Law, Language and the Printing Press in the Reign of Charles I: Explaining the Printing of the Common Law in English

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The common law became more accessible to non-specialists during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. As Richard Ross observes, “[a]n Englishman not privy to the manuscripts and oral traditions of the London-based legal professional would have had an easier time in 1640 than in 1550 learning about the procedure and duties of the royal courts, the boundaries of political and property rights, and the lineaments of the constitution”.¹  

Existing scholarship has rightly identified the general shift towards the printing of the law in English.² However, it has not identified an important change during Charles I’s reign,  

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before the outbreak of the Civil War: a marked increase in the availability of printed English
texts of particular types of legal materials, opening the learning and activities of the bar to
non-specialists. This article demonstrates and explains that change. The printing of a wider
range of texts in English was dependent upon a shift to the use of English by the legal
profession in their manuscripts, over which the profession then lost control. Opportunistic
printers and booksellers obtained these manuscripts and began to print them. 3

In theory there could have been two legal obstacles to the printing of the law in
English too: the patent (official monopoly) on printing common law works and the official
licensing system. The patent-holder could have insisted upon printing only works in law-

and Thomas Woolford, “The Scribal Publication of a Printed Book: Francis Bacon’s Certaine
Considerations Touching…the Church of England (1604),” The Library, 7th series 10 (2009):
119-156, https://doi.org/10.1093/library/10.2.119 both concerning suppressed printed texts)
and printed texts currently in available could be supplied in manuscript (The National
Archives, Kew (henceforth “TNA”), PRO C 108/115/8578 is an example of a scribe offering
a work usually available in print in manuscript because “in print it is not to be had”).
Manuscripts of printed legal works did continue to be produced although this has been little
studied (see, e.g., the manuscripts of Littleton’s Tenures identified in J.H. Baker and J.S.
Ringrose, Catalogue of English Legal Manuscripts in Cambridge University Library

3 One important observation about what this article cannot explain. There is no possibility on
the known evidence of explaining why particular works which circulated in English
manuscripts remained unprinted. This would include, inter alia, various readings, as well as
reports and treatises on the Star Chamber. Such non-printing may have been a conscious
choice, or might be explained by the relevant texts not reaching a potentially interested
printer or bookseller at an apposite moment.
French; licencers could have denied a licence to works in English. However, neither the patent nor licensing seems to have been of any significance on this issue. The printers entitled to print under the patent engaged in the printing of new types of work in English.\textsuperscript{4} Furthermore, there was very limited enforcement of the patent during the reign of Charles I, and unauthorised printers were involved in printing in English.\textsuperscript{5} There is no evidence of the official licensing system for printed legal works being an obstacle to the printing of legal texts in English. Only six law books are known to have been officially licensed from 1581-1640; all of them are in English.\textsuperscript{6} Some of these officially licensed works were also printed in contravention of the common law patent.\textsuperscript{7} Official regulation of legal printing, whether through the patent or licensing, therefore did not affect printing of texts in English.

In practice, there were two important obstacles to access to common law texts by non-lawyers. The first was material: many common law texts existed solely in manuscript. While

\textsuperscript{4} See below, \textit{n. 161} for an example.

\textsuperscript{5} The reasons for this are discussed in Ian Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing in the 1630s: Unlawful, Unreliable, Dishonest?” forthcoming \textit{Journal of Legal History} 39 (2018), text at nn. 88-120.

\textsuperscript{6} See Ross, “Commoning,” 418, n. 270.

\textsuperscript{7} Charles Calthrope, The relation betweene the lord of a mannor and the coppy-holder his tenant (London: William Cooke, 1635) was both licensed and printed in contravention of the patent. Both printings of Lambarde’s \textit{Archeion} in 1635 were licensed (by the same licenser) and not printed under the patent, although as the work combined legal and historical material, its status as a book of the common law might not have been clear (William Lambarde, \textit{Archion, or, A comentary upon the high courts of justice in England} (London: Daniel Frere, 1635) and William Lambarde, \textit{Archeion, or, A discourse upon the high courts of justice in England} (London: Henry Seile, 1635)).
many manuscripts did circulate, this circulation was potentially more restricted than for printed works. The second obstacle was linguistic: common law literature was often written in law-French, a language which many in England could not read. Contemporaries were aware of these barriers to legal knowledge. In the 1520s the lawyer and printer John Rastell could criticise the law as “kept so secretly”, consequently “a trap and a net to bring the people to vexation and trouble”. Several decades later, the poet Samuel Daniel still complained that the common law “liv’d immur’d within...walls”, those walls “fram’d out of barbarousnesse”, a gibe at law-French. These barriers to lay legal knowledge began to be overcome by the printing of common law material in English. Although this began in the sixteenth century, in the reign of Charles I law reports, material from the Inns of Court and a wider range of other legal texts began to be printed in English.


10 These were not the only obstacles to legal knowledge by non-lawyers. Most obviously, while printing the law in English would make legal texts accessible, such access would not guarantee understanding. Reading but misunderstanding was a concern for lawyers (see Edward Coke, *Le tierce part des reportes del Edward Coke* (London: Thomas Wight, 1602), sig. Ei; Francis Bacon, *The Maxims of the Law* in *The Works of Francis Bacon*, vol 7, ed. James Spedding, Robert Ellis and Douglas Heath (London: Longmans, 1879), 322). The extent to which legal texts printed in English were owned or read by non-lawyers is not addressed here.
Before the 1620s much of the “commoning” of English law through English language printing was of certain types of material: collections of statutes; criminal law; introductory works such as Littleton’s *Tenures*; practice manuals for attorneys and officials who may not have been lawyers (such as justices of the peace).¹¹ Both statutory collections and books on criminal law were related to Rastell’s concern that the law could be a “trap”, with references to ignorance of the law not serving as an excuse for illegality recurring through the period.¹² Some of these printed works replaced and supplemented an older tradition of oral public dissemination of the law with little evidence of intervening widespread manuscript circulation: criminal law in particular may have been disseminated in charges given at quarter sessions and the assizes.¹³ These works printed in English were not concerned with the

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¹¹ See Ross, “Commoning,” 396 n. 218 for a list of works which Ross considers as examples of making the common law available to a wider audience. The inclusion of some works on this list, such as the work known as *Bracton*, is questionable. Even common lawyers made relatively little use of that thirteenth century work (see Ian Williams, “A medieval book and early-modern law: *Bracton’s* authority and application in the common law c.1550-1640,” *Tijdschrift voor Rechtsgeschiedenis* 79 (2011): 51-53, https://doi.org/10.1163/157181911X563057).


¹³ The earliest printed guide to quarter sessions contains a model charge (see Christopher W. Brooks, *Law, Politics and Society in Early Modern England* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008), 22). William Lambarde’s *Eirenarcha*, a handbook for justices of the peace, includes articles to be delivered at the quarter sessions, covering many issues of criminal law (William Lambarde, *Eirenarcha: Or the Office of Justices of Peace* (London: Ralph Newbery and H. Bynnemann, 1581), 310-382). Lambarde made clear that one of the
intricacies of the law as debated and discussed in Westminster Hall. While increased access to religious texts might have enabled every man to be his own priest in Reformation Europe, the limited range of common law texts available to non-specialists would not have permitted every early-modern Englishman to be his own lawyer.

Seen from this perspective, there was an important qualitative change in the legal material printed during the reign of Charles I. Newly printed texts made the learning and activity of barristers, found in legal education and argued cases in the central courts, available to a wider audience. The period from the accession of Charles to the outbreak of civil war witnessed the printing of the first volume of law reports in English, Hobart’s Reports, in 1641. Material from legal education in the Inns of Court and Chancery also appeared in purposes of the articles was “to instruct those that be ignorant, least they offende unawares” (Lambarde, Eirenarcha, 311), just the instructional purpose behind the printing of the criminal law. John Davies’ charge to the Yorkshire grand jury in 1620 set out various points of basic criminal law to the laymen of the grand jury (Harvard Houghton Library Manuscript Eng 1084, fos. 219-59). It is not clear how far these early-modern sources reflect pre-print practices, but it is plausible that they do, given the early appearance of a model charge in print.

14 This wider audience was not simply of laypeople. Beginning in the 1550s, the Inns of Court sought with some success to exclude attornies from their membership (Christopher W. Brooks, ed. The Admissions Registers of Barnard’s Inn 1620-1869 (London: Selden Society, 1995), 20). The English printing of material from the Inns of Court and the central common law courts may have counter-acted this exclusivity, at least to some extent.

print. The Inns were closed societies during their learning exercises, so this was a major change. The first reading to be printed was John Dodderidge’s in New Inn, one of the Inns of Chancery. The first reading to be printed from an Inn of Court was Robert Brooke’s 1551 reading on a chapter of Magna Carta in 1641. A range of diverse scholarly material from the legal profession also moved to print, whether this was the English language draft of Finch’s Nomotechnia, Francis Bacon’s Maxims or William Lambarde’s historical and jurisprudential text known as Archeion. It is only with such a change that English law as a whole could be regarded as having been “commoned”.

Works such as Bacon’s Maxims and Finch’s Nomotechnia also purported to be guides to understanding other legal sources, so the production of these works in English raised the possibility of a degree of self-education in the intricacies of the common law by readers. This is a marked contrast to the printing of criminal law and statutes in English, where the purpose of dissemination was to ensure obedience to the law, not develop the skill to understand and

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18 As Law, or a discourse thereof in foure bookes (London: Societie of Stationers, 1627). For the drafting process, see below text at n.51.

19 Francis Bacon, The elements of the common lawes of England branched into a double tract: the one contayning a collection of some principall rules and maximes of the common law...The other the use of the common law (London: assigns of John More, 1630).

20 Lambarde, Archion and Lambarde, Archeion.
apply it, especially on points of difficulty. As Ross observes, it was accepted that subjects needed some legal knowledge, but opponents of publication in English rejected the idea of disseminating more sophisticated legal knowledge. But in printing English works enabling anyone to interpret and understand other legal sources, Caroline printers provided a form of access to just such specialist learning.

Historians have not previously identified this qualitative difference in the range of newly printed legal material, in English, in the reign of Charles I. This article is concerned with explaining the change. Why did the nature of legal works printed in English change around a century and a half after the first printed common law book? Existing scholarship has identified an ideological debate, within the legal profession and more broadly, about the publication of law to non-specialists and especially to individuals lower down the social hierarchy. This debate has been linked with humanism, although this can be questioned.

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21 This is especially visible in what Ross identifies as the “humanist” or “Rastellian” justifications for law-printing from the early-sixteenth to early-seventeenth century (Ross, “Commoning,” 329-342).

22 Ross, “Commoning,” 358-359.


24 Sobecki has argued that the early-sixteenth century vogue for printing the law in English was not inspired by humanism, but had its “roots in late-medieval ideas about vernacularity and translation” (Sebastian Sobecki, Unwritten Verities: The Making of England’s Vernacular Legal Culture, 1463-1549 (Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 2015), 10 and 140-52). There is also evidence that Christopher St German’s Doctor and Student was not motivated by humanist concerns about dissemination of law, but modelled on medieval continental confessional literature (Ian Williams, “Christopher St German: Religion,
Despite the change in what was printed after 1625, there is no evidence of a decisive ideological swing towards wider dissemination of the law before the outbreak of civil war. There was lively debate and discussion about the desirability of printing the law in English in the sixteenth century and first two decades of the seventeenth century, providing much of the source material for the work of Ross and others. The prefaces of printers and authors draw attention to the use of English and stress its desirability (or not). But English language printing of the common law from 1625 onwards passes unremarked.\textsuperscript{25} Prefaces (where they exist) do not draw attention to printing in English. There is nothing in the earlier sources to indicate a decisive victory for those supporting printing in English. The earlier debates, informed by particular ideological positions, made it clear that there was widespread support for some printing in English. It may be that those printers who printed in English from around 1625 believed they were doing something which had already been shown to be acceptable, missing the nuances in the debates about printing in English, but none of the surviving Caroline sources demonstrate this.\textsuperscript{26}

\textsuperscript{25} The only exceptions are Edward Coke’s \textit{The first part of the Institutes of the lawes of England. Or, A commentarie vpon Littleton} (London: Societie of Stationers, 1628) and Thomas Wentworth, \textit{The office and dutie of executors} (London: Andrew Crooke, Laurence Chapman, William Cooke and Richard Best, 1641), sig. ¶3\textsuperscript{v}-¶6\textsuperscript{r}. Both of these authors seem to have regarded students as an important audience for their works (see below text at nn. 145-8 and Wentworth, \textit{The office and dutie}, sig. ¶6\textsuperscript{r}).

\textsuperscript{26} In relation to an impression of acceptability, it is telling that one of the key sources for Ross’s identification of a “two-tier model of legal knowledge” is the view of William Hudson...
The absence of discussion instead suggests that the printers and booksellers involved in the printing of legal works in English were not concerned with ideology.\textsuperscript{27} This does not mean that ideology was necessarily irrelevant, but it does not seem to have been important for those printers and booksellers responsible for the works which emerged from the press during the reign of Charles I.

The argument of the article is that during the reign of Charles I the printing of material in English, and printing of a wider range of material (including more sophisticated work), was non-ideological. These changes were a consequence of two inter-related developments. First, a long-term increase in the use of English by the legal profession in its own literature and education. Second, a loss of control over common law texts which were already circulating in manuscript. The range of material printed in English was closely related to existing circulation of such material in English language manuscripts, with printers and booksellers obtaining individual works in manuscript and printing them.

It is unlikely that changes in what was printed in English were simply a consequence of printers obtaining manuscript texts in English. Printers would only have printed such works if they believed that there was adequate demand for them. In this regard, the large increase in admissions to the Inns of Court from the reign of Elizabeth until the civil war must be important.\textsuperscript{28} Texts in English may have been particularly helpful for those admitted in his work on the Star Chamber (Ross, “Commoning,” 358). That work remained in manuscript (although it circulated widely) until the eighteenth century.

\textsuperscript{27} These printers and booksellers may also have sought to avoid attracting attention by courting controversy. Several of the printers and booksellers printing law books in English did so in breach of the common law patent (see below, text at nn. 160-1).

to the Inns with no intention of becoming barristers. These members of the Inns often only studied for short periods, but perhaps had some genuine interest in the law.\textsuperscript{29} Even if they did not possess it before, former students at the Inns may have gained an interest in legal matters, something rendered more likely by the centrality of the law to English political and constitutional thinking.\textsuperscript{30} Their brief education, coupled with the ready availability of some printed introductory works in English, may have meant they never mastered law-French, or simply that after departing the Inns they preferred to read material in English.

However, this long-term increase in the legally-educated cannot in itself explain the timing of the emergence of a wider range of legal texts in English. It may be no coincidence that the printing of material which had circulated in manuscript coincides with the final rally in the number of admissions to the Inns of Court before the civil war.\textsuperscript{31} But this rally followed a short-term reduction in admissions, and only restored admissions to their longer

\textsuperscript{29} Prest, The Inns of Court, 23-4.

\textsuperscript{30} For this centrality, see Brooks, Law, Politics and Society, 51-240. An example may be the very widely read Francis Russell, fourth earl of Bedford. He entered Lincoln’s Inn in 1608, but could not have studied for long (if at all), as he was appointed an associate bencher in 1611 (John P. Ferris, “Russell, Sir Francis (1587-1641),” in The House of Commons 1604-1629, vol. 6, ed. John P. Ferris and Andrew Thrush (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010), 114-15, \url{http://www.historyofparliamentonline.org/volume/1604-1629/member/russell-sir-francis-1587-1641}). Russell owned and annotated a set of manuscript Caroline Star Chamber reports which circulated widely in an English translation from the original law-French (although his copy appears to be a unique translation): Woburn Abbey MS 238. However, as noted below, text at n. 167, political and constitutional matters were largely omitted from printing in English until the 1640s.

\textsuperscript{31} Prest, The Inns of Court, 5-7.
term trend. Demand was important, but changes in the availability to printers of manuscript texts in English appear to have been crucial.

This article has three important conclusions of wider significance. The first is that the views of the legal profession itself about the desirability of printing the law had come to be of relatively little importance. Common lawyers had lost control of much common law knowledge. Second, Interregnum legislation mandating the printing of law books in English, one of the few law reform proposals to be enacted in the period, was hardly revolutionary. Rather it followed existing trends in both principle and (crucially) in practice, amongst both printers and the legal profession. Third, and finally, the article demonstrates a broader methodological point: to identify and understand the changes following the introduction of the printing press it is insufficient to consider what was printed. It is essential that historians also engage with the continuing history of older modes of communication, both oral (as in the Inns of Court) and written (manuscripts). 32

The Use of English by the Legal Profession

32 Ross, “Commoning” does not consider how developments in legal manuscripts affected legal printing. Harvey, The Law Emprynted does mention manuscripts in various places (especially 125-41 and 247-8), principally to explain their continued use and production when the printing press was available. There is a very brief acknowledgement that some “works may have been well known in manuscript form before they were finally printed” (ibid., 248), but no more about the influence of manuscripts on print.
Common law literature was traditionally written in law-French. This was recognised as a barrier to non-lawyers acquiring legal knowledge. As Christopher St German observed of his own writing in English in 1530, “yf it had ben in Frenche: few shold have understand it but they that be lerned in the law”. Lawyers sometimes consciously erected walls of the “hideous termes” of law-French to keep legal material away from non-lawyers. While law-French could be learned, John Davies thought that this would require knowledge of both English and Latin, impliedly excluding those without at least a grammar-school education. Even parliamentarians could struggle. In the 1610 session, the House of Commons ordered the reading of records concerning impositions, “and it was ordered that whether they were in French or Latin, they should be read in English…and by that means every one of the meanest

33 Sobecki has argued that law-French should not be seen as distinct from English, but rather a vernacular “legal Franglais” (Sobecki, Unwritten Verities, 63). As a matter of linguistics this may be correct, but it is clear that law-French was seen as different to English by early-modern writers.

34 T.F.T. Plucknett and J.L. Barton, eds. St German’s Doctor and Student (London: Selden Society, 1974), 176. The quote is taken from the introduction to the Second Dialogue of Doctor and Student. The First Dialogue was in Latin and later translated (with omissions and additions) into English. On St German’s reasons for changing to English, see Williams, “Christopher St German,” 90.

35 Bacon, Maxims, 322.

36 John Davies, Le Primer Reports des Cases & Matters en Ley resolves & adivjudges en les Courts del Roy en Ireland (Dublin: John Franckton, 1615), sig. *3v.
capacity and learning should understand th’ effect of the records”. Without such translation, law-French material would be inaccessible.

When lawyers intended their printed works to be for a wider audience, they avoided law-French. A good example is Sir Edward Coke’s report of Calvin’s Case, a test case concerning the legal status of Scots in England after the accession of James VI and I. Coke printed his report “by commandement...for the publike” and did so in English. However, the remainder of that volume, containing reports of other cases about which no order for wider dissemination had been made, was in law-French. Non-lawyers may also have been


38 Edward Coke, La Sept Part Des Reports (London: Societie of Stationers, 1608), sig. A⁵. A desire for wider dissemination may also explain the one report printed in English (and Roman type) in Sir John Davies’ collection of Irish reports. This case, the final in the collection, concerned the prosecution of a priest for exercising papal authority in Ireland (The Case of Praemunire in Davies, Le Primer Reports, fo. 84), a useful case for propaganda purposes that may originally have been intended to be a distinct publication (see Paul Brand, “Sir John Davies: Law Reporter or Self-Publicist?” Irish Jurist 43 (2008): 8-9).

39 The report of Calvin’s Case is also separately paginated to the remainder of the book, perhaps suggesting that the two were not necessarily to be purchased together. Given that early-modern books were often not sold bound, it may have been possible for purchasers to acquire solely the English language text (for binding costs, see the Jacobean broadside, A generall note of the prises of binding of all sorts of bookes (undated), which includes a specific, albeit short, section for law books). Some evidence of this possibility can be found in Coke’s Fifth Reports (Edward Coke, Quinta pars relationum Edwardi Coke Equitis
deterred by law-French. The surviving library of the non-lawyer justice of the peace Thomas Hoby contains only one volume of law reports. That volume is Coke’s *Fifth Reports*, a work which contains a lengthy discussion of the legal status of the Church of England in Latin and English. On the limited surviving evidence, Hoby therefore only owned law reports which were not in law-French.\(^{40}\)

Some works concerned with legal matters had long been available in print in English by the 1620s. These ranged from guides for non-lawyers, such as justice of the peace

\[\text{aurati}/\text{The Fift Part of the Reports of Sir Edward Coke Knight} \text{ (London: Companie of Stationers, 1605)}. \text{As with the Seventh Reports}, \text{the Fifth included two distinctly paginated parts: in this case a section entitled “De Iure Regis ecclesiastico” in Latin and English parallel text, and then a selection of other reports in law-French. A copy of the Fifth Reports at the Huntington Library includes only the “De Iure Regis” section (Henry E Huntington Library, San Marino, RB 60778), two copies at Harvard Law School include only the law-French reports (Harvard Law School K Grea 400 Cokp5 605 STC 5504 c.1 and STC 5504 c.2). These copies suggest it was possible to acquire the separately paginated sections individually; the same may have been true for the Seventh Reports.}\]

\(^{40}\) Andrew Cambers, “Readers marks and religious practice: Margaret Hoby’s marginalia,” in *Tudor Books and Readers: Materiality and the Construction of Meaning*, ed. John N. King (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2010), 220. The Hoby library was at some point broken up, and there is no contemporary catalogue, so it is possible Thomas Hoby owned a wider range of law books. Given the family’s puritan religious leanings, it is possible they were particularly interested in the discussion of the Church of England and the High Commission in the Fifth Reports (for the family’s religious views, see ibid., 212-4).
manuals, to works for students. The only more technical work printed in English was William Staunford’s work on the royal prerogative. That book is exceptional and may have been intended for non-lawyers. Aside from Staunford on the prerogative, law reports remained in law-French, more treatise-like works were in law-French or manuscript.

Amongst themselves, common lawyers did not use law-French for all purposes. As Baker observes, law-French was in “steady decline after 1362”. Crucially, the evidence suggests that by around 1600 lawyers were generally thinking and arguing in English. High level common law education and writing was increasingly in English.

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41 E.g. Lambarde, Eirenarcha; Thomas Littleton, Lyttelton tenures in Englyssh (London: Robert Redman, 1540?).

42 William Staunford, An exposicion of the kinges prerogative collected out of the great abridgement of Justice Fitzherbert and other olde writers of the lawes of Englan(de) (London: Richard Tottel, 1567).

43 McGlynn suggests that Staunford instead intended the Exposicion for “the new holders of land in knight service”, laymen and those with some legal training but not practitioners. This intended audience explains the focus in the text on situations which might occur with some regularity, rather than more complex scenarios discussed in readings (Margaret McGlynn, The Royal Prerogative and the Learning of the Inns of Court (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003), 226).

Even in the reign of Henry VIII, it was observed that whereas junior lawyers and students in the Inns of Court did moot in law-French, Benchers reasoned in English.\textsuperscript{45} Students continued to moot in French in the 1620s, at least in the Middle Temple.\textsuperscript{46} However, readings, the lectures given in the Inns, seem to have been in English.\textsuperscript{47} Manuscript texts of readings were also often in English, as were other works circulating in manuscript. In combination with the introductory works available in English printed editions, the education of common lawyers was increasingly education in English.

A predominant role for English can also be seen in seventeenth century treatise-style literature and other pieces of legal scholarship. The best example of this is Henry Finch’s Nomotechnia.\textsuperscript{48} Although printed in 1613 in law-French, Wilfrid Prest has demonstrated that Finch drafted the work in the late-sixteenth and early-seventeenth century, in English.\textsuperscript{49} Finch then produced a law-French version for printing. Francis Bacon also said that he intended his Maxims to be in law-French.\textsuperscript{50} All of the surviving manuscripts are in English and while it is


\textsuperscript{46}James Orchard Halliwell, ed. \textit{The autobiography and correspondence of Sir Simonds D'Ewes, bart : during the reigns of James I and Charles I} vol. 1 (London: R Bentley, 1845), 221, 223 and 232.


\textsuperscript{48}Henry Finch, \textit{Nomotechnia; cestascavoir, Un description del common leys dangleterre solonque les rules del art} (London: Societie of Stationers, 1613).


\textsuperscript{50}Bacon, \textit{Maxims}, 322.
possible that Bacon wrote a no-longer extant law-French original and then produced an English translation, the reverse seems more likely given the proliferation of English language legal writing around 1600. For these authors, the use of law-French had become both a matter of choice and (perhaps more importantly) of extra labour. Shorter works written for non-specialists but intended for limited circulation in manuscript, such as a text written for a (prospective) patron, were also in English. Edward Coke’s *Little Treatise of Baile and Mainprize* is a good example.\(^{51}\)

English was the language in which lawyers prepared their speeches for use in court. The surviving examples are all in English and show “how lawyers phrased their arguments in the [English] vernacular”.\(^{52}\) Preparing and thinking about arguments for use in court was consequently an activity undertaken in English. In combination, the examples of oral legal education, legal writing and preparation for curial argument show a profession which thought in English and increasingly wrote those thoughts in English too.

Law reports, a vital part of common law literature, appear to be the exception. They continued to be written in law-French in the 1630s, suggesting that while law-French was not the language of legal thought, it was in some sense the language of (unofficial) legal memory just as Latin was the language of official record.\(^{53}\) In 1641 the *Reports* of Henry Hobart were

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\(^{53}\) Good examples are the unusually full reports for the reign of Charles I found in Cambridge University Library Manuscript (henceforth “CUL MS”) Gg.2.19 and 20 and various other
published posthumously. Hobart’s Reports were the first to be printed in English, breaking
a long-standing practice in both print and manuscript, and opening the activities of the bar
and judges to a non-professional audience. However, the printed Reports were not a
translation, as surviving manuscript copies of Hobart’s Reports are also in English. Hobart’s
Reports therefore demonstrate that even a highly successful early-seventeenth century lawyer
used English for his personal reports, rather than the more traditional law-French.

Other collections of law reports can be found which mix English and law-French. The
manuscripts of the Jacobean Exchequer reports attributed to Richard Lane are a good
copies (see Baker and Ringrose, Catalogue of English Legal Manuscripts, 261). A collection
of seemingly co-ordinated manuscript reports by members of Gray’s Inn survive in
predominantly French versions (for the collections see the discussion in W.H. Bryson, ed.
Cases Concerning Equity and the Courts of Equity, 1550-1660, Part I (London: Selden
Society, 2000), xvii-xviii). An English version of the Common Pleas reports attributed to
William Allestree as part of this group exists (CUL MS Ii.5.34) but a longer French version is
probably closer to the original (Yale Law School MS G. R29.22).

54 See below, text at nn. 139-42.

55 The first law report to be printed in English was of a single case: Anon, A briefe
declaration for what manner of special nusance concerning private dwelling houses, a man
may have his remedy by assise, or other action as the case requires (London: William Cooke,
1636). Although described as a “declaration” of the law, it reports the arguments of counsel
and judges.

56 British Library Manuscript (henceforth “BL MS”) Lansdowne 1090; BL MS Stowe 400;
CUL MS Ii.5.33; CUL MS LI.3.5; CUL MS LI.3.15; Harvard Law School Manuscript 1123;
Inner Temple Manuscript Barrington 11; Lincoln’s Inn Manuscript (henceforth “LI MS”)
Maynard 65.
example. Although the relationship between the various manuscripts is complex, and that between the manuscripts and the printed version of the reports even more so, some relevant points can be discerned. While some manuscripts of “Lane’s” reports may date from the later seventeenth century, one of the manuscripts discussed here was owned and annotated by Henry Calthorpe, who died in 1637. These observations therefore relate to law reports circulating during the reign of Charles I, and perhaps earlier.

Law-French predominates in these reports, but there is a considerable amount of English material. The manuscripts also do not all use the same language at the same points in the reports, suggesting some degree of choice of language by copyists at some point in the

57 These reports were printed in English in the Interregnum (Richard Lane, Reports in the Court of Exchequer, beginning in the third, and ending in the ninth year of the raign of the late King James (London: W. Lee, D. Pakeman and G. Bedell, 1657)). It is very unlikely that they are by Lane (G.D.G. Hall, “Bate’s Case and ‘Lane’s’ Reports: The Authenticity of a Seventeenth Century Legal Text,” Bulletin of the John Rylands Library 35 (1953): 405-427, https://www.escholar.manchester.ac.uk/api/datastream?publicationPid=uk-ac-manch-scw:1m2661&datastreamId=POST-PEER-REVIEW-PUBLISHERS-DOCUMENT.PDF).

58 On these complexities, see Hall, “Bate’s Case”. More manuscripts survive than noted by Hall. I have not consulted all the available manuscripts, but a selection suffices for these observations on the language of the reports.


dissemination of the text. There are some manuscripts where the use of English and law-French appears to be identical, but others where it differs. This is despite the presence of the same hand in some of these differing manuscripts. These manuscripts show that some lawyers were using English in parts of their law reports. In some cases English is limited to the text of grants, conveyances or recitation of the facts, with legal argument remaining in law-French. Such an approach would maintain the inaccessibility of the law for non-lawyers, who would need to learn the relevant language to begin trying to understand the law. But in other cases there is considerable legal argument recorded in English, as well as conclusions of law. For these reports the detail of legal argument was being circulated, in manuscript, in English.

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61 For example the versions of the reports found in BL MS Hargrave 16, BL MS Hargrave 33 and CUL Gg.2.23, fos. 17-24 and 158-219.

62 E.g. BL MS Harley 4814 fos. 218 onwards.

63 Hall identifies the same hand appears in the report of Brett v. Johnson in BL MS Hargrave 33 and BL MS Harley 4814 from fo. 224v (Hall, “Bate’s Case,” 413 n. 1), but in Hargrave 33 the text is in English while in Harley 4814 at fo. 224v it changes between English and law-French.

64 E.g. Ayrie v. Alcock (1608) BL MS Hargrave 16, fo. 8v: “Sur speciall verdict le Jury trove que le Queenes Colledge in Oxon fuit incorporate per le nosme de provost et Schollers of the hall of the Queens Colledge of Oxford & they were seised in fee of an Advowson whereof the place is”. After the facts are fully set out, the argument in law-French begins: “Harris Junior Seriant per le plaintiff semble que presentacion del lessor le defendant ne fuit”.

65 E.g. BL MS Hargrave 16, fo. 16: “It was held for lawe that if a man doth make a feoffment to A to the use of B: for the life of C: et que si B et C: morust then to remaime this is contingent remainder by Barastons case in Cooke et Colthirsts case in Plowden:”.
One manuscript of Hobart’s Reports points towards the conclusion that English was either preferable or easier.\textsuperscript{66} This text is a redaction of Hobart’s original, reducing the length of the individual reports.\textsuperscript{67} In this version of the text, there are attempts by the unknown writer to use law-French. As with writers of legal scholarship, the use of law-French here was a choice and extra work. Crucially, the writer appears to have tried and failed in this attempt to translate the reports. Law-French is attempted twice early in the volume before the writer gives up.\textsuperscript{68} The act of recreating Hobart’s meaning in law-French had defeated him. Hobart’s use of English, and one lawyer’s failed attempt to use law-French instead, suggest that in the first decades of the seventeenth century law-French had entered a period of decline as a functional language for the profession, at least for composing new texts.

The end of law-French as a language used to write diaries would offer some support to this conclusion.\textsuperscript{69} Law-French seems to have become particularly unsuitable where writers

\textsuperscript{66} This may also explain the use of English to set out facts or grants, as in Ayrie v. Alcock (above, n. 6).

\textsuperscript{67} BL MS Hargrave 28. A similar process of reducing the length of an existing series of reports can be seen in UCL MS Ogden 29, which includes a redacted manuscript version of Edward Coke’s printed Tenth Reports.

\textsuperscript{68} BL MS Hargrave 28, fos. 1-6 and 13-5.

sought to record speeches accurately, rather than merely the sense of them. John Lowther’s 1624 parliamentary diary uses law-French for short notes, but longer reports of speeches are in English.  

The same can be seen in a volume of Jacobean Star Chamber reports in law-French, in which the reporter uses English to report a particularly impressive speech by Francis Bacon. Complex English was increasingly difficult for these writers to record in law-French, just as lawyers seemed to struggle to compose new texts in the language.

This would have been a particular problem for law reporters. Plowden’s 1571 Commentaries set a new model for law reports, providing much fuller reports of what had been said by the judges. Reporters trying to provide the level of detail found in the best early-modern reports may have found it increasingly difficult to do so in law-French. This pressure to produce fuller reports may explain the difficulty in translating Hobart’s reports into law-French. Hobart’s reports are longer and fuller than many contemporary reports. The dramatic legal changes of the sixteenth and early-seventeenth centuries may also have contributed to these difficulties, as reporters sought to write reports of arguments delivered in English, referring to doctrines which did not appear in the law-French of the yearbooks.

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70 [http://www.british-history.ac.uk/no-series/proceedings-1624-parl](http://www.british-history.ac.uk/no-series/proceedings-1624-parl) (accessed November 9, 2017), entries for 19 February (English) and 24 February (law-French) 1624.

71 Ian Williams, “Francis Bacon’s ‘Speech on a Case of Deer-Stealing’,” *Notes and Queries* 64 (2017): 317-8, [https://doi.org/10.1093/notesj/gjx048](https://doi.org/10.1093/notesj/gjx048).


73 See above, text at nn. 66-68.

74 For example, the language of “consideration” does not appear in the yearbooks until the 1530s, at first associated with uses. It is only in the late-1530s that *assumpsit* claims begin to
This conclusion moves the date for the “terminal decline” of law-French forward from Baker’s suggestion of the “late seventeenth century”, identifying the decline as in effect in the first decades of the seventeenth century. A tipping point seems to have been reached, with English becoming the default language for some genres and increasingly important for others, while some lawyers (at least) found it increasingly difficult to express themselves adequately in law-French. If this is correct, it suggests that a movement to printing in English was not tied to desires for dissemination of legal texts to non-lawyers, but was part of, and reflected, a wider shift in the legal profession’s preferred language. But lawyers’ increasing use of English would have had little consequence for the printing of law books, had the English language texts remained in manuscript. This, however, was to change.

The Movement of Manuscripts: From Profession to Public

Much legal material in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was published only in manuscript. There is a tendency to think of such manuscript publication of legal texts as meaning access to those texts was quite limited, with literary coterie publication providing a model. For some texts, such as Henry Sherfield’s 1624 reading, this was undoubtedly the

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77 E.g. Harvey, The Law Emprynted, 139-141.
case. Sherfield retained close control over his text of the reading and carefully recorded the few loans he made of it.

However, not all manuscripts had tightly restricted circulations. Some circulated widely and even did so commercially. Some of these texts were professionally copied outside the immediate circle of the legal profession. William Lambarde’s massive and widely circulated collection of material on Chancery is an excellent example. The professional scribe of one copy has even been identified. Lambarde’s collection on Star Chamber, sometimes circulating with his Chancery material, was sufficiently widespread that two other authors could refer to it, seemingly assuming that any reader of their manuscripts would know, or be able to access, Lambarde’s manuscript work.


81 William Mill, “A Discourse concerning the Antiquity of the Star Chamber occasioned by Certeyne Articles made by the Attourneys against the Courte & Clerke of the same,” BL MS Harg 216, fos. 109″, 112, 115, 116 and 120 (this work is from the early 1590s; another copy is Bodl. MS Eng. Hist. C.804, fos. 265-300); William Hudson, “A Treatise of the Court of Star Chamber,” printed in Collectanea Juridica, ed. Francis Hargrave (London: E. and R. Brooke, 1791), 1-240. Hudson seems to treat Lambarde’s work as well-known, indeed comparable to Thomas Smith’s printed De Republica Anglorum (London: Henry Midleton
One known scribe, Ralph Starkey, made his living from selling manuscripts copied by himself and his associates. There is surviving material identifying some of the works he sold. These included manuscripts on legal topics of wider public interest, such as the Star Chamber proceedings against one of Elizabeth’s secretaries in relation to the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.\(^2\) Another catalogue from a manuscript dealer from 1622-1625 also contains various works of legal interest amidst political works, biographies and travel literature. The legal items range from the arraignments in famous cases to material concerning the legal disputes over prohibitions and the church courts and the Case of Commendams from the second decade of the seventeenth century.\(^3\) The same catalogue also lists a discourse on the Chancery, including its antiquity, jurisdiction and mode of proceeding, together with a similar collection on the Star Chamber.\(^4\)

\(^2\) Listed in BL MS Harl 537, fos. 80-6 at fo. 83\(^v\). These proceedings feature in a scribal copy in Bodl MS Rowl C 838, 141-9. Bodl MS Rowl C838 is principally a collection of speeches by Sir Walter Mildmay, many of which are also listed in Starkey’s catalogue (BL MS Harl 537 at 83). At his death, Starkey’s study contained several other Star Chamber cases, together with other legal manuscripts (Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175).

\(^3\) BL MS Hargrave 311 fo. 206-207\(^v\) at fos. 207\(^v\) and 207. The manuscript identifies James I as the current king, and includes material dated 1622 (fo. 207\(^v\)), providing the range of dates for the catalogue. Ralph Starkey’s study also contained a manuscript on Commendams at his death (Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175).

\(^4\) BL MS Hargrave 311 fo. 207\(^v\). It is very tempting to identify these works with Lambarde’s collections on these two courts (see above, text at nn. 79-81), but other such works and collections did exist. The contents of Ralph Starkey’s study on his death also contained “A
Some of these manuscripts could have been produced from attendance at public events. But others, such as the collection of material on prohibitions, arose from private discussions. Manuscripts could move from private circulation to a more public one, beyond the control or wishes of the author or owner. Simonds D’Ewes gives an example from one of the Cotton manuscripts. After a loan, the manuscript eventually made its way to Robert Cotton, who forgot it was in fact his own. Cotton gave the manuscript to a clerk in his service, to copy. That clerk “took one copy secretly for himself...and out of his own transcript sold away several copies”.  

Just such a concern with personal clerks copying manuscripts for wider dissemination is evident in early-modern legal publishing, even in the 1570s. In the preface to Plowden’s Commentaries, Plowden explains the printing of his collection of law reports as a response to the loss of control over his manuscript. According to Plowden, the manuscript had been borrowed by friends, whose clerks had then made copies. There is evidence for such a role for clerks into the reign of Charles I. John Lightfoot, a barrister and the owner of one copy of the proceedings in the Chancery” and “A greate vollume of the proceedings in the starre chamber” (Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175). It is impossible to determine whether these are the same works as in the 1622-25 catalogue.


a widely circulated set of Caroline Star Chamber reports, reports that he received the book “From Henrie Dwyer servant to my Brother Francis Phelips the xxvjth day of June Anno domini 1636”. Francis Philips was also a barrister. Assuming Lightfoot’s note is accurate, it is evidence of a lawyer’s servant, perhaps a clerk, being involved in the circulation of legal manuscripts into the 1630s.

Such copying by clerks may have been particularly concerning as lawyers’ clerks were involved in commercial scribal work more generally. In Thomas Dekker’s 1606 Newes from Hell, lawyers’ clerks are one of the groups the Devil considers “to scribble for him”. If this scribal activity by clerks included the copying and dissemination of legal manuscripts, this would be an obvious route for such manuscripts to leave the control of barristers and become part of wider circulation.

Such copying may explain a tantalisingly vague, but extremely significant, remark near the end of the 1622-1625 catalogue. Next to the heading “common law” is simply noted the availability of “divers peeces of Comon Lawe, vzt, Arguments Reports Readings &c”. This is one of very few pieces of evidence showing the commercial availability of common

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88 BL MS Lansdowne 620, fo. 39.

89 Some caution is warranted. This remark appears following the striking through of various politically controversial comments in the reports. Lightfoot clearly did try to reduce his responsibility for the comments, as his note continues, “And it [the book] is not of my owne colleccion”.

90 Millstone, Manuscript Circulation, 47.


92 BL MS Hargrave 311, fo. 207v. It is not clear whether this means the manuscript dealer had multiple common law items for sale, or perhaps a single volume with mixed contents.
law manuscripts related to the work and learning of the bar and appears to be the only known evidence of the sale of material from readings.\textsuperscript{93} It is not clear if the material in the catalogue would have been in English or law-French, but this brief advertisement shows that the learning of the bar had already ceased to be excluded from the general public. If a member of the public could reach this dealer in manuscripts, legal material could have been obtained by a non-lawyer. There was very substantial and widespread manuscript circulation in the first half of the seventeenth century, so such access by the wider public cannot be dismissed.\textsuperscript{94} This circulation can be linked to an increase in professional, commercial, copying of manuscripts in the 1620s, just the moment when circulating legal manuscripts can first be identified as available commercially, from dealers not connected with the legal profession.\textsuperscript{95} Once commercial copyists and manuscript dealers acquired a text, any control lawyers had once exercised over the circulation of legal manuscripts was lost.

From Published Manuscript to Print Publication

Importantly for understanding the printed dissemination of material in English, several of the works which appeared from 1625 to 1642 can be identified as quite widely disseminated in

\textsuperscript{93} This evidence demonstrates that the suggestion that more technical material may not have left the households of lawyers and not circulated scribally is incorrect (Williams, “Common Law Scholarship,” 68), although it is not clear if the common law pieces were scribally produced, or the dealer was merely selling a previously personal manuscript. For further evidence of the sale of law reports, see below, text at n. 105.

\textsuperscript{94} Millstone, \textit{Manuscript Circulation}, 3.

\textsuperscript{95} Millstone, \textit{Manuscript Circulation}, 100. For the commercial availability of legal manuscripts in the 1620s, see above, text at n. 92 and below n. 152.
English manuscripts before their appearance in print. Manuscript circulation may be linked with the eventual printing of a work. For some works, it can even be shown that the manuscript circulation which preceded printing was commercial circulation, beyond any control by the legal profession. William Lambarde’s Archeion, printed twice in 1635, was part of Lambarde’s larger collection on Chancery, at least one copy of which was copied commercially. 96 Nicholas Bacon’s arguments on the jurisdiction of the Chancery, printed in 1641, were also part of the same collection. 97 Edward Coke’s Little Treatise of Baile and Mainprize, printed in 1635, 98 exists in two manuscript copies associated with a particular commercial scribe. 99 Francis Bacon’s Maxims, first printed in 1630, survives in eleven manuscripts. 100 Thomas Egerton, Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, wrote a brief to Crown lawyers in the Jacobean debate about the Chancery jurisdiction which was printed in 1641. 101 Thirty

96 See above n. 20 and text at nn. 79-81.

97 Nicholas Bacon, Arguments exhibited in Parliament by Sir Nicholas Bacon (London: 1641). For differences between the print and some of the manuscripts, see Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing”, text at nn. 40-2.


99 Beal, In Praise of Scribes 241 and 247, referring to BL MS Harley 444 and BL MS Stowe 145. The copy of Baile and Mainprize in the latter is not by the “feathery scribe”, but other parts of the volume are. A copy of Baile and Mainprize was also listed in the contents of the study of the manuscript dealer Ralph Starkey (Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175).

100 For manuscripts see Baker and Ringrose, Catalogue of English Legal Manuscripts, 372-3.

manuscript copies are known. 102 Hobart’s Reports similarly circulated widely, with eight surviving copies of the reports. 103 Two of those volumes provide explicit date evidence of circulation in the 1630s. 104 One of those two volumes also shows that the manuscript was a commercial object, being purchased for £3 10s. 105 It is not clear that this volume was the product of commercial copying, rather than just the sale of a privately produced copy. The owner, John Maynard, noted that the volume included a table (now lost), but that the table did not continue for cases after folio 527 because the writing was so bad, hardly what one would expect from a professional scribe. 106

Material from legal education in the Inns of Court and Chancery which appeared in print during the reign of Charles I similarly survives in multiple copies, indicating wider circulation. John Dodderidge’s reading, the first to be printed, has five surviving copies. 107 Charles Calthrope’s The relation betweene the lord of a mannor and the coppy-holder his

102 Twenty nine copies are listed in Baker and Ringrose, Catalogue of English Legal Manuscripts, 269. Another copy is Huntington Library MS 57342, fos. 1-19v.

103 See above, n. 56. This does not include the redaction of Hobart’s Reports in BL MS Hargrave 28.

104 CUL MS Ii.5.33 fo. 565v (30 January 1638); LI MS Maynard 65, fly (28 May 1635).

105 LI MS Maynard 65, fly. This is a considerably higher price than for any second-hand printed law book in a list probably from c.1615-1628, where the maximum price is £1 10s (BL MS Harley 160, fo. 233).

106 For the text, see J.H. Baker, English legal manuscripts, vol 2: Catalogue of the manuscript year books, readings, and law reports in Lincoln’s Inn, the Bodleian Library and Gray’s Inn (Zug: Inter Documentation Company, 1978), 69.

107 Dodderidge, A Compleat Parson. For the manuscript copies, see Baker, Readers and Readings, 211.
tenant was a printing of his 1574-5 reading in Furnival’s Inn, one of the Inns of Chancery, a reading which survives in seventeen manuscripts.\(^{108}\) The two readings from the Inns of Court to be printed, Robert Brooke’s and Francis Bacon’s, both survive in four manuscript copies.\(^{109}\) The evidence of the catalogue from 1622-1625 shows that it is possible that these readings were circulating in manuscripts which were themselves objects of commerce.\(^{110}\)

There is therefore a correlation between several of the new works printed during the reign of Charles I and circulation in manuscript, and a weaker but still evident correlation with the commercial circulation of manuscripts.\(^{111}\) Showing that several of the new legal works printed in English during from 1625-1642 circulated in manuscript before printing suggests that it was manuscripts which had in some sense been “published” which were often put into print by booksellers and printers.

Such printing was not under the control of the authors of the relevant works, indeed generally the author was dead. There is evidence suggesting a living author may have been able to affect the printing of his manuscript. John Dodderidge’s The Lawyers Light was entered into the Register of the Stationers’ Company in October 1627, in favour of Benjamin

\(^{108}\) Calthrope, The relation; Baker, Readers and Readings, 203.

\(^{109}\) Brooke, The reading; for manuscripts see Baker, Readers and Readings 159, including identification of two further lost texts. Francis Bacon, The learned reading of Sir Francis Bacon, one of Her Majesties learned counsell at law, upon the statute of uses (London: Matthew Walbancke and Laurence Chapman, 1642). for manuscripts see Baker, Readers and Readings 49.

\(^{110}\) Above, text at n. 92.

\(^{111}\) Harvey’s suggestion that the availability of readings in manuscript might therefore have discouraged printers from printing them seems the opposite of practice (Harvey, The Law Emprynted, 182).
Fisher. However, this registration was struck through, and it is possible that this was due to Dodderidge’s interference. Some support for the idea that the striking through happened quite soon after registration, and was related to Dodderidge himself, is that Fisher did not print the work soon after registration. However, The Lawyers Light was printed in 1629, after Dodderidge’s death in 1628, suggesting Dodderidge may have been able to control the printing of his manuscript during his lifetime (at least if the copy were registered), but not after his death.

113 John Dodderidge, The Lawyers Light (London: Bernard Alsop and Thomas Fawcett for Benjamin Fisher, 1629). Another of Dodderidge’s posthumously printed works (John Dodderidge, The history of the ancient and moderne estate of the principality of Wales, dutchy of Cornewall, and earldome of Chester (London: Thomas Harper for Godfrey Emondson and Thomas Alchorne, 1630) also circulated in manuscript in his lifetime, being available for purchase in 1622-1625 (BL MS Hargrave 311, fo. 207v). Other Dodderidge material was available for purchase from Ralph Starkey in 1626 (TNA PRO C 108/115/8575, a letter advertising various works from Starkey to Sir John Scudamore). It is possible that the “Treatise concerning the Nobility according to the lawes of England” found in Starkey’s study after his death (Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175) is a manuscript of the work printed as Bird, The magazine of honour, or, A treatise of the severall degrees of the nobility of this kingdome with their rights and priviledges also of knights, esquires, gentlemen and yeomen, and matters incident to them according to the lawes and customes of England (London: for William Sheares, 1642). That work was described on the title page as “perused and enlarged by that learned and iudicious lawyer, Sir John Doderidge”.

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While there is no direct evidence of a new legal work being printed in English from a published manuscript acquired by a printer, there is plenty of evidence which strongly suggests this. The vague explanations as to how printers obtained the texts they printed is a good starting point. Printers refer to copies of the text arriving in their hands before printing.\textsuperscript{114} This language was not unusual in early-modern printing generally. Nor was it unprecedented in legal printing, although it was much less common for law books. An unusually early example of such vagueness appeared in 1567, when Richard Tottel refers to the text of Staunford’s \textit{Prerogative} having been “delivered to mee”, albeit evidently not by Staunford, who had died in 1558.\textsuperscript{115} However, it appears with considerably greater frequency


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after 1640. The vague language avoids any claims of authorial *imprimatur*.¹¹⁶ Indeed, as Bennett noted, “the prevailing custom…allowed a printer, once he was in possession of a manuscript, however come by, to treat it as his own, and to go ahead with it, just as he would have done with a manuscript brought to him by the author himself”.¹¹⁷

The deliberately vague statements of the printers are of little assistance, beyond suggesting that printers did not receive these texts from the author or other relevant figure. There is no other direct evidence, and as Bennett observed, “[m]embers of the printing trade were always on the watch for possible manuscripts, and acted without much concern for the interests of the author once they were on the scent”.¹¹⁸ In relation to the printing of law books in the reign of Charles I, there is enough suggestive evidence to point towards how printers and booksellers acquired these texts.

First is a statement by Bernard Alsop and Thomas Fawcett, involved in the printing of *The Use of the Law* and *The Lawyers Light*¹¹⁹ in 1629, and John Dodderidge’s reading as *A Compleat Parson* in 1630.¹²⁰ All of these are English language works, and Dodderidge’s reading clearly did circulate in manuscript. In 1627, Alsop and Fawcett were summoned

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¹¹⁶ It could also enable an author to disclaim responsibility for the printing, although this would not have been a concern for those legal works where the authors were dead (such as those in nn. 115 and 116).


¹¹⁹ Above, n. 113. *The Use of the Law* is bound together with *The Lawyers Light* and there is a combined title page, but the two works are separately paginated.

¹²⁰ Above, n. 16.
before High Commission for involvement in the printing of Robert Cotton’s *Short View of the Long life and reign of Henry the Third*.\(^{121}\) Their defence was that they had printed a text already available in manuscript, one which they had purchased from a second-hand bookseller, Ferdinand Ely.\(^{122}\) It is not clear whether this was true or not. Although Cotton claimed to have written the work in 1614, Kevin Sharpe does not rule out the possibility that Cotton himself was behind the 1627 printing.\(^{123}\) A defence to an investigation by the High Commission need not have been true, but for the defence to be effective, it would have to have been credible. Alsop and Fawcett’s business therefore either sometimes printed existing manuscripts available commercially, or this practice was sufficiently widespread that they could claim to do so. Either possibility suggests that printers might make use of commercially available manuscripts to produce new printed works.

Alsop and Fawcett’s suggested role for second-hand booksellers is plausible. In 1628 a list of “such Booke sellers, as deale in old Libraryes” was given to the Privy Council.\(^{124}\) Of the listed book sellers, ten or eleven (just over one quarter) were located on Chancery Lane and Fleet Street (linked as a single location in the list) or at Gray’s Inn Gate, all locations

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near the Inns of Court and firmly within legal London. There is even a direct link with Alsop and Fawcet. The other person listed as involved in their printing of *The Use of the Law* and *The Lawyers Light* in 1629 was Benjamin Fisher. In 1628 Fisher was listed as a dealer in old libraries on Aldersgate Street, and he is the person for whom *The Use of the Law* and *The Lawyers Light* were apparently printed. It seems likely that Fisher acquired the manuscript (or manuscripts) in his work as a dealer in second-hand material and then made the decision to have them printed.

Fisher would not be alone. Two other names associated with the printing of legal manuscripts in English are also found on the 1628 list of second-hand dealers and both did so in close proximity to the legal profession. Matthew Walbancke was identified as a dealer at Gray’s Inn Gate and Laurence Chapman was one of the second-hand booksellers listed as based in Chancery Lane and Fleet Street. Walbancke and Chapman were the two printers of Francis Bacon’s *Reading*. Chapman was also connected with the printing of Brooke’s *Reading*. The first two readings from the Inns of Court to be printed were therefore printed in connection with booksellers who dealt in existing collections, as was the first reading (Dodderidge’s) printed from the Inns of Chancery. It seems highly likely that both Walbancke and Chapman acquired their manuscript copies of the relevant readings in this capacity, decided that there was a possible market for these particular texts and arranged their printing. In both cases, the works were by prominent lawyers and authors. Brooke had been chief justice of the court of Common Pleas and was the author of an important reference work

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125 Ten or eleven because “Robert Wilson” appears in the list both in Chancery Lane and Fleet Street and in Gray’s Inn Gate. This is probably the same person, but that is not made clear.

126 Above, n. 109.

127 Above, n. 17.
for early-modern lawyers. His name would have made the reading an attractive purchase for lawyers, while the subject matter (a chapter of Magna Carta) might have been readily marketable in the atmosphere of 1642. Francis Bacon had been Lord Chancellor as well as an important English author. His legal works had begun to appear in print with the *Maxims* in 1630, and his reading was on a very popular topic with a ready market in the profession.

A second connection between English language legal manuscripts and the printing of such manuscripts arises in the role of law booksellers as vendors, and perhaps producers, of new manuscript copies. There is good evidence of law booksellers having such a role in relation to parliamentary and political texts, but that role may have encompassed a wider range of texts. There was, in any event, an unclear boundary between parliamentary and legal material, especially in the legalistic culture of early-modern England. Thomas Fuller claimed that his printed collection of parliamentary material from the reign of Charles I would be of use to lawyers for the “severall Cases here largely reported”. A particularly good example from the late 1630s is *The Case of Ship Money* (*R v. Hampden*) from 1638,

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129 Bacon’s reading was on the Statutes of Uses 1536 (stat 27 Hen.VIII c.10), one of the most popular choices for early-modern readers with eighteen readings given between 1536 and 1634 (Baker, *Readers and Readings*, Iviii).


131 Millstone similarly links legal and parliamentary speeches as part of “a list of forbidden bestsellers of pre-revolutionary England” which circulated in manuscript (Millstone, *Manuscript Circulation*, 3).

132 [Thomas Fuller], *Ephemeris parliamentaria, or, A faithfull register of the transactions in Parliament in the third and fourth years of the reign of our late Sovereign Lord, King Charles* (London: printed for John Williams and Francis Eglesfield, 1654), sig. ¶¶.
concerning Charles I’s power to levy extra-parliamentary taxation during the Personal Rule. Manuscript pamphlets of the decision and the judges speeches “circulated very widely”, many of them as “commercially produced” pamphlets, they are some of the “most reproduced texts of the decade”, despite appearing relatively late in the 1630s. These manuscripts are just the sort of hybrid legal-political material which law booksellers might be expected to produce or sell. The widely circulated, commercially produced, manuscripts of the Ship Money case then made their way into print, at least in part, with Richard Hutton’s dissenting judgment printed in 1641.

One law bookseller seems to have had connections with providers of manuscripts of parliamentary material, although the precise nature of the link cannot be discovered. One manuscript of the tumultuous debates in the House of Commons in 1629 can be identified as purchased from “W Walbancke” on 10 August 1629. The Walbancke family were

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133 Baker and Ringrose, Catalogue of English Legal Manuscripts, 24, observing that “[t]he manuscripts in other libraries are too numerous to list here”.

134 Millstone, Manuscript Circulation, 264.

135 The arguments of Sir Richard Hutton, Knight, one of the judges of the Common Pleas (London: Miles Flesher and Robert Young, 1641). Hutton’s argument is the second most common to survive in manuscript. The other dissenting judgment, George Croke’s, survives in much greater numbers (Millstone, Manuscript Circulation, 267-268).

136 Durham Chapter Library Hunter MS 52 fo. 1, see Edward Hughes “A Durham Manuscript of the Common’s Debates of 1629,” English Historical Review 74 (1959): 672, https://doi.org/10.1093/ehr/LXXIV.293.672 (Hughes describes the relevant text as being on the flyleaf, but the manuscript has since been foliated). My thanks to Mrs Sarah-Jane Raymond and her colleagues for making the manuscript available to me during extensive works in the library. The purchase information may not be accurate. It is in a different hand
booksellers and publishers from the reign of James I onwards. The founder of the printing family, Matthew Walbancke, was involved in law printing, including that of material previously circulating in English.  

While one member of the Walbancke family was involved in the dissemination of manuscript parliamentary material in the late-1620s, in the 1640s Matthew Walbancke began to print it instead. It is plausible that the same occurred in relation to law books too. Matthew Walbancke had a connection with the manuscript trade which may have given him access to legal manuscripts. He also dealt in old libraries, potentially giving access to manuscript material, especially circulating manuscripts.

The printing of Hobart's Reports fits into one of these models. It is clear from John Maynard’s copy that the Reports could be purchased. It is not clear whether this was as a new scribally-produced copy or as a second-hand manuscript. Either way, such a

to the date on the page and there is no known W Walbancke involved in the book trade in 1629.

In addition to Francis Bacon’s Reading, Matthew Walbancke was also connected with the printing of an abridgement of St German’s Doctor and Student (An exact abridgement of that excellent treatise called Doctor and student (London: John Haviland for the assigns of John More, 1630)) described on the titlepage as to be sold by Matthew Walbancke and an English version of Perkins’s sixteenth-century Profitable Book, which had previously been printed with English title pages, but never actually in English (John Perkins, A Profitable Booke of Mr John Perkins (London: for Matthew Walbancke, 1642)).

A diary, or, An exact journall faithfully communicating the most remarkable proceedings in both houses of Parliament (London: for Matthew Walbancke, 1644-46).

LI MS Maynard 65, see above text at n. 105.

See above, text at n. 106, for a tentative suggestion that the quality of the text suggests a second-hand manuscript rather than scribal production.
manuscript could be connected with law booksellers who then caused texts to be printed. The only complication is that Hobart’s Reports were printed by the assigns of the law patentee, John More, and no connections between the assigns and the manuscript trade have been discovered.\textsuperscript{141} However, in the early-1640s there was a complicated set of relationships between the assigns of the law patentee, law booksellers, and printers in producing printed texts, so we cannot exclude such a relationship for Hobart’s Reports.\textsuperscript{142}

These explanations are not obviously limited to the years after 1625. Legal manuscripts existed and circulated for decades before the 1620s. Nonetheless, there are factors which explain the relatively late movement of more sophisticated legal material from manuscript to print. One possible change in ideology may be visible in, and caused by, the printing of Edward Coke’s Commentarie upon Littleton in 1628. The Commentarie contains the original law-French of Littleton’s Tenures, with an English translation in a parallel column, all surrounded by a very dense English language gloss. Coke explained in his preface that the printing of some common law material in English was “not without president”, explaining that this was “an introduction to the knowledge of the nationall Lawes of the Realme, a work necessarie”. At this point Coke seems to be following the trend of making only introductory works available. However, he continues to explain that the Commentarie would make the law available to “any of the Nobilitie, or Gentrie of this Realme, or of any other estate, or profession whatsoever”.\textsuperscript{143} This was to go much further than earlier publications, especially as Coke’s gloss was substantially more than introductory.

\textsuperscript{141} For more on the assigns and their business practices see Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing”, text at nn. 112-18.

\textsuperscript{142} On these complicated relationships, see Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing”, text at nn. 125-127.

\textsuperscript{143} Coke, The first part, sig. ¶¶v.
Nevertheless, the Commentarie did not lead to lawyers making a substantial short-term change in the material they prepared for the press and the broad statements about printing common law material in English found in the preface need to be qualified. First, the Commentarie is almost four hundred pages long, and would probably have been too expensive for many people outside of the upper echelons of society, or the legal profession, to afford.\(^{144}\) This was not a work which would disseminate the law widely. Perhaps more significantly, the form of Coke’s Commentarie suggest that whatever the statements in the preface suggest, Coke’s intended audience was lawyers, particularly law students.\(^{145}\) The printing of Littleton’s original law-French text together with an English translation was an innovation. One reason for doing so may have been to provide some assistance in learning to read law-French itself, given the difficulties which some lawyers seem to have experienced

\(^{144}\) According to Joseph Mead in a letter to Sir Richard Stuteville dated 29 November 1628, the Commentarie had recently been published and was “of some 15 or 16 shillings price” (BL MS Hargrave 390, fo. 456). This would make the Commentarie as expensive as a second hand copy of the 1569 printing of Bracton (another very large work) and more expensive than all but three of the law books the prices of which are given in a list probably dating between 1616 and 1628 (see Williams, “A medieval book,” 51).

\(^{145}\) Coke’s Reports also suggest that he frequently addressed different audiences in different parts of the same writing. See above, text at nn. 38-40, for evidence that Coke combined texts for the wider public with others for the legal profession in the same work. The prefaces to his Reports show a similar difference in audience. The preface to the Sixth Reports is a response to the Jesuit Robert Parsons’ criticisms of Coke’s writings for the wider public in the Fifth Reports, whereas the main, law-French, text of the Sixth Reports is directed to common lawyers (Edward Coke, La Size Part des Reports (London: Societie of Stationers, 1607)).
with that language. Such a focus on law-students would also explain Coke’s production of the other three volumes of his *Institutes*, a series named after an introductory civilian work explicitly directed to students rather than the wider public. The second volume of the *Institutes*, in particular, appears to be aimed at providing a printed gloss on statutes which may have been part of a regular cycle in the Inns of Court, a key part of legal education in the fifteenth century.

More plausible explanations for the movement of material from manuscript to print are not ideological, but mundane, connected to the relationship between manuscripts and the printers and booksellers involved in law printing in the reign of Charles I.

First is a possible increase in the volume of manuscript copying in the 1620s. Millstone’s work on parliamentary material suggests a marked increase in copying, especially in the second half of the decade, even if the material being copied was itself older. It is not necessarily the case that the same pattern would be visible in legal manuscripts. However, an increase in copying in the 1620s suggests not just increased demand, but also the potential of increased supply, indicating a larger body of copyists who may have turned their hand to legal manuscripts too.

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146 See above, text at nn. 66-71.


148 Williams, “Common Law Scholarship,” 64.

149 Millstone, *Manuscript Circulation*, 100.
Increasing circulation of legal manuscripts in English, particularly the circulation of manuscripts commercially, would encourage booksellers and printers to print works. Such circulation would demonstrate demand for the work, especially to booksellers connected with the manuscript trade. Proven demand would ameliorate some of the financial risks involved in printing a new work.

Second is the increasing use of English by the profession in its manuscripts. This may have had two related consequences. The first is that there is more evidence of the copying of English manuscripts by professional scribes than there is for such scribes copying law-French material. The surviving evidence for the material copied and then sold by Ralph Starkey suggests that all the legally related material was in English.\(^{150}\) There clearly are multiple copies of law-French manuscripts. Some of the copying looks professional\(^{151}\) and in some instances appears to be commercial.\(^{152}\) While commercial copying of law-French was

\(^{150}\) BL MS Harl 537, fos. 80-6 and Huntington Library Ellesmere MS 8175. Legal material included Star Chamber proceedings and the Five Knights Case (1628). Star Chamber reports survive predominantly in English language manuscripts; many copies of the Five Knights’ Case also survive in English (e.g. CUL MS Ff.3.17, fos. 114-82).


\(^{152}\) Manuscripts of Francis Moore’s law-French reports may have been commercially copied. Several share an unusual stylistic feature perhaps suggesting an origin in a single copying house: a black letter (rather than secretary) title or title page in Latin, proclaiming that the reports were taken from the book written in Moore’s hand (BL MS Additional 25191, BL MS
therefore not unknown, English material is more prevalent in identifiably commercial copying, despite the much larger body of law-French legal material (especially law reports). This may indicate that professional scribes lacked the linguistic skills to copy law-French or that they believed material in English was more desirable (perhaps due to a larger possible market). By using English more frequently in their manuscripts, lawyers opened those manuscripts to commercial copying, which encouraged subsequent printing.

The increased use of English may have also facilitated decisions by booksellers and printers about whether to invest in printing a particular manuscript. Non-lawyers, such as law booksellers and printers, may not have been able to read law-French. This would have made it difficult to determine the subject-matter of a manuscript, let alone make any assessment as to its quality. These were, presumably, relevant factors in the decision as to whether

Harley 4585, BL MS Lansdowne 1059 and Yale Law School MS G.R29.1). Of these manuscripts, BL MS Harley 4585 notes that it was purchased by Robert Paynell for £4 (fo. 1). Paynell was admitted to Gray’s Inn in 1619 and the reports were presumably purchased after that date (W.H. Bryson, Robert Paynell’s King’s Bench Reports (1625-1627) (Tempe: Arizona Center for Medieval and Renaissance Studies, 2010), x). Paynell’s copy also includes a guarantee by the seller, Lawrence Cragge, that the volume included “as many cases & marginall notes as any [book] that I have sould” (BL MS Harley 4585, fo. 453v). It seems likely that Cragge would only have included such a guarantee if he had been involved in the production of the manuscript, indicating commercial copying.

This may explain the very vague description of the common law material available in BL MS Hargrave 311 (see above, text at n. 92). The author of the catalogue does not identify the reports or readings with any precision, unlike the various speeches and other legally related material. Perhaps the author did not understand the material (even if in English) or could not read it (if it were in law-French).
printing a manuscript would provide a sufficient return. English language manuscripts, by contrast, could be read and assessed by booksellers and printers without needing to involve the legal profession. The use of English not only made it easier for booksellers and printers to decide whether to print the work, but if the profession had previously been able to exercise some control over what was printed through the printers’ need for advice, that control was removed or reduced by the shift to English.

For example, Brooke’s reading on Magna Carta in English could have been read by a non-lawyer bookseller or printer. That reader would have been able to identify the subject-matter of the reading and form his own assessment as to the likely demand for a text on Magna Carta by a major lawyer in the febrile atmosphere of the early 1640s. The use of English would not necessarily be the only relevant factor. For example, as some readings became more treatise-like, the nature (and possibly value) of the text may have become more obvious to non-specialists. The manuscript text would look more like something that could be printed in a book than merely some fragmentary or disjointed speaker’s notes or a record made by an audience member of an oral exercise.

As Mirow observes, some readings after 1600 were “seemingly produced for written or printed transmission” (Matthew Mirow, “The Ascent of the Readings: Some Evidence from Readings on Wills,” in Learning the Law: Teaching the Transmission of English Law 1150–1900, ed. Jonathan Bush and Alain Wijffels (London: Hambledon Press, 1999), 238). This statement needs to be qualified: there is no evidence of any reader taking his reading to be printed; and some readings seem to have become more like treatises (at least as surviving in textual form) during the Elizabethan period.

This change in the text of readings should not be over-emphasised when explaining their printing. It certainly seems to apply to Bacon’s reading, the only seventeenth century reading to be printed and the most treatise-like of the printed readings. The Elizabethan readings of
Some support for the use of English encouraging the printing of a work may be found in the different treatment of two sets of Jacobean law reports which both circulated in commercially available manuscripts. Francis Moore’s reports survive in several professionally produced manuscripts, at least one of which was sold, were written in law-French and not printed until 1663.156 Manuscripts of Henry Hobart’s reports also circulated widely, with one copy showing evidence of sale.157 Hobart’s reports were in English and printed in 1641.158 It may be that the linguistic difference explains the different treatment of these works, although this cannot be known definitively.

Third, and peculiar to the period 1625-1642 is a change in the patent for printing common law books. From the late-1620s the patent was held by a non-printer, John More, and leased to a syndicate who were principally concerned with reprinting standard works, rather than new material, at least until 1640.159 However, the patent was increasingly

Calthrope and Dodderidge are a little more disjointed, but still coherent texts. Brooke’s reading, the earliest to be printed, is more a collection of quite brief notes. Printed legal texts may also have been modelled to some extent on readings. For example, Staunford’s Exposicion appears to be modelled on the approach taken in readings on the “statute” Prerogativa Regis (for discussion of similarities and differences between Staunford’s Exposicion and readings see McGlynn, The Royal Prerogative, 225-35).


157 See above text at nn. 103-105.

158 Hobart, Reports.

159 See Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing,” text at nn. 114-16.
breached, largely without consequences. Several of the unauthorised printers printed English language material. The range of law printers and booksellers involved in the market for law books in the 1630s and early 1640s may have contributed to the change in what was printed. Those printers, unlike the patentee in the sixteenth century or the assigns from the late 1620s, were non-specialists who printed some legal works as part of a more diverse portfolio. They were not concerned with producing competing printings of standard legal texts, many of which were several hundred pages long. Instead they were printing shorter works and many of the higher-level legal works in English, such as readings, fell into that category.

Furthermore, these non-specialist printers may have lacked the black-letter type which was traditional for law-French law books. From the late-sixteenth century Roman type generally replaced black-letter for printing vernacular works. Black-letter was increasingly

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160 For discussion of the reasons for these breaches, and the lack of enforcement of the patent by the patent-holder, see Williams, “Changes to Common Law Printing,” text at nn. 88-120.

161 For example, Bernard Alsop and Thomas Fawcett (above, nn. 16 and 113) and William Cooke (above, nn. 7, 55, 98 and 114). However, even the printers printing under the patent engaged in some printing of the higher level material in English in the form of Bacon’s Maxims, albeit printed with The Use of the Law which had already been printed in 1629 (Anon, The Use of the Law (London: Bernard Alsop, Thomas Fawcett, Benjamin Fisher, 1629)).

a specialist type, used only for particular purposes and not always available.\textsuperscript{163} Legal printing persisted in its use of black-letter for both law-French and English works.\textsuperscript{164} However, printers may have believed that works in English could be printed in Roman type, a development which had already occurred in other learned fields and which made Roman type the default for English vernacular printing. As these printers were not specialists in legal printing, they may not have known that traditionally black-letter was also used for legal works in English, instead perceiving it to be the type used for law-French works. Printers without access to black-letter type would therefore have felt able to print English language law books without breaching typographical conventions.\textsuperscript{165}

Conclusion

\textsuperscript{163} As Brand observes for the printing of John Davies’ reports in Dublin in 1615, it was only the printer’s prior government work which meant that he already had black-letter type available and so “did not need to acquire new matrices or type for printing the volume” (Brand, “Sir John Davies,” 11).

\textsuperscript{164} I have identified four exceptions. The first is Henry Finch’s 1613 \textit{Nomotechnia} (in French). The second and third are two printings of Perkins’ \textit{Profitable Book} in French (London: Societie of Stationers, 1621) and (London: Miles Flesher and Robert Young, 1639). Interestingly, there are two printings of the \textit{Profitable Book} in 1621, one of which uses black-letter (STC 19644), the other uses Roman type (STC 19644.5). It is not clear why this was so. Fourth, Thomas Egerton’s \textit{Speech} in English used Roman type.

\textsuperscript{165} Of the works cited in this article only the 1642 printing of Perkins’ \textit{Profitable Book} was in English and black-letter. Some of the works mixed black-letter and Roman type (e.g. Coke, \textit{Little Treatise}), but most did not.
The appearance of a substantial body of sophisticated common law material in English and in print from the mid-1620s to early-1640s was the result of a combination of particular factors, but not of ideologies about the desirability of disseminating the law. Some of the factors were longer term, such as the increasing use of English by the legal profession, but others were peculiar to the period, especially the number of booksellers and printers involved in printing legal works. The interaction between the actors in, and market for, manuscript works and the production of printed works in English is peculiarly well-evidenced for the 1620s-1640s, but it may be that this was not a major change to past practice.

While the printing of legal material in English during the reign of Charles I was not ideologically driven, it may have had ideological consequences. Narrowly, in demonstrating that the law could be printed in English and, consequently, that the claimed necessity of law-French was incorrect. The demonstration from 1625-1642 of the possibility of printing the law in English, combined with Edward Coke’s conversion to the cause of printing in English in his Commentarie upon Littleton, may explain why it was thought acceptable and possible to mandate such English language printing for the future, one of very few law reform measures to be enacted during the Interregnum.166

More broadly, the new legal material printed in English, especially after 1640, showed an important change in subject matter. Legal printing until 1640 had largely avoided matters of public controversy, with such material circulating in manuscript. As those manuscripts made their way into print, newly printed works often engaged directly with

complaints about the government of Charles I, and did so for a wider audience. The printing of the dissenting argument in *Ship Money* is a good example, but the best example is the printing of James Whitelocke’s early-seventeenth century argument on the King’s power to levy impositions, an extra-parliamentary tax on exports and imports. The printed text shows the potential for wider dissemination beyond London and the legal elite. Whitelocke’s argument was printed by Richard Bishop for John Burroughes in Fleet Street. However, some copies have a title page indicating that the work was to be sold “by Richard Hassell Bookseller in Bristoll.” Bristol did not have a large community of common lawyers, a highly centralised profession, but it did have a sizeable mercantile community, just the sort of non-lawyers who would be interested in a statement of the law about export and import taxes. While the movement to printing the law in English was not ideological, in the years immediately preceding the outbreak of civil war, works such as this show that it could be used for ideological purposes, and have much wider consequences.

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167 In this respect the newly printed legal material falls into the same pattern as that seen for scribally produced pamphlets, many of which were printed after 1640 (Millstone, *Manuscript Circulation*, 319). However, the recourse by printers to scribally circulating legal material began several years earlier than for more politically controversial pamphlets.