§Law in Context

### ALISON CLARKE & PAUL KOHLER

# Property Law Commentary and Materials



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### **Property Law**

This is an innovative examination of the law's treatment of property. It looks at the nature and function of property rights in resources ranging from land to goods and intangibles, and provides a detailed analytical exposition of the content, function and effect of the property rules which regulate our use of these resources, and the fundamental principles which underpin this structure of rules. It draws on a wide range of materials on property rights in general and the English property law system in particular. The book includes the core legal source materials in property law along with readings from social science literature, legal theory and economics, many of which are not easily accessible to law students. These materials are accompanied by a critical commentary, as well as notes, questions and suggestions for further reading.

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# Property Law Commentary and Materials

Alison Clarke and Paul Kohler



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## Preface

Property law tends to be regarded by students as both dull and difficult. The main objective of this book is to demonstrate that it is neither. The book is based on the Property Law seminars we devised and taught in the Faculty of Laws at University College London. Like the seminar course, the book looks at the nature and function of property rights in resources ranging from land to goods and intangibles, and provides a detailed analytical exposition of the content, function and effect of the property rules which regulate our use of these resources, and the fundamental principles which underpin their structure.

We draw on a wide range of materials on property rights in general and our property law system in particular, including core legal source materials on selected topics as well as readings from social science literature, legal theory and economics. Inevitably the coverage is not comprehensive, but we have included notes, questions and suggestions for further reading to provide a starting point for anyone wanting to take matters further. As in any other property law book, we draw on a lot of material from decided cases, but to keep the book at a manageable length we have put most of the edited case extracts we use, together with some other materials, on the associated website, www.cambridge.org/propertylaw/ rather than in the book itself. This has enabled us to use much longer extracts than would otherwise have been feasible, and also to introduce a much wider range of materials.

We have both been involved in teaching all the topics covered in this book, but have taken separate responsibility for different parts of the book: Chapters 1–5, 7–8, 10–15 and 17–18 were written by Alison Clarke, and Chapters 6, 9 and 16 by Paul Kohler.

The content of the book has been greatly influenced by the many stimulating contributions made to seminars by students over the years, and by our colleagues who have taught on the seminar course with us at UCL and elsewhere: our thanks go to all of them, and to our respective families and friends for their help and encouragement. Finally, the book is dedicated by Alison to Leo, and by Paul to his partner, Samantha, and his four daughters, Eloise, Tamara, Bethany and Saskia, whose endless disputes on the ownership and possession of each other's clothes has taught him more about the fundamentals of property than any number of cases in the Court of Chancery.

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# The concept of property

### Property law: the issues

#### 1.1. Basic definition

To put it at its simplest, property law is about the legally recognised relationships we have with each other in respect of things. We will want to expand and qualify this statement later – what kinds of relationship, what kinds of thing? – but our starting point is an introduction to the moral, political, social and economic context in which property law operates.

#### 1.2. Illustrative example

Consider the following hypothetical situation, a variation of facts which actually occurred in California in 1976 and which became the subject of a celebrated decision of the Supreme Court of California, *Moore* v. *Regents of the University of California*, 51 Cal 3d 120; 793 P 2d 479 (1990).

John went into hospital to undergo an exploratory operation to aid diagnosis of unexplained stomach pains he had been suffering. During the course of the operation, Dr A removed tissue from John's stomach lining and stored it so that he could carry out further analysis if his initial diagnosis proved to be incorrect. No further analysis proved necessary: Dr A's initial diagnosis was confirmed, John was successfully treated and made a full recovery, and Dr A gave no further thought to the tissue sample.

By chance, however, it became included in material that Dr B was using in research he was carrying out at the hospital. This material included primary cells (i.e. cells taken directly from the body) taken from a number of different patients in the hospital. Dr B was trying to produce a cell line from these primary cells: it is difficult to locate a gene responsible for producing a particular substance or effect using primary cells, because primary cells typically reproduce a few times and then die. One can, however, sometimes continue to use cells for an extended period of time by developing them into a 'cell line', a culture capable of reproducing indefinitely. This is not, however, always an easy task. 'Longterm growth of human cells and tissues is difficult, often an art', and 'the probability of succeeding with any given cell sample is low' (the *Moore* case). Dr B managed to develop from one

of John's primary cells a cell line containing genetic material with the potential for development into a cheap, effective and safe cure for AIDS. Dr B sold this cell line to the Columbian Drug Company Ltd for  $\pounds 10$  m.

The drugs company, which already owned the patents for a very expensive, not very effective treatment for AIDS, and also for various palliatives for AIDS symptoms, bought the cell line to delay the development of a new drug. It believed, on the advice of its accountants, that it would be in its own financial best interests to continue to market its existing products for as long as possible, and not take steps to develop the new drug until a similarly cheap and effective cure seemed likely to emerge from elsewhere.

What rights and interests might each of these four protagonists plausibly lay claim to in respect of the cell line and its commercial exploitation?

#### 1.2.1. John

Any legally protected interest that John might have in the cell line must derive from an interest in the cell out of which it was developed, which itself must derive from whatever interest John had in the cell when it was still part of his body. Does John own his body, and, if he does, does it follow that he also owned his body cell?

#### 1.2.1.1. The unexcised body cell and the question of ownership

At one level, it might seem strange to question whether one owns a part of one's own body, but on closer consideration the issue is rather complex. We need first to take a brief look at what we mean by ownership. We consider the concept in detail in Chapter 6, where we see that, although 'ownership' is often used loosely as a synonym for 'property', it is more accurately used to describe a particular type of property interest – specifically, the most extensive property interest that any individual can have in a mature legal system that recognises the institution of private property. Most Western legal systems recognise the concept of ownership, but characteristically they also recognise lesser property interests as well (such as the right you acquire in a car if you hire it for a fortnight, or the right I acquire over your land if you grant me a right of way over your driveway to reach my garage). For the moment, however, we will concentrate on ownership itself, not on these other types of property interest.

We see in Chapter 6 that, in attempting to formulate a concept of ownership which would be recognisable in any developed Western market economy, Honoré identifies eleven 'standard incidents' of ownership. He sees these incidents as characteristic of a Western conception of ownership (by which he means ownership by an individual, as opposed to ownership by the state or by a corporation or by a group of people). They are not to be applied mechanistically: he is not suggesting that you cannot possibly be said to be an owner of a thing in any mature legal system if the law does not recognise you as having each one of these incidents. What he does say is that, if you do enjoy all these incidents in relation to a particular thing, most mature legal systems would say you owned it – together they are sufficient conditions for ownership, but no one of them is a necessary condition. We look at all eleven of these incidents in Chapter 6, but for present purposes six of them are of particular interest. According to Honoré, in a mature legal system you would typically be said to be the owner of a thing if you have:

- 1 The right to possess the thing. Possession has a technical meaning and a special significance in English law, which we look at in Chapter 7. For present purposes, you have the right to possess something when the law allocates exclusive physical control of it to you.
- 2 The right to use the thing. Unlike possession, use is not a technical term. Here Honoré confines use to *personal* use and enjoyment, so he would say that you have the right to use something if you may, at your discretion, make whatever personal use and enjoyment of the thing you wish (leaving aside, for present purposes, use in a way that harms others this is something we will consider later).
- 3 The right to manage, which is essentially the right to control the use of the thing, in the sense of being entitled to license others to make personal use of it.
- 4 The right to the income of the thing. This covers both any naturally accruing profits the apples produced by your apple tree and also what Honoré describes as 'a surrogate of use, a benefit derived from forgoing the personal use of a thing and allowing others to use it for reward', for example income produced from capital you invest, or rent received from a flat you let out.
- 5 The right to the capital. This is the right to deal with the thing itself in any way you choose (although again we must put aside for the moment a dealing which harms others). It includes the right to sell or give it away, or to consume it or damage it or destroy it, or to dictate who should have it when you die.
- 6 The right of transmissibility. This is quite complex: it concerns the interest you have in the thing (i.e. the rights and other claims you have over it) rather than the thing itself. Your interest is transmissible if it is capable of being transferred intact to someone else, in the sense that the consequence of the transfer would be that the transferee would acquire all the rights and claims that you had had in that thing, and you would cease to have them. In other words, a transmissible interest is the antithesis of an interest that is purely personal. My right to legal protection for my reputation is a good example of a right that is not transmissible in English law. If it was transmissible, I would be able to sell it to you, with the result that you (and not I) would be entitled to complain and recover damages if a tabloid newspaper published a libellous article about me. There are other examples of interests in things that are inherently personal and not transmissible. In Chapter 9 we look at a long-standing controversy (now resolved by Parliament) over the nature of the right that a wife has to occupy her matrimonial home when it is solely owned by her husband (rather than jointly owned, as would now be more usual). It was always accepted that, as long as the couple remain married, she does have such a right, enforceable *personally* against her husband. The issue was whether it was a *property* right that could be enforced against anyone else – specifically, whether her estranged husband could cause her to be evicted from what had been their matrimonial home by selling it to someone else: if her right was a property right, the buyer would have been bound by it and would have had no more right to evict her

than her husband had had; whereas if it was enforceable only personally against her husband it would not affect the buyer and he could evict her. We see later that one of the reasons why the courts were reluctant to recognise that this right was a property right was that it is inherently non-transmissible: my right to occupy the house that my husband and I have been living in as our matrimonial home could not conceivably be held by anyone other than me – if transferred to anyone else, it would necessarily become different in nature. We can also note here why the issue of transmissibility is controversial: if we were to say that transmissibility was a *necessary* condition for an interest to qualify as a property interest, it would exclude a significant category of rights from proprietary status.

Which of these incidents characterise John's relationship to parts of his body while they still form part of his body? As long as we are talking about a small cell in an expendable bit of one's stomach lining, there seems no particular problem with the first five incidents (although some are rather difficult to visualise). However, the sixth does not seem right: we surely would not expect any legal system to treat John's rights in his body parts as transmissible. Whatever rights a legal system recognises we have in our body tissue *while it is still part of our bodies*, they are almost certainly going to be very different from those (if any) it would want to confer on someone who acquires a bit of that tissue after it has been excised: both the moral and the physical context have changed. If this is true, it means that, while we might have a legal system that allows John a right to sell *this bit of body tissue*, his *interest* in it (or at least the interest he has while it is still part of his body) is not transmissible – the buyer will acquire a different set of rights from those that John had when the tissue was still part of his body.

Once we start talking about more important bits of unexcised body tissue, or about live bodies as a whole, the other incidents begin to look inappropriate as well, or at least not acceptable without significant qualifications. The right to possess your body and unexcised parts of it might initially seem unproblematic. In any legal system operating in a society which respects personal autonomy we would expect the law to allocate exclusive physical control over our own bodies and body parts to us. However, even here there may be controversial claims to make exceptions. Can young children (or mentally incapacitated adults) really be given the right to exclusive physical control over their own bodies, and, if not, who should have the ultimate control? Their parents? The state? And what about, for example, hunger strikers, or adult individuals who refuse medical treatment that could benefit them (perhaps blood transfusions) or prevent harm to others (treatment for infectious diseases, or medication to prevent violent behaviour)? And, once we are past this first incident of ownership, everything becomes even more dominated by difficult moral, political and social issues. The second and fifth incidents - the right to use our bodies in any way we want and our right to deal in the capital interest in them - raise fundamental questions about the nature of the society in which we want to live. The first and obvious point is that an absolute right to use our bodies as we want would leave us free to behave in ways that harm, affront or annoy others. A balance must inevitably be struck between our freedom to behave as we want and the rights of others to be free from harm, affront and annoyance, but it is not easy to arrive at a consensus as to where the balance should be struck. Another difficult issue, and if anything even more controversial, is that a right to use our bodies as we choose, and an absolute right to deal in the capital of our bodies, would leave us free to harm ourselves. Is it necessary, or morally or pragmatically justifiable, for the law to curtail our freedom to abuse, harm or destroy ourselves or parts of our bodies?

The right to destroy the thing is only one aspect of the right to the capital interest in a thing. The other aspects - the right to sell it or to give it away - also cause problems when applied to human bodies. Should I be entitled to sell or donate an essential part of my body, without which I cannot function at all, such as my liver, my brain or my heart? Would it make any difference if I was dying anyway, and the donation was for a transplant to someone else which could not succeed if the organ was removed after my death? Rather different, but no less complex, issues arise when we start talking about body parts without which one could function tolerably well, and the removal of which would not be life-threatening should I be entitled to sell, for example, a limb, an eye, or a kidney? And would it make a difference if it was not a sale but a donation, or if it was prompted by altruism, familial love or duty, or by an inability to withstand family pressure? And what about renewable body parts such as blood, hair, bone marrow, sperm or ova? Should we have an absolute right to sell such body parts to anyone in any circumstances, or should it be absolutely prohibited, or permitted only in some circumstances and subject to certain conditions? It quickly becomes apparent that very different considerations apply depending on the type of body product, and that sale and donation raise quite different issues.

The second and third incidents – the right to manage and the right to income – may also cause us varying degrees of disquiet. Most people would agree that respect for bodily integrity dictates that, if anyone should have the right to permit others to make use of parts of my body, it should be me and no one else. Similarly, if anyone should be entitled to any profits or income accruing from my body or from unexcised body parts, it should be me and no one else. Nevertheless, a formidable range of philosophical, moral, religious and political objections could be made to a legal system that always and in all circumstances allowed me to forgo personal use of parts of my body (or, indeed, the whole) and to license others to make surrogate use of it, whether for my reward or theirs.

So, if we were slavishly to adopt Honoré's incidents here (something he would not himself have advocated), we might be tempted to conclude that you can 'own' some of the small/inessential parts of your body, or at least those not regarded as having any moral, religious or reproductive significance, but not the essential parts. Initially, this may seem a strange conclusion, but it tells us some important things about ownership. First, it tells us that legal systems typically recognise ownership of some things but not of others. Secondly, it demonstrates that, when deciding whether a particular type of thing should or should not be ownable, a legal system is likely to be influenced by a wide range of pragmatic and principled considerations. The same considerations will not necessarily apply in relation to all types of thing, or if they do apply will not carry the same weight – consider, for example, the considerations that would be relevant in deciding whether to recognise ownership of white tigers, water supplies in a desert, sunlight or weapons of mass destruction.

Thirdly, it tells us that ownership is too simple a concept to encompass all the different types and ranges of rights and interests in things that we would expect a mature, efficient and humane legal system to provide. Many of the difficult questions posed above could more appropriately be answered by giving John property rights in his body which fall short of ownership, or by giving him personal rather than property rights. These crucial questions of what amounts to a property right, and the distinction between property and personal rights, are explored in the next four chapters. The specific question of the extent to which English law does in fact recognise property in human bodies and body parts is something we return to in the 'Notes and Questions' section at the end of this chapter.

#### 1.2.1.2. John's interest in the excised body cell

Meanwhile, we have to return to the question of whether John had a property interest in the cell after it had been removed from his body. This was the precise issue faced by the Supreme Court of California in the case on which this story is based, Moore v. Regents of the University of California, 51 Cal 3d 120; 793 P 2d 479 (1990). The Moore case, being a decision of the American courts, is not determinative of the issue in this jurisdiction, but it provides a good illustration of the spectrum of moral and philosophical standpoints taken by common law judges on such issues. In the Moore case, there was only one doctor involved, not two as in our fictitious example, and the cell was removed from Moore's body in the course of an operation to remove his spleen, as part of his treatment for hairy-cell leukaemia. Moore had consented to the operation and to the removal of his spleen, but he had not been told that the doctor in charge of his treatment had already spotted the potential value of his cells and had already decided to take and use them for a particular research project. The issue was whether Moore had any cause of action against that doctor. It was decided that he had, but the majority held that he had only a personal action for breach of the doctor's disclosure obligations, not an action in conversion, which is the cause of action available to someone who can show an unlawful interference with property rights. The issue that divided the majority from the minority was therefore whether Moore could be said to have property rights in the cells which had been removed from his body. If he had been able to show that he had, this would have given him a basis for a claim to a share in the gigantic profits now being made out of the cell line developed from his body tissue. The majority conclusion was that, for the purposes of conversion law at least, a person cannot be said to have 'property' or 'ownership' in his own body

cells once they have been excised from his body (although they were careful to emphasise that 'we do not purport to hold that excised cells can never be property for any purpose whatsoever'). The reasoning which led the majority to this conclusion is important: broadly, they said that to decide otherwise would inhibit socially important medical research, and would give Moore 'a highly theoretical windfall'. The minority, on the other hand, felt strongly that to deny that we have property rights in our own bodies violates the 'profound ethical imperative to respect the human body as the physical and temporal expression of the unique human persona', as Mosk J put it. Also, they were persuaded by the argument that, because the profits to be made from the cell line were a product of both the researcher's skill and Moore's cell, they accordingly ought to be shared proportionately between them (an argument we come across again in Chapter 3). Here, however, we want to note some rather more general points not fully articulated in the *Moore* case, and which we can best appreciate by moving back to our fictitious example, where the question of John's property rights is still open.

#### 1.2.1.3. Continuity of interests and John's interest in the cell line

Assuming for the moment that John does have a property interest in the excised cell, it is worth spelling out why that might give him a proprietary claim in respect of the cell line and the profits made and to be made from it. His claim is essentially a mechanistic one, and it tells us some important (if rather obvious) things about the way property interests behave and the way they are allocated by a legal system. His argument is that, if he had a property interest in his body cell when it was still part of his body, that property interest must necessarily still continue for as long as the cell itself continues to exist, despite changes in form and/or enhancements in value, unless and until something happens to extinguish the interest. Moreover, as long as the *interest* continues to subsist, he must necessarily continue to hold it unless it can be shown to have been passed on to someone else. Property interests do indeed have this mechanistic quality. Leaving aside interests which are specifically limited in time (for example, a ten-year lease of a shop), a presumption of continuance exists, and a person will be presumed to continue to hold an interest which has become vested in him unless there is positive evidence that it has been divested, for example by a sale or gift (we do not lightly find that someone has simply abandoned a property interest). This feature of property interests essentially, they stay put unless positively ended or moved - is important. Property interests in things carry with them liabilities as well as rights. Also, unlike personal interests, they affect everyone who comes into contact with the thing in question. For both these reasons, it is essential that we know at any given time exactly who has what interests in what thing - consider, for example, the case of contaminated land, or a share in a company on which a dividend has just been declared.

So, if we accept for the purposes of this argument that John did own his cell when it was a part of his body, we need to ask whether anything happened *to the cell* that would have extinguished or modified his interest, or alternatively whether at some stage he disposed of his interest before the cell was developed into a cell line. We know that two things happened to the cell. The first was that it ceased to be part of his body, and we have already said that this event causes such a profound change in John's relationship to it that we might be justified in saying that it changes the nature of his interest, or even extinguishes it altogether. The second thing that happened was that Dr B exercised his skill on it to develop it into a cell line. In other words, as the minority dissent in Moore pointed out, even if we assume that John's cell was an ingredient in or component of the cell line, it was not the only one: the cell line was the irreversible product of two things - the cell and Dr B's skill and labour. Sophisticated legal systems will necessarily have rules about what happens when things of different ownership become physically and irreversibly mixed. To a certain extent, similar considerations should apply if one of the ingredients is a physical process (such as heat) rather than a tangible thing. The addition of human skill or labour to a thing raises some of the same considerations but also quite different ones. There is an argument that exploitation of resources to the benefit of society as a whole can best be achieved by conferring property interests on those who expend skill and labour on things, regardless of whether in any particular case their contribution has added value to the thing in question. This is the basis of John Locke's arguments justifying property rights that we consider in Chapter 3, and it also forms the basic premise of intellectual property law. In the Moore case, it was regarded as axiomatic by the majority. They took the view that the value to society of promoting medical research was so high that it was justifiable - in fact necessary to allocate the whole of the property interest in the cell line to the doctor: to allow Moore even a proportionate share in the valuable commodity produced when the doctor mixed his skill and labour with Moore's cell would unacceptably lower the incentive for doctors to carry out medical research on human tissue.

There are other things to be said about Dr B's position, and about Dr A, but first there are some other points to be made about John's proprietary claims.

#### 1.2.1.4. Enforceability of John's interest in the cell line

If John had a property interest in the cell line produced by Dr B which was enforceable against Dr B, does it necessarily follow that it would also be enforceable against the drugs company once the cell line had been sold to the company? We see in Chapter 2 that it is a fundamental characteristic of a property interest in a thing that it is enforceable against everyone who comes into contact with that thing. However, that statement requires some qualification. Common law systems have developed fairly complex sets of rules curtailing the enforceability of interests where, as here, there has been a fragmentation of ownership, as we see in Chapters 14–15 where we look at enforceability in detail. In particular, there are circumstances in which a property interest in a thing will be extinguished by a sale of the thing. The reason for this is that, in a market economy, a legal system that recognises multiple interests in a thing has to reconcile conflicting aims. On the one hand, the full benefits of private property ownership depend on security of interest, and this is best served by a rule that property interests are enforced by law against all the world in all circumstances. On the other hand, the free marketability of resources is hindered by the presence of multiple interest holders whose interests cannot be overridden. For the market to function properly it must be easy for the ownership of resources to pass to those who value them most, but transactions become prohibitively expensive if they require the concurrence of multiple interest holders, especially if their existence is not easily discoverable and identification is difficult. We look more closely at these arguments in Chapter 2. The point we are concerned with here is that most systems balance these competing aims by allowing for some circumstances in which lesser property interests in things can be overridden on a sale of a larger interest in the thing.

In order to understand how this works, it is necessary to appreciate that there are at least two ways of structuring multiple property interests in things, either of which could apply if we conclude that both John and Dr B have property interests in the cell line. One of them is by co-ownership: we could say that John and Dr B co-own the cell line in shares proportionate to the value of their respective contributions. If we adopt Honoré's view of ownership, we would then say that they co-own each of the incidents of ownership. Alternatively, ownership can be fragmented, so that some rights and liabilities become split off and vest in one person while the rest remain vested in or are transferred to someone else. As we see in Chapter 8, only set patterns of fragmentation are permissible, but it would be possible to adopt a pattern of fragmentation which, in effect, gave Dr B all the Honoré incidents of ownership except the right to income, with that right being shared proportionately between John and Dr B. We would then say that Dr B owned the cell line, but his ownership was subject to or encumbered by John's property interest (consisting of a right to a share in the income). However the multiple interests are structured (i.e. whether by co-ownership or by fragmentation) it is the person who holds what Honoré calls the capital interest in the thing who has the capacity and power to sell the thing itself (that, after all, is what the capital interest is). In the case of co-ownership, the capital interest is co-owned, and so there can be no sale or other transfer of ownership without the concurrence of each of the co-owners (although we see later how English law uses the trust to get round the inconvenience this can cause when dealing with co-owned land). If, however, ownership has been fragmented, the capital interest in the thing may well be held by only one of the interest holders. So, for example, if a landowner grants a five-year lease to a tenant, the tenant acquires the right to possess the land for five years (and, in the Honoré classification, the rights to use, income and control for the same period) while the landlord retains the right to capital (and, incidentally, a present right to have possession, use, income and control revert to him in five years' time).

In the interests of marketability, the common law has evolved rules which enable the holder of the capital interest to transfer full ownership of the thing in certain circumstances, so effectively obliterating or overriding any other property interest in the thing held by someone else. In the rules as originally devised by the common law the crucial factors were payment and notice: a buyer from the holder of the capital interest in a thing would not be affected by certain types of property interest affecting that thing unless she had notice of them (we consider below why this privilege was, and still is, confined to buyers). This notice rule, which still operates in some areas of property law as we will see later, has the disadvantage of giving such interest holders no reliable means of ensuring that their interests will remain enforceable - at any time their interest might be obliterated by a sale, without the interest holder becoming aware of the fact. A more sophisticated approach is to substitute registration for notice, and make provision for such interest holders to register their interests. It then becomes possible to adopt a rule that registered interests are enforceable against the whole world in all circumstances, whereas unregistered interests are unenforceable against buyers of the capital interest. Such a system has advantages for everyone concerned: property interest holders whose interests are capable of being overridden on a sale are given the means to ensure that their interest will always and in all circumstances be enforced against the whole world. Holders of the capital interest can easily prove their ability to transfer full ownership by pointing to the absence of any registered interests, and buyers need only check the register to find out exactly what they are buying. However, universal registration of all property interests in all things is not feasible, or even desirable, for reasons we look at more closely in Chapter 10, and in most cases of multiple interest holding there is a measure of uncertainty about enforceability of the individual interests, and a corresponding uncertainty for any buyer who wants to acquire full ownership as to whether there do in fact exist lesser interests in the thing that might be enforceable against her. This uncertainty helps to explain why the majority in Moore was so convinced that it would inhibit the development of therapeutic medical treatments if the person from whose body the cell was taken (Moore) was treated as having a property interest in the cell line apparently owned by the doctor. There is no registration system in operation for human cells, and so drugs companies would be deterred from buying or investing in cell lines in the possession of researchers because of the difficulty of establishing whether or not researchers in possession of cell lines had the power and capacity to pass on full ownership in any particular case.

#### 1.2.1.5. Tracing into exchange products: property rights in Dr B's £10 m

To complete the picture on John's property interests, it should be noted that, if he loses his interest in the cell line because it gets overridden on a sale to the drugs company, he may be able to make a proprietary claim against the £10 m the drugs company paid Dr B for the cell line. If this claim succeeds, John's interest will, in effect, shift from the cell line to its proceeds of sale. This results from the doctrine of tracing (largely outside the scope of this book) which allows a claimant whose interest in a thing ceases because the thing itself has passed into the hands of someone against whom his interest is not enforceable, to make an equivalent

proprietary claim against any asset received in exchange for the thing. Tracing therefore goes some way towards redressing the imbalance caused by restricting the enforceability of property interests. It prevents a seller, like Dr B, whose ownership interest in a resource was encumbered by a lesser property interest, from being unjustly enriched (the price the drugs company paid Dr B was for the cell line free from John's interest, not the lower price it would have paid for the interest Dr B himself had, i.e. the cell line encumbered by John's interest), and gives John an equivalent property interest to replace the interest he has lost. Exceptions to enforceability generally operate only in favour of purchasers, i.e. those who provide value in exchange for the thing (donees are of no relevance in the marketplace, and so there is no need to give them the same privilege over interest holders). Limiting the privilege to those who provide value in exchange for the resource ensures that the seller will be left holding an asset which can be made available as a compensation for the interest holder whose interest has been overridden. Of course, it may not be much help in any particular case - Dr B might have made a bad bargain and sold the cell line for less than it was worth, or he might have disappeared with the money, or spent it, or gone bankrupt, before John realised what had happened.

# 1.2.2. Dr A and Dr B and the acquisition and transmission of property interests

We have already seen that Dr B has formidable arguments in support of a claim to have acquired a property interest in the cell line by virtue of having used his skill and labour to develop the cell line from the cell. If the cell itself had been ownerless property when he acquired it, his argument would have been unassailable, both in Lockean theory and in English intellectual property law. The question of whether this is affected by any property interest in the cell that John might have had has already been touched upon. What about Dr A: did he acquire any prior interest in the cell which might affect the question of Dr B's rights in the cell line? Unless we adopt an absolute rule that no one can ever have any property rights in human bodies and excised body parts (and we see in R. v. Kelly [1999] QB 621, noted at the end of this chapter, why this would not be a sensible rule), Dr A's claim to have a property interest in the cell looks good, although the precise nature of his interest and the route by which he acquired it will vary depending on the view we take of John's rights. If John had property rights in his cell which (whether or not transformed in nature) survived its excision from his body, Dr A would seem to have a claim to the cell justifiable on the same grounds as those that justify Dr B's claim to the cell line: it was, after all, Dr A's skill and labour that removed the cell from John's body. Alternatively, it might be possible to spell out of John's consent to the operation and to the removal of the cell an implied transfer of his rights in the cell to Dr A (in English law, a gift of a chattel – which is what a cell is – requires an intention to make the gift coupled with physical transfer, both of which could be found here). Even if John's rights in the cell automatically ceased as a matter of law as soon as it was excised from his body (which is what the majority on the Moore

case would have said), Dr A would have a good case. His case would be based on the argument of first occupancy - i.e. that ownerless property should be allocated to the person who first takes possession of it (notice the difference between this and Locke's labour/desert argument). We see in Chapter 3 and elsewhere that first occupancy has a strong pull in the allocation of property rights, and in particular that it forms the basis of the common law principle that title to things can be derived solely from factual possession. The important point here, however, is that the presumption of continuity of interest which we have already noted will apply here as well. If Dr A has acquired property rights in the cell by any of these routes, they do not appear to have been dislodged by anything that was done by Dr B, unless we can say that the transformation brought about to the cell by Dr B's work is so dramatic as to justify saying that, in the case of this particular irreversible mixture (what is now Dr A's cell with Dr B's skill and labour), property in the mixture should be allocated wholly to the mixer for the policy reasons which persuaded the majority in the Moore case. There is no other reason for saying that Dr A's rights have been extinguished: Dr B is not a purchaser. There are certainly no grounds for saying that Dr A has abandoned his interest. Putting something on one side and then forgetting it exists does not constitute abandonment: because property entails obligations and liabilities as well as rights, abandonment has to be made much more difficult than that. Dr A's interest must therefore be presumed to have continued and to have been enforceable against Dr B.

#### 1.2.3. The drugs company: constraints on the exercise of property rights

We end by looking at the position of the drugs company. We assume that it has acquired ownership of the cell line free from any interest of John, Dr A or Dr B. The issue we want to highlight now is one raised by its proposal to suppress development of the cell line: do property holders have public responsibilities or are they free to exercise property rights taking into account only their own private selfinterest? If we think that the public interest should be taken into account, at least where the asset is a unique resource of public importance, as this cell line is, then it may be that it is not appropriate for the asset to be the subject of private ownership at all: it ought instead to be publicly owned. We look at this question of the relative merits of private, public and communal property in the next chapter. However, if we conclude that economic efficiency dictates private ownership, does that necessarily mean that it is desirable or inevitable that the drugs company as private owner must be left free to do whatever it wants with the cell line, even if that means leaving it up to the drugs company to decide whether or not to exploit this potentially valuable public resource for the maximum public benefit?

There are two aspects of this to note here and consider more fully in later chapters. It is certainly not an inevitable feature even of private property that a property owner should be free to do whatever it wants with its assets. It is essential to keep in mind that property rules do not operate in a legal vacuum. There will necessarily be private law constraints to prevent harm to others and to reconcile incompatible uses of resources, for example by neighbouring landowners. In addition, it is possible - perhaps even inevitable - to have some degree of public control over the exercise of private property rights. For example, intellectual property law could impose compulsory licensing on the drugs company, making it a term of any patent it granted to the drugs company (without which it would have no legally protected rights in the cell line) that the scientific details were publicly recorded, and requiring the drugs company to license others to exploit it on payment of a fee to the company. Similarly, competition law might intervene to prevent it abusing its monopoly or dominant position, opening the market in its treatments to competitors. The use it can make of the cell line and of other types of human tissue will also be controlled by various regulatory bodies, who in current English law exercise close control over what can and cannot be done with human tissue. Other types of resource can be expected to attract other types of public regulation. To give an obvious example, planning, environmental and health and safety laws impose controls designed to protect the public interest which will regulate the use we make of a wide range of assets including land, buildings of historic, national or artistic significance, other structures built on land, machinery, natural resources such as minerals, growing crops and animals, and artificial constructs such as rubbish tips.

The second aspect of the freedom of action element in private ownership is the complicating factor of corporate ownership. As we see in Chapter 2, analysis and argument on the nature of property tends to proceed on the assumption that the private interest holder is an individual human being. Do the same considerations apply where, as in our example, the interest holder is a corporation? Ownership of corporate resources is vested in a legal fiction, the corporation, but the corporation can only act by human agents. As a matter of strict law, assets owned by a corporation are managed by one group of people - the directors - solely for another group of people - the shareholders - who, for reasons we look at in Chapter 8, may have no effective control over the actions of the managers. Does this cause corporate owners to behave differently from individual owners? Does it alter the picture if the corporate owner is a global enterprise, economically larger and stronger than many of the nation states in which it operates, and not wholly under the legal or social control of any one legal or social system? The economic effects of the actions of a corporate owner are felt by a constituency which is wider than its shareholders (for example, its employees, its customers and suppliers, and the community in which it operates). In deciding how the corporation uses its assets, are its directors required or even entitled to take the interests of these other constituents into consideration? The actions of individual human owners also of course affect the same wide constituency, but human owners can choose to act altruistically in the use of their assets: if a drugs company was a private individual it could choose to market the drug as cheaply as possible in order to maximise the benefit to the public even if it makes less or no profit for the owner itself. Can a corporate owner do that? Also, human owners routinely acknowledge moral

responsibilities in dealing with their assets (for example, towards members of their family, or even to employees or colleagues or customers) and their use of their assets can be motivated by positive desires to confer benefits that they have no legal responsibility to confer (for example, perhaps, to amass as large a fortune as possible to leave to their children when they die), by desires for non-financial rewards such as fame or public esteem, or even vindictive desires to cause harm to others even at a loss to themselves. It is not at all clear how far corporate owners can or should do the same. Should we be making special rules to ensure that, so far as possible, the behaviour of a corporate owner replicates that of an honourable, altruistic human owner, or should we acknowledge the inevitable differences and treat corporate ownership as different in kind from individual private ownership? We return to these questions in Chapter 8, where we look at corporate ownership in the general context of the structures the law uses to enable assets to be held on behalf of and for the benefit of others, and the issues arising out of these varying types of split property holding.

Before doing so, however, we need to refine our notion of property, and this is the subject of the next chapter.

Notes and Questions 1.1

- 1 Read *Moore* v. *Regents of the University of California*, 51 Cal 3d 120; 793 P 2d 479 (1990) and *R*. v. *Kelly* [1999] QB 621, either in full or as extracted at www.cambridge.org/propertylaw/.
- 2 Explain the arguments of the majority and the minority in *Moore*. Which do you find more convincing?
- 3 Why did the Court of Appeal in *Kelly* not feel able to accept that human body parts are always 'property'? On what basis did they nevertheless find that Kelly and Lindsay had been rightly convicted?
- 4 How does the approach of the English Court of Appeal in *Kelly* differ from the approach of the Supreme Court of California in *Moore*? Do you consider that either court gave proper consideration to the question of whether human body parts ought to be regarded as property?
- 5 In English law concentration has shifted to the question of the treatment of body parts removed at *post mortem* examination and retained (in particular at how far relatives have any say in the process) and public enquiries have been held into the practice of organ retention at the Bristol Royal Infirmary and the Alder Hey Hospital in Liverpool. For an account of these developments and an analysis of the legal issues they raise see Mason and Laurie, 'Consent or Property?'