ut testes fiant. l. 6. ff. de testib.

Testes eos quos accusator de domo produxerit, interrogari non placuit. l. 24. eod.

Eriam jure civili domestici testimonii fides improbat. l. 3. C. eod.

XII.

12. *Witnesses who waver in their deposition.*

It is not enough to establish an Evidence beyond all exception, that the probity of the Witness be not called in question; it is moreover necessary, that his declaration be steady and firm. For if he varies in his account, deposing circumstances and facts that are different, or even contrary; or if he waver in his deposition, and be himself in doubt of the fact which he relates; this uncertainty, and these variations rendring his Evidence uncertain, they will cause it to be rejected^c.

^c Ab his præcipuè exigendus (testimoniorum usus) quorum fides non vacillat. l. 1. ff. de testib.

Testes qui adversus fidem suam testationis vacillant, audiendi non sunt. l. 2. ff. de testib.

XIII.

13. *There must be two Witnesses to make a proof.*

In all the cases where Proof by Witnesses may be received, it is necessary that there be two of them at least; and that number may suffice, except in cases where the Law demands a greater. But one single Witness, of what quality soever he may be, makes no proof^d.

^d Ubi numerus testium non adjicitur, etiam duo sufficient. Pluralis enim elocutio duorum numero contenta est. l. 12. ff. de testib.

Simili modo sanximus, ut unius testimonium nemo Judicum, in quacunque causa facile patiat. Et nunc manifestè sancimus, ut unius omnimodò testis responsio non audiat, etiam si præclarè Curie honore fulgeat. l. 9. §. 1. C. de testib.

XIV.

14. *One may produce many Witnesses.*

Altho' two Witnesses be sufficient to prove a Fact, yet seeing this proof consists in the conformity of their Depositions, and that it often happens that the declarations of two Witnesses do not agree in all points, or that some essential circumstances are known only to one of the Witnesses, the other being ignorant of them, and that likewise it may so fall out that there may be some

just objection against one of the Witnesses, or even against them both; for these reasons a greater number of Witnesses may be examined, and even several out of one and the same House, such as the Father and Children, that the Evidence of the one may make up what is defective in the testimony of the others, and that all of them together may make up an entire proof of the truth. But the liberty of producing many Witnesses ought to be restrained by the prudence of the Judge, if the Law has set no bounds to it.

^e Quamquam quibusdam legibus amplissimus numerus testium definitus sit, tamen ex constitutionibus Principum hæc licentia ad sufficientem numerum testium coarctatur, ut judices moderentur: & cum solum numerum testium quem necessarium esse putaverint, evocari patiantur: ne ex re nata potestate ad vexandos homines superflua multitudo testium protrahatur. l. 1. §. 2. ff. de testib.

Pater & filius qui in potestate ejus est, item duo fratres qui in ejusdem patris potestate sunt, testes utrique in eodem testamento, vel eodem negotio fieri possunt. Quoniam nihil nocet ex una domo plures testes alieno negotio adhiberi. l. 17. eod.

By the Ordinances of France, it is prohibited to examine more than ten Witnesses to each Fact in Civil Matters. Ordinance of 1446. Art. 32. of 1498. Art. 13. of 1535. Chap. 7. Art. 4. Ordinance of 1667. Title 22. Art. 21.

XV.

It is necessary to add to all these Rules, ^{15. Several views by which we are to judge of proofs by Witnesses.} in relation to Proofs by Witnesses, that we ought to consider their condition, their manners, their estate, their conduct, their integrity, their reputation: If their honour has received any blemish by a Condemnation in a Court of Judicature: If they are in a condition to tell the truth without regard to the persons interested, or if it is to be feared that they are under some engagement, or have some inclination to favour one of the parties, as if they are friends, or enemies to one or other of them: If their poverty, or wants, expose them to the temptation of giving such testimony as may be agreeable to one of the Parties, according as they have any thing to fear or hope for from him; If their testimony appears to be sincere, without affectation: If the depositions are conformable to one another, and not concerted: If the number of the Witnesses, the conformity of their Depositions, common Fame, and the probability of the circumstances, confirm their Evidence: If their variations, their disagreement, their contradictions, render them suspected: If the consequence of the Facts be such as may require a more exact consideration of what may render the Witnesses suspected, as in Criminal

Prosec-

Prosecutions; or if the Facts be so slight that it is not necessary to be so exact in the Enquiry, as if the matter were only a bare Action of Slander or Defamation, in a quarrel between persons of a mean condition. Thus the right judgment that is to be made of the regard which ought to be had to the Depositions of Witnesses under all these views depends on the Rules which have been explained, and on the prudence of the Judges, to make a right application of them, according to the quality of the Facts, and the circumstances^u.

^u In testimoniis dignitas, fides, mores, gravitas examinanda est. *l. 2. ff. de testib.*

Testium fides diligenter examinanda est. Ideoque in persona eorum exploranda erunt imprimis conditio cujusque: utrum quis decurio, an plebeius sit: & an honestæ & inculpatae vitæ, an vero notatus quis, & reprehensibilis: an locuples, vel egens sit, ut lucri causâ quid faciliè admittat: vel an inimicus ei sit adversus quem testimonium fert: vel amicus ei sit, pro quo testimonium dat. Nam si careat suspitione testimonium, vel propter personam à qua fertur, quod honesta sit, vel propter causam, quod neque lucri, neque gratiæ, neque inimicitiae causa sit, admittendus est. Ideoque Divus Hadrianus Vivio Varo legato provinciae Ciliciæ rescripsit, eum qui judicat magis posse scire, quanta fides habenda sit testibus. Verba epistolæ hæc sunt. Tu magis scire potes quanta fides habenda sit testibus: qui, & cujus dignitatis & cujus æstimationis sint: & qui simpliciter visi sint dicere, utrum unum eundemque meditatam sermonem attulerint, an ad ea quæ interrogaveras, ex tempore verisimilia responderint. Ejusdem quoque principis extat rescriptum ad Valerium Verum, de excutienda fide testium, in hæc verba: Quæ argumenta, ad quem modum probandæ cuique rei sufficiant; nullo certo modo satis definiri potest. Sicut non semper, ita sæpè sine publicis monumentis cujusque rei veritas deprehenditur. Aliàs numerus testium, aliàs dignitas & auctoritas, aliàs veluti consentiens fama confirmat rei, de qua queritur fides. Hoc ergo solum tibi rescribere possum summam, non utique ad unam probationis speciem cognitionem statim alligari debere: sed ex sententia animi tui te æstimare oportere, quid aut credas, aut parum probatum tibi opinaris. *l. 3. d. l. §. 1. & 2. ff. de testib.* Si testes omnes ejusdem honestatis, & existimationis sint, negotii qualitas, ac judicis motus cum his concurrat: sequenda sunt omnia testimonia. Si verò ex his quidam (eorum) aliud dixerint, licet impari numero, credendum est. Sed quod naturæ negotii convenit, & quod inimicitiae, aut gratiæ suspitione caret: confirmabitque judex motum animi sui ex argumentis, & testimoniis, & quæ rei aptiora, & vero proximiora esse compererit. Non enim ad multitudinem respici oportet: sed ad sinceram testimoniorum fidem, & testimonia quibus potius lux veritatis affluit. *l. 21. §. 3. ff. de testib.*

XVI.

It is not ground enough to be assured of the truth of the Depositions of Witnesses, that their integrity is well known; and therefore seeing it may happen that the most intelligent and most sincere persons may have been deceived by others, or they themselves mistaken, either in the knowledge of

the persons, or in some circumstances, or even in the Facts; it is always prudent for the Judge to consider well the Depositions of all the Witnesses, even of those who are most to be credited, and to see whether they agree with the other clear and certain proofs that may be had of the truth of the Facts, and circumstances. And in order to give to the Evidence its just effect, it is necessary to gather the truth out of all that appears to be certain in all the proofs together*.

* Ad (judicantium) officium pertinet ejus quoque testimonii fidem, quod integræ frontis homo dixerit, pendere. *l. 13. in f. ff. de testib.*

XVII.

The persons who are summoned to give evidence, are obliged to come and declare what they know of the matter. For the consequence of discovering the truth of Facts necessary for the Administration of Justice, is what the Publick has an interest in. So that the Judge may compel those who refuse to come and give their evidence, whether it be in Civil Matters, or in Criminal¹⁷.

¹⁷ Non est dubitandum quin evocandi sint (testes) quos necessarios in ipsa cognitione deprehenderit qui judicat. *l. 3. in f. ff. de testib.*

Constitutio jubet non solum in criminalibus judiciis, sed etiam in pecuniariis, unumquemque cogi testimonium perhibere de his quæ novit. *l. 16. C. de testib.*

If the Witness does not appear on the Summons with which he is served, the Judge condemns him in a Fine, for which his Goods may be attached and sold, and even his Person may be imprisoned, in case he does not obey the Summons. See the eighth Article of the twenty second Title of the Ordinance of 1667.

XVIII.

It is not enough to give to the declaration of a Witness the effect which it ought to have in Justice, that the Witness himself writes, or causes another to write his Evidence, and that he gives it or sends it to the Judge; but it is necessary that he appear before the Judge, and that the Judge himself interrogate him, and put down his declaration in writing¹⁸.

¹⁸ Divus Hadrianus Junio Rufino Proconsuli Macedoniæ rescripsit, testibus se, non testimoniis crediturum. Verba epistolæ ad hanc partem pertinentia, hæc sunt. Quod crimina objecerit apud me Alexander Apro, & quia non probat, nec testes producebat, sed testimoniis uti volebat, quibus apud me locus non est: nam ipsos interrogare soleo: quem remissi ad provincie præsidem, ut is de fide testium quæreret, & nisi impleset quod intenderat, relegatur. *l. 3. §. 3. ff. de testib.*

Gabinio quoque Maximo idem princeps in hæc verba rescripsit, alia est auctoritas præsentium testimoniorum, alia testimoniorum quæ recitari solent. *l. 3. §. 4.*

16. Witnesses against whom there lies no exception, may be mistaken.

18. The Witnesses ought to be examined by the Judge.

XIX.

19. And Seeing it is to the Judge, and even to Justice it self, that the Witness gives his evidence, his declaration ought to be preceded by an Oath, that he will speak the truth; that the respect which he owes to Religion may engage him to give his testimony with all the fidelity, and all the exactness that Justice and Truth may require. And if he has no knowledge of the Facts about which he is interrogated, he must even swear, that those Facts are unknown to him^a.

^a Jurisjurandi religione testes, priusquam perhibeant testimonium, jamdudum arctari præcepimus. l. 9. C. de testib.

Cum Sacramenti præstatione. l. 16. eod.

Vel jurare se nihil compertum habere. d. l. 16.

See the ninth Article of the twenty second Title of the Ordinance of 1667.

XX.

20. Excuses of Witnesses, which are called *Excuses*. If the Witnesses have excuses which hinder them from coming to give their evidence, they may be discharged from coming. Thus those persons whom sickness, or absence, or any lawful impediment disables from appearing before the Judge, their appearance is dispensed with^b. But if their Depositions be necessary, the Judge may go himself, and examine them in person, or may give Commission for that purpose to another, according as the quality of the Fact may require, and the Laws and Usage allow of it.

^b Inviti testimonium dicere non coguntur senes, valetudinarii, vel milites, vel qui cum Magistratu Reipublice causa absunt, vel quibus venire non licet. l. 8. ff. de testib.

Leges à dicendo testimonio excusantur. l. 1. §. 1. ff. eod. See the following Article.

XXI.

21. Witnesses who are excused by reason of their Dignity. There are some persons whom their Dignity exempts from appearing before the Judge to give Evidence; but in the cases where the testimony of such persons may be necessary, the Judge must give proper directions therein, according to the different Usages of Places, or application must be made to the Prince, if the quality of the Fact, and that of the Witness may deserve it^c.

^c Exceptis tamen personis quæ legibus prohibentur ad testimonium cogi, & etiam illustribus, & his qui supra illustres sunt, nisi sacra forma interveniat. l. 16. C. de testib. Illud quoque incunctabile est, ut, si res exigat, non tantum privati, sed etiam magistratus, si in præsentia sunt, testimonium dicant. l. 21. §. 1. ff. de testib.

Item senatus censuit prætorem, testimonium dare debere in judicio adulterii causâ. d. §. 1. in fine. Ad personas egregias, eosque qui valetudine impediuntur, domum mitti oportet ad jurandum. l. 15. ff. de jurejur. See the preceding Article.

XXII.

If it happen in a Civil Cause, that a Witness has his abode without the Jurisdiction of the Judge who ought to take his Deposition, and that by reason of the too great distance, or of the indisposition of the Witness, or for other causes, he cannot be examined but on the place where he lives; the Judge who has cognizance of the Cause may, if it is necessary, request the Judge of the place where the Witness resides to examine the said Witness, and may give him a Commission for that effect. But in Criminal Prosecutions, the Witnesses can be examined only by the Judge who takes Cognizance of the Crime^d.

^d Et quoniam scimus dudum factam legem, ut si quis hic litem exercent, oporteat autem in provinciarum parte aliqua approbati, &c. Nov. 90. c. 5. l. 18. C. de fide instr. Hæc omnia in pecuniariis questionibus intelligentes: in criminalibus enim in quibus de magnis est periculum, omnibus modis apud judices præsentari testes, & quæ sunt eis cognita docere. d. Nov. c. 5. in f.

The Judge who takes Cognizance of the Cause, requests the Judge of the place where the Witness lives, to take his Deposition, and gives him a power to do it by a Commission for that end. V. Nov. 134. c. 5.

Besides the consequence that is taken notice of in the last Text, when the matter relates to the proof of a Crime, the necessity of confronting the Witness with the Criminal, is another just motive why the Witness ought to be examined by the Judge before whom the Trial is had.

XXIII.

Whoever have been employed as Advocates in a Cause, cannot be Witnesses in it. For their testimony would be either suspected, if it were in favour of the person whose Cause they had defended, or both uncivil and suspected, if it were against their Client. And it is the same thing as to Proctors and Attorneys, and other persons who should happen to be under the same engagements^e.

^e Mandatis cavetur, ut præsides attendant, ne patroni in causâ cui patrocinium præstiterunt, testimonium dicant. Quod & in executoribus negotiorum observandum est. l. ult. ff. de testib.

XXIV.

The Expences which the Witnesses are at for their Journey, and for their attendance to give their testimony, are repaid them by the Party at whose instance they have been cited; and that by vertue of an Order of the Judge, and according as he shall tax them^f.

^f Talis debet esse cautio judicantis, ut venturis (testibus) ad judicium, per accusatorem, vel ab his per

per quos fuerint postulati, sumptus competentes dari præcipiat. l. 11. C. de testib. 16. in f. eod.

XXV.

25. A false Witness is punished.

If it happens that a Witness can be convicted of having given false evidence, or of being guilty of some other misdemeanor, as if he has divulged the tenor of his Deposition to the Party accused, he may be punished for it according to the quality of the fact, and the circumstances.

* Qui falsò vel variè testimonia dixerunt, vel utrique parti prodiderunt, à iudicibus competenter puniuntur. l. 16. ff. de testib.

SECT. IV.

Of Presumptions.

The CONTENTS.

1. Definition of Presumptions.
2. Presumptions strong, or weak.
3. The foundation of Presumptions.
4. Presumptions are either concluding, or uncertain.
5. Two sorts of Presumptions.
6. Proofs, without Witnesses, and without Writing, by the force of Presumptions.
7. Facts which are held as true. Facts that must be proved.
8. It depends on the prudence of the Judge to discern the effect of Presumptions.
9. Example of a Fact which it is necessary to prove.
10. Example of a Presumption well grounded, that what has been paid was due.
11. Another Example of many Accounts between two persons.
12. Another Example, a Bond crossed or torn.
13. Example of a Presumption that proves nothing.
14. Example of a Presumption in an ancient Fact.
15. A Presumption of another nature than those which serve for Proofs.
16. Another kind of Presumption.
17. Another sort of Presumption.

I.

1. Definition of Presumptions.

PResumptions are consequences drawn from a fact that is known, to serve for the discovery of the truth of a fact that is uncertain, and which one seeks to prove. Thus, for Example, in a Civil Concern, if there is a contest between the Possessor of a Land or Tene-

ment, and another who pretends to be Proprietor thereof, it is a Presumption that the said Land or Tenement belongs to the Possessor: and he will be maintained in it, if the other does not prove his right; for it is usual and natural that no body takes possession of a Thing without having a Right to it, and that the Proprietor does not patiently suffer himself to be turned out of his possession*. Thus in a Criminal Affair, if a Man has been killed, and it is not known by whom, and if it be discovered that he had a little while before a quarrel with another person, who had threatened to kill him, one draws from this known fact of the quarrel and threatening, a Presumption that he who had thus threatened him, may have been the Author of the Murder.

* Possessiones quas ad te pertinere dicis more iudiciorum persequere. Non enim possessori incumbit necessitas probandi, eas ad se pertinere. Cum te in probatione cessante, dominium apud eum remaneat. l. 2. C. de probat. In pari causa possessor potior haberi debet. l. 128. ff. de reg. iur. Cogi possessorem, ab eo qui expetit, titulum suæ possessionis dicere, incivile est. l. 11. C. de petit. hered. l. ult. C. de rei vindic. See concerning the Presumption in favour of the Possessor, that which is said of it in the Preamble to the fourth Section of Possession. See the fourth Article of this Section, and the thirteenth Article of the first Section of Possession.

II.

Presumptions are of two kinds, some of them are so strong, that they amount to a certainty, and are held as Proofs, even in Criminal Matters^b. And others are only Conjectures which leave some doubt.

* Indicia certa, quæ jure non respuuntur, non minorem probationis, quam instrumenta continent fidem. l. 19. C. de rei vindic. Sciant cuncti accusatores eam se rem deferre in publicam notionem debere, quæ munita sit idoneis testibus, vel instructa apertissimis documentis, vel indiciis ad probationem indubitatis, & luce clarioribus expedita. l. ult. C. de probat. See at the end of the Preamble to this Title, the remark touching the Edict of Henry the Second of France, concerning Women who have concealed their being with child.

III.

The certainty, or uncertainty of Presumptions, and the effect which they may have to serve as Proofs, depends on the certainty, or uncertainty of the Facts from which the Presumptions are gathered, and on the justness of the consequences which are drawn from those Facts, to prove the Facts which are in dispute. And this depends on the connexion that may be between the known Facts, and those which are to be proved. Thus one draws consequences from Causes to their Effects,