

**Львівський національний університет ветеринарної
медицини та біотехнологій імені С.З.Гжицького**

Кафедра української та іноземних мов

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АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА

для правників

Підручник для студентів

відділення правознавство

Львів 2009

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За загальною редакцією проф. Падури М.Ф.

Підручник складено відповідно до програми з англійської мови для немовних вищих навчальних закладів за професійним спрямуванням (правознавство). Складається з текстів на загально побутову тематику (25 % матеріалу) та адаптованих текстів з різних галузей права (75 % матеріалу), лексико-граматичних вправ, граматичного довідника, списку найуживаніших нестандартних дієслів, мовних ситуацій, текстів для домашнього читання у двох частинах та англо-українського словника юридичних термінів.

Призначається для студентів першого та другого курсів за спеціальністю правознавство.

Рецензенти: ст. викл. Лісько Л.О. та Ваврін Н.П.

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Слово до студентів

Сьогодні ви всі ще студенти першого курсу, але минуть роки і ви станете відомими людьми – професійними правниками займете високі службові посади у майбутній Україні. І це станеться незадовго, але до того на вас чекає важка, щоденна і наполеглива праця, бо без великої праці людина нічого не може здобути, і цю працю треба починати не завтра, а вже сьогодні.

Спеціальність правознавство відкрили в університеті зовсім недавно, тому все тут нове. І, звичайно, найважливішим є забезпечити студентів навчально-методичною літературою з кожної дисципліни, яка тут викладається вперше. Така ж проблема стояла і перед кафедрою, щоб мати потрібну літературу для навчання англійської мови нинішніх студентів, а майбутніх правників. Праця упродовж двох років принесла втішні плоди: і ось виходить у світ наша книжка під назвою „English for Lawyers”, підручник англійської мови для студентів-правників, що розрахований на два роки навчання. Його метою є професійне спрямування вивчення англійської мови, тобто одночасно з вивченням фахових предметів студенти будуть вивчати англійську лексику з різних галузей права. І може статися так, що англійською мовою студенти деколи будуть знайомитися з основними засадами певного права ще до того, як вони будуть слухати лекції за фахом рідною мовою, що лише полегшить їм розуміння матеріалу. За будь-яких обставин, студент правознавства повинен розуміти, що формування його як правника відбувається коли більшою, коли меншою мірою на кожній дисципліні – спеціальній чи загальноосвітній, котра викладається в університеті. Безсумнівно, шлях цей довгий і важкий, але систематична і наполеглива праця завжди проводить до знань, а людські знання – це сила, тому і казали древні: *Scientia potentia est*.

Тож хай надихають вас на щоденну працю, якою є для вас ваше навчання, такі слова одного професора Оксфордського університету ще зі середніх віків: „Живи так, ніби ти маєш завтра померти, а працюю так, ніби ти будеш жити вічно”.

28 червня 2009 року.

Автори

Англійський алфавіт

| Буква друкована | Буква писана | Назва букви |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------|
| A a | A a | [εI] |
| B b | B b | [β√] |
| C c | C c | [σ√] |
| D d | D d | [δ√] |
| E e | E e | [√] |
| F f | F f | [εφ] |
| G g | G g | [≥√] |
| H h | H h | [εIθ] |
| I i | I i | [αI] |
| J j | J j | [≥εI] |
| K k | K k | [κεI] |
| L l | L l | [ελ] |
| M m | M m | [εμ] |
| N n | N n | [εν] |
| O o | O o | [ου] |
| P p | P p | [π√] |
| Q q | Q q | [κφ] |
| R r | R r | [©] |
| S s | S s | [εσ] |
| T t | T t | [τ√] |
| U u | U u | [φ] |
| V v | V v | [ϖ√] |
| W w | W w | [εδ)βλφ] |
| X x | X x | [εκσ] |
| Y y | Y y | [ωαI] |
| Z z | Z z | [ζεδ] |

Lesson 1

1. Англійський алфавіт.
2. Відкритий і закритий склади.
3. Голосний **a** у наголошеному складі.
4. Дієслово **to be** у Present, Past і Future Indefinite.
5. Питання з дієсловом **to be**.
6. Текст: **I am a student.**

Вивчіть речення, де є всі букви англійського алфавіту:
The brown quick fox jumps over the lazy dog.

Попередні вправи

1. Визначте відкритий і закритий склади:
be, he, me, no, my, do, bit, his, met, not, map, did, lip.

2. Прочитайте слова. Зважайте на вимову голосного **a**:

| a [ɛ] | a [ʌ] | ar [ɑ] | are [ɛə] |
|--------------|--------------|---------------|-----------------|
| cake | cat | lard | care |
| lake | lap | bar | bare |
| make | map | mark | mare |
| take | tab | task | tare |
| sake | sad | star | spare |

3. Прочитайте слова:

A'cademy, 'Monday, 'History, 'Chemistry, 'copy-book, 'subject, 'favourite, 'study, 'student, 'specialist.

I AM A STUDENT

This is our University. I study here. I am a student. I am a first-year student. My friend Petro is a student too. We study at the University. In five years we shall be specialists.

We study in group 2. We are twenty in our group. Today is Monday. On Monday we have three classes: in History of Ukraine, Latin and English.

We are in classroom 2. It is large, light and clean. The board is brown, the floor is brown too. The walls are white, the door is white too.

We have English today. We read, write and speak English. I have a textbook and two copy-books. I like English very much. It is my favourite subject.

Notes

1. in five years – через 5 років
2. we are twenty – нас двадцять

Запам'ятайте

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. What are you? – I am a student. | Хто ти (ви) за професією? – Я студент. |
| 2. What is he? – He is a lawyer. | Хто він? – Він юрист. |
| 3. How are you? – Thank you. I am well. | – Як ся маєш? Як ся маєте? – Дякую. Дуже добре. |

EXERCISES

I. Перекладіть слова, що в дужках.

1. (Через 5 років) I shall be a lawyer.
2. (Через 4 роки) he will be a veterinary doctor.
3. (Через 3 роки) she will be a veterinary sanitation expert.
4. (Через 2 роки) they will be managers.
5. (Через 1 рік) you will be doctors.
6. (Через 10 хвилин) the breakfast will be over.
7. (Через 7 тижнів) they will come back.

II. Побудуйте ввічливу форму за зразком:

Read text 1. – Read text 1, please.

1. Read text 3. 2. Open your books on page 5. 3. Close your books. 4. Go into room 6. 5. Translate text 10. 6. Go to the Dean. 7. Come home in time. 8. Speak English louder.

III. Поставте дієслово *to be* у *Present Indefinite*.

1. I ... a student. 2. Petro ... a student too. 3. You ... also a student. 4. You ... students of the University. 5. They ... students of the University too. 6. I ... not a doctor. 7. She ... not a teacher. 8. They ... not pupils. 9. We ... not at the Academy. 10. ... he in the classroom? 11. ... you ill? – Yes, I No, I ... not. 12. ... they busy? Yes, they 13. He ... guilty.

IV. Поставте речення у заперечній формі.

1. He is in Lviv now. 2. We are in England. 3. I am in London. 4. They are in Oxford now. 5. She is a doctor. 6. My brother is ill. 7. My sister is ill too. 8. They are citizens of Ukraine.

V. Дайте відповіді на питання.

1. Are you a student? 2. Is your friend at the University now? 3. Was he in London last week? 4. Were you a pupil last year? 5. Will you be a lawyer? 6. Will they be at home in the evening? 7. Where was your friend on Sunday? 8. When were you born? 9. Where were you born?

VI. Поставте загальні питання і дайте коротку відповідь.

1. He is a young man. 2. She is an old woman. 3. Our family is large. 4. Our city is beautiful. 5. He is a judge. 6. Verkhovna Rada is the Ukrainian Parliament. 7. All citizens of Ukraine are equal before the law.

VII. Дайте повні відповіді на питання.

1. What is white? (the door, the wall, milk, snow, sugar).
2. What is red? (blood, meat, the face).

3. What was red? (the flag, his eyes, the paper).
4. What will be black? (the table, the bag, the hair).

VIII. Поставте до поданих слів запитання за зразком і дайте відповіді на них (повну і коротку).

Зразок: Who is the monitor in our group?

- Peter Rauluk is the monitor in our group.
- Peter Rauluk is.

A monitor, a teacher, a professor, a dean, a rector, a judge, a procurator, a minister, a prime minister, a president.

IX. З поданими словами утворіть речення.

Зразок: England is a country in Europe.

English is an official language in Great Britain.

| Countries | Languages |
|------------------|------------------|
| England | English |
| Ukraine | Ukrainian |
| Poland | Polish |
| France | French |
| Germany | German |
| Spain | Spanish |
| Italy | Italian |

X. Поставте речення у часових формах (*Past Indefinite, Future Indefinite Tense*)

1. I am in the reading room. 2. You are in classroom 5. 3. He is in the dining room. 4. She is in the waiting room. 5. We are in the bathroom. 6. They are in the swimming bath. 7. She is a judge.

XI. Утворіть скорочені форми.

a) I am. You are. He is. She is. It is. We are. They are.

b) I am not. You are not. He is not. She is not. It is not. We are not. They are not.

c) I was not. You were not. He was not. She was not. We were not. They were not.

d) I shall be. You will be. We shall be. He will be. She will be. They will be.

e) I shall not be. We shall not be. He will not be. She will not be. They will not be.

XII. Дайте відповіді на питання з дієсловом *to be*.

| What? (що? хто?) | Who? (хто?) | Where? (де?) |
|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| What is this? | Who is he? | Where is he? |
| What are they doing? | Who are they? | Where is she? |
| What is he? | Who is speaking? | Where are they? |

XIII. Дайте відповіді до тексту (якщо можливо, то повні і короткі).

1. Is this our University? 2. Are you a student? 3. What are you? 4. Is your friend a student too? 5. What will you be in five years? 6. What is the day today? 7. Where are you? 8. What is white in our room? 9. What colour is the blackboard? 10. What colour are the walls? 11. Is English your favourite subject?

XIV. Перекладіть англійською (чи рідною) мовою.

a) 1. Я вчуся в університеті. 2. Я студент I курсу. 3. Через 5 років я буду юристом. 4. Я вчуся у ... групі. 5. Сьогодні ... (день). 6. Наша кімната велика і чиста. 7. Ми вивчаємо тут англійську мову. 8. Я маю підручник і два зошити. 9. Англійська мова – мій улюблений предмет. 10. Я люблю також історію і право.

b) – Хто ви? (за родом занять, за професією?)

– Я студент. А ви?

- Я теж студент? Я вчуся в університеті. А ви?
- Я теж вчуся в університеті. Через 5 років я буду юристом.
- Я також буду юристом. До побачення.
- с) – How are you?
- Thank you. I am very well. How are you?
- Thanks. I am very well too.
- Good-bye.
- д) – Hello, Olya. Nice to see you! How are you?
- Hello, Roman. I'm well. And how are you?
- Not so good. I have never time. Bye-bye!
- See you later.

XV. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією англійські вітання:

How do you↓ do?

Good↓ morning. Good after↓noon. Good↓ evening.

He↑llo.

↓How are you? I am↓ well, ↓thank you.

XVI. Текст для аудіювання: Вітання по-англійськи?

In the morning we greet one another saying “Good morning”. We answer “Good morning”.

After 12 o'clock we say “Good afternoon” and we answer “Good afternoon”.

In the evening (after 6 o'clock) we say “Good evening” and for answering we use “Good evening”.

If we meet a friend we say “Hallo”. The answer is “Hallo”.

At any time of the day we may say “How do you do?” and we answer “How do you do?”

XVII. Запишіть слова та вирази у свій словничок. Перевірте себе, чи пам'ятаєте їх:

a) a student, to be, a University, to study, here, a first-year student, a friend, too, a specialist, a group, today, Monday, to have, a lesson, History, Law, English, Latin, a classroom, large, light, clean, a blackboard, brown, a floor, a wall, white, black, a door, now, to read, to write, to speak, a text-book, a copy-book, to like, my, favourite, a subject, a lawyer, a judge, guilty, a teacher, a Dean, a cow, an animal, milk, meat, sugar, blood, an eye, a face, a hair;

b) in five years, we are twenty, very much, to be over, on Monday, at the University, from ... till.

c) What are you? How are you? Thank you. I am very well. Good morning. Good afternoon. Good evening.

It can be of use

Congratulations

Зі святом

Happy New Year!

Best wishes for the

New Year!

Merry Christmas!

З Новим роком!

Найкращі побажання з

Новим роком!

Веселих Різдвяних свят!

З днем народження

Many happy returns of the day!

Happy birthday to you!

May all your dreams come true!

З днем народження!

З днем народження!

Хай здійсняться всі твої (ваші) мрії!

З різної нагоди

My congratulations to you!

I wish you luck!

Good luck to you!

A happy journey!

Have a good time!

Мої вітання!

Бажаю успіхів!

Успіхів вам (тобі)!

Щасливої поїздки!

Бажаю гарно провести час!

Lesson 2

1. Голосний **o** у наголошеному складі. Сполучення **oo**.
2. Дієслово **to have** у Present, Past і Future Indefinite.
3. Звороти **there is, there are**.
4. Суфікс іменників **-er**.
5. Текст: **At the University**.

Попередні вправи

1. Перекладіть слова на слух.

A , to study, a student, a friend, too, a specialist, today, Monday, a lesson, History, a judge, guilty, large, a blackboard, a wall, to read, to write, to speak, to like, a subject, thank you, thank you very much, how are you?

2. Прочитайте слова. Зважайте на різну вимову голосного **o**:

| o [ou] | o [O] | or [ɔ] | ore [ɔ] |
|---------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|
| bone | box | born | bore |
| code | cock | corn | core |
| dole | dog | lord | lore |
| froze | frog | for | fore |
| mote | smog | pork | more |

3. Прочитайте слова з подвоєним **oo**:

| oo [u] | oo [ɪ] | oo [ɔ] | oo [ʌ] |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| book | cool | door | blood |
| cook | food | floor | flood |
| foot | soon | | |
| look | spoon | | |
| took | too | | |
| wood | tooth | | |
| wool | tool | | |

AT THE UNIVERSITY

I live and study in the city of Lviv. It is a big city in Western Ukraine. There are fifteen state higher schools here. Lviv University of veterinary medicine and biotechnologies is one of them. It is more than 120 years old.

There are five faculties at our University, namely the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, the Faculty of Biology and Technology, the Faculty of Food Technologies, the Faculty of Economics and Management, and the Faculty of Pre-academic Studies.

I study at the Faculty of Pre-academic Studies. There are two divisions at our faculty, namely the division of Science of Law and the Preparatory division.

Our students have three or four classes a day. They work much at lessons, in laboratories and also in the library. The students of the University live in four hostels.

Notes

is one of them – є одна з них

is more than 120 years old – має понад 120 років

Запам'ятайте

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. How old are you? – I am 18 (years old). | Скільки тобі (вам) років? – Мені 18 (років). |
| 2 .What is your name? – My name is ... | Як тебе (вас) звать? – Мене звать ... |

EXERCISES

I. Дайте відповіді про свою сім'ю.

1. How old are you? 2-7. How old is your mother? (your father, your brother, your sister, your grandmother, your grandfather). 8. How are you? 9. What are you?

II. Починайте переклад з кінця речення. Поставте загальні питання до кожного речення.

1. There are 12 months in a year. 2. There are 7 days in a week. 3. There are 4 seasons in a year. 4. There are 30 or 31 days in a month. 5. There are 60 seconds in a minute. 6. There are 60 minutes in an hour. 7. There are 365 or 366 days in a year. 8. There are one hundred years in a century.

III. Продовжіть відповіді на питання за зразком.

How many days are there in January?

– There are 31 days in January.

1-11. How many days are there in February? (in March?, in April?, in May?, in June?, in July?, in August?, in September?, in October?, in November?, in December?).

IV. Складіть речення з поданих слів:

| | | |
|-----------|--------------|---------------------|
| | meat | in the glass |
| | milk | in the room |
| There is | an apple | in the bottle |
| There are | a blackboard | in the refrigerator |
| | students | on the wall |
| | 10 books | on the shelf |
| | little water | on the table |

V. Прочитайте. Утворіть аналогічні короткі діалоги:

A. – There is a book on the table.

– Is there a magazine there?

– No, there isn't.

B. – There is little milk in this bottle.

– Is there much milk in that bottle.

– Yes, there is.

- C. – There are a lot of students in the laboratory.
– Are there many students in the clinic too?
– No, there are not many.

VI. Поясніть вживання виділених слів.

There is *somebody* in the room.

There is *nobody* in the room.

Is there *anybody* in the room?

There are *some* pictures on the wall.

There are *no* pictures on the wall.

Are there *any* pictures on the wall?

There is *something* on the desk.

There is *nothing* on the desk.

Is there *anything* on the desk?

VII. Поставте дієслово *to have* у *Present Indefinite*.

1. I always ... time.
2. We ... no time.
3. He never ... time.
4. She ... many English books.
5. I ... an English dictionary.
6. ... you good friends?
7. We ... breakfast at 8 o'clock every day.
9. They ... their dinner at home.
9. We ... rights and duties.

VIII. Поставте питання, щоб можна було дати стверджувальну відповідь.

1. He has a stipend.
2. She has an ordinary stipend.
3. I have an increased stipend.
4. They have a stipend too.
5. He had a stipend last year.
6. She will have a stipend next year.

IX. Поставте речення у *Past Indefinite*.

1. I have an English dictionary.
2. You have English Grammar.
3. He has a book and an exercise-book.
4. She has a pen and a pencil.
5. We have no time.
6. They have new ideas.
7. The judges have a higher legal education.

X. Утворіть скорочені форми:

a) I have not. You have not. He has not. She has not. It has not. We have not. They have not.

b) I had not. He had not. We had not. They had not.

XI. Дайте відповіді на питання до тексту:

1. Is our city big or small. 2. How many higher schools are there in Lviv? 3. How old is our University? 4. How many faculties are there at our University. 5. Which is the new faculty at the University? 6. Are there two or three divisions at the new faculty? 7. When have you English? 8. How many hostels are there at our University? 9. Is it your fault?

XII. Утворіть іменники від дієслів і перекладіть.

Зразок: to read – a reader

читати – читач

to write, to teach, to work, to speak, to help, to examine, to lead, to lecture, to play, to swim, to run, to deal, to feed, to fight, to look, to hunt, to lead, to listen, to hear, to sell, to buy, to manage.

XIII. Перекладіть англійською мовою:

a) 1. Ми вчимося у Львові. 2. Тут є багато вищих навчальних закладів. 3. Один із них – це Львівський національний університет ветеринарної медицини та біотехнологій. 4. Наш університет має ... років. 5. Ми вчимося на відділі правознавство. 6. Моя подруга є також студентка. 7. Вона першокурсниця. 8. Сьогодні ми мали три пари. 9. Я багато працюю на заняттях та у бібліотеці.

б) – Скільки тобі (вам) років?

– Вісімнадцять.

– Скільки років має наш університет?

– Вона має 125 років.

– Як звати нашого декана?

XIV. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією вирази на прохання:

Good↑-bye. So↑ long. See you to↑morrow. See you↑ later.
Good↑ morning. Good after↑noon. Good↑ evening.

XV. Текст для аудіювання.

OXFORD COLLEGES

Oxford is an old university in England. This university has 32 colleges – 27 for men and 5 for women. There are 16 faculties there, among them the law. A large college has about 500 students, about one hundred students study at a small college.

During the first days at Oxford the student meets his tutor (teacher) and begins to work. The tutor tells him about the lectures which he must attend and gives the list of books which the student must read during the term.

At the beginning or end of each term the student must take examinations in written form.

XVI. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) to live, a city, big, Western Ukraine, a school, a higher school, veterinary medicine, a year, old, a faculty, namely, sanitary, technological, marketing, management, where, a division, sanitation, a product, meat products, technology, fat, a substitute, ecology, environment, a protection, to work, a class, classes, a laboratory, a hostel, a grandmother, a grandfather, a brother, a sister, a breakfast, a dinner, a supper, a dictionary, a stipend, an ordinary stipend, an increased stipend, an apple, a bottle, a shelf, a refrigerator;

b) there is, there are, one of them, more than, every day, at 9 o'clock, on page 10, in classroom 2.

c) What is your name? How old are you? How old is your brother? How old is our University? How are you?

Professions

| | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| a student – студент | a combine-operator – комбайнер |
| a student – студентка | a seller – продавець |
| a monitor – староста | a tailor – кравець |
| a teacher – вчитель | a foreman – майстер |
| a professor – професор | a painter – маляр |
| a dean – декан | a bricklayer – муляр |
| a rector – ректор | a barber – перукар (ч) |
| a prime minister – прем'єр-міністр | a hairdresser – перукар (ж) |
| a president – президент | a musician – музикант |
| an agronomist – агроном | a pig tender – свинарка |
| an architect – архітектор | a fitter – слюсар |
| a builder – будівельник | a carpenter – тесляр |
| an accountant – бухгалтер | a turner – токар |
| a driver – водій | a farmer – фермер |
| a typist – друкарка | a technician – технік |
| an employee – службовець | a cook – кухар |
| a writer – письменник | a poet – поет |
| a doctor – лікар | a veterinary doctor – ветеринарний лікар |
| a surgeon – хірург | a marketist – маркетолог |
| a manager – менеджер | a lawyer – адвокат |
| a judge – суддя | a prosecutor – прокурор |
| a procurator – прокурор | |

Lesson 3

1. Голосний **u** в наголошеному складі.
2. Голосний **a** перед двома приголосними.
3. Множина іменників.
4. Особові займенники.
5. Суфікс іменників **-ture**.
6. Текст: **We study at the University.**

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте хором:
academic, autumn, examination, busy, holidays, lecture, laboratory, History of State and Law, Practice of Law, Latin, Constitutional Law, educational, attentive, prepare, homework.

2. Прочитайте слова. Зважайте на різну вимову голосного **u**:

| υ [φ] | υ [ʃ] | υρ [ɹ] | υρε [φ]≅] |
|-------|-------|--------|-----------|
| blue | but | burn | cure |
| cue | cut | curd | cureless |
| duty | dust | fur | mure |
| human | hunt | nurse | pure |
| tube | sun | turn | lure |

3. Прочитайте, зважайте на вимову **a** перед двома приголосними як [©].

class, fast, ask, after, master, grass, glass, pass, chance, bath.

4. Вимовляйте сполучення **-ture** як [∂≅]

| | | | |
|---------|---------|-----------|---------|
| picture | culture | structure | future |
| lecture | nature | moisture | feature |

WE STUDY AT THE UNIVERSITY

We study at Lviv University of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnologies. The academic year begins on the 1st (first) of September and ends in July. It lasts for 10 months: September, October, November, December, February, March, April, May, June, July. The year has two terms: the autumn term and the spring term. The autumn term ends in December. The spring term begins in February and ends in July. Each term ends with examinations.

We have two holidays a year: in winter and in summer. Winter holidays are short, they last only two weeks. The summer holidays are long, they last a month. During our holidays we rest.

We study at the University five days a week. On Saturday and Sunday we rest. Classes begin at 9 o'clock and are over at about 3 o'clock or half past 3 in the afternoon. We must attend lectures and practical classes, carry out laboratory tests. In the first year we study History of State and Law, Practice of Law, the Principles of Economics, History of Ukraine, Latin and other subjects.

All students learn foreign languages: English, German or French. We learn English. As we want to read and speak English well, we always prepare our homework. English is not difficult for us because we work at it regularly. We are fond of English and want to master it.

Notes

1. in the first year – на першому курсі
2. as we want – оскільки ми хочемо
3. we are fond of – ми любимо

Запам'ятайте

- | |
|--|
| 1. Thank you (very much) Дуже дякую |
|--|

| | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| – Not at all. | – Нема за що. |
| – Don't mention it. | – Нема за що. |
| 2. What day is it today? | Який сьогодні день? |
| – It is Monday today. | – Сьогодні понеділок. |

EXERCISES

I. Поставте дієслово *to be* у *Present Indefinite*

1. I ... 18 years old.
2. You ... 20 years old.
3. She ... 17.
4. My brother ... 25 years old.
5. My father ... 45 years old.
6. My grandfather ... 70 years old.
7. How old ... you?
8. How old ... your brother?
9. How old ... your sister?
10. How ... you?

II. Дайте відповіді на питання.

1. What are you?
2. Where are you?
3. How are you?
4. How old are you?
5. What day is it today?
6. What's the time now?
7. How old is our University?
8. How old is our city? (750 years old).
9. How old is your Faculty?
10. How old is the capital of Ukraine? (more than 1500 years old).

III. Як називаються виділені займенники.

1. *I* am in the room. They see *me*.
2. *You* are in the room. They see *you*.
3. *He* is in the room. They see *him*.
4. *She* is in the room. They see *her*.
5. *It* is in the room. They see *it*.
6. *We* are in the room. They see *us*.
7. *You* are in the room. They see *you*.
8. *They* are in the room. We see *them*.

IV. Перекладіть сполучення.

Довідка: with – з, зі, about – про, for – для
зі мною, про мене, для мене, дай мені; з ним, про нього, для мене, дай йому; з нею, про неї, для неї, дай їй;

з нами, про нас, для нас, дай нам; з ними, про них, для них; дай їм, дайте їм, прошу дати їм.

V. Утворіть множину іменників.

Зразок: a table – tables – two tables – some tables.

Зважайте при цьому на вимову суфікса множини іменників:

s [s] – a month, a week, a test, a student, a park

s [z] – a year, a term, a holiday, a lecture, a school

(e)s [ɪz] – a place, a box, a house, a dress, a bus

Зважайте також на зміну голосного у в кінці слова:

a baby, a body, a city, a country, a story, a lady, a county, a duty; Academy, University, Faculty, difficulty, property.

VI. Утворіть форми однини. Перекладіть.

Зразок: teeth – a tooth – зуб.

Teeth, feet, men, women, oxen, children, lives, wives, leaves, sheep, deer, mice, knives, wolves, cities, duties, bodies.

VII. Поставте речення у множині.

1. He is a young man. 2. She is an old woman. 3. The child plays in the garden. 4. On the table I see a fork, a knife, a glass, a plate and a spoon. 5. The mouse is small. 6. The deer has fine horns. 7. The wolf lives in the woods. 8. The sheep gives us wool and mutton. 9. The ox is a strong animal. 10. A young calf likes fresh milk. 11. A little boy plays with a pet.

VIII. Скажіть так, щоб мова йшла про кілька осіб або предметів.

1. I study at the University. 2. He works as a procurator. 3. This book is interesting. 4. That book is also interesting. 5. She has a pen. 6. A glass is on the table. 7. He will be a lawyer. 8. She lives in independent Ukraine.

IX. Використайте у кожному реченні зворот *there are*.

1. There is a large table in my room. 2. There is a pen, a pencil, and a notebook on your desk. 3. There is not a book on his table. 4. There is a chair at their table. 5. There is a clock on that wall. 6. There is a piece of chalk on the blackboard. 7. There is no picture on the wall. 8. Is there a clock in the classroom?

X. Прочитайте назви днів тижня:

| | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| Monday [ˈmʌnɪ] | Thursday [ˈtʰɜːzdi] |
| Tuesday [ˈtuːzdi] | Friday [ˈfrɑːɪdi] |
| Wednesday [ˈwɛnzdi] | Saturday [ˈsæt̩ɪdi] |
| Sunday [ˈsʌnɪ] | |

Утворіть за зразком, перекладіть:

on Sunday – у неділю

on Sundays – по неділях

XI. Дайте відповіді на питання до тексту.

1. Where is the University of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnologies situated? 2. How many terms has an academic year at our University? 3. When have you your winter holidays? 4. When have you your summer holidays? 5. Which holidays are short? 6. Which holidays are long? 7. Must you attend lectures and practical classes? 8. What is your favourite subject? 9. Is English difficult for you? 10. Why is English (not) difficult for you? 11. What are you fond of?

XII. Перекладіть англійською

а) Я вчуся у Львівському університеті ветеринарної медицини та біотехнологій. Навчальний рік має два семестри: осінній семестр і весняний семестр. Ми вчимося 10 місяців на рік. Улітку ми відпочиваємо тільки один місяць. Ми вчимося від понеділка до п'ятниці. У суботу і неділю ми відпочиваємо. Заняття в університеті починаються о 9.00. На першому курсі

ми вивчаємо історію держави і права, адвокатуру й основи економіки. Ми вивчаємо одну іноземну мову. Я вивчаю англійську. Я регулярно працюю над мовою, тому що я люблю її.

- б) – Як живеш, мій друже?
- Дуже дякую, добре.
- Радий бачити тебе.

XIII. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією відповіді на подяку.

↓Thank you. Thank you↓ very much. That's all↓ right.

↓Thanks. Don't ↓mention it.
Thanks↓ a lot. Not at ↓all.

XIV. Текст для аудіювання.

BRITISH UNIVERSITIES

The academic year of Britain's Universities has three terms. They are from October to the middle of December, from the middle of January to the end of March and from the middle of April to July. There are ten weeks in each term.

The students have examinations at the end of each term, that is at the end of the autumn, spring and summer terms. Final examinations are at the end of course of studies.

XV. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) yesterday, tomorrow, academic, to begin, to end, January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December, to last for, a term, autumn, spring, each, with, an examination, a credit test, which, holidays, winter, summer, long, short, during, to rest, to go, a week, about, must, to attend, a lecture, to carry out, a test, to do, a work, Practice of Law, Constitutional Law, History, Ukraine, other, to learn, foreign, language,

German, French, Latin, to want, well, always, to prepare, our, a homework, difficult, for, because, regularly, to master;

b) on the first of September, in January, a week, in the afternoon, in the first year, to be fond of.

c) Thank you very much. Don't mention it. Not at all. That's all right. What day is it today? What day was it yesterday?

It can be of use

Time determination

On

Monday – понеділок

Tuesday – вівторок

Wednesday – середа

Thursday – четвер

Friday – п'ятниця

Saturday – субота

Sunday – неділя

On Sunday – у неділю

On Sundays – по неділях

In

January – січень

February – лютий

March – березень

April – квітень

May – травень

June – червень

July – липень

August – серпень

September – вересень

October – жовтень

November – листопад

December – грудень

In December – у грудні

In 2005 – у 2005 році; 2005 року

At

At 9 o'clock – о дев'ятій годині

At a quarter past 9 – чверть на десяту

At 9 a.m. – о дев'ятій годині (зранку)

At 9 p.m. – о дев'ятій годині (вечора)

At half past 9 – пів на 10

At the University – в університеті

Lesson 4

1. Голосний **e** у наголошеному складі.
Буквосполучення **ee, ea**.
2. Буквосполучення **ai, au, ei, ey** під наголосом.
3. Модальні дієслова **can, may, must** у Present і Past Indefinite.
4. Присвійні займенники. Присвійний відмінок іменників.
5. Суфікс **-tion**.
6. Текст: **Our University**.

Попередні вправи

1. Перекладіть слова на слух:

to last, February, two terms, autumn term, spring term, holidays, one month, for two weeks, on Sunday, we rest, half past ten, to attend lectures, a test paper, Law and other subjects.

2. Читайте хором:

take, tab, arm, mare, hare, farm, map, make, born, fog, bone, core, more, pork, smog, froze, blue, but, barn, cure, nurse, hand, duty, ask, master, grass, class, after, large, farm.

3. Прочитайте слова:

а) зважайте на різну вимову голосного **e**

| e [√] | e [ɛ] | er [ɹ] | ere [Iɜ] |
|--------------|--------------|---------------|-----------------|
| be | bed | her | bere |
| bede | let | fern | here |
| dene | pen | nerve | mere |
| me | men | per | severe |
| mete | ten | serve | sphere |

б) зважайте на вимову **ee** та **ea**

| ee [ʋ] | ea [ʋ] | ea [ɛ] |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| beef | dean | head |
| feet | each | death |
| feed | meat | ready |
| meet | sea | health |
| sheep | weak | wealth |

в) читайте слова парами

meet – met

dean – dead

reed – read

read – ready

heat – head

weal – wealth

4. Зверніть увагу на прийменники **on** та **in**:

on – on Sunday – у неділю, on the first of December – першого грудня;

in – in August – у серпні, in 1991 – у 1991 році.

5. Прочитайте слова зважаючи на суфікс **-tion [Σv]**:

nation, relation, solution, constitution, co-operation, ration.

OUR UNIVERSITY

There are 15 higher schools in our city. Lviv University of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnologies is one of them. The University has five faculties: the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, the Faculty of Biology and Technology, the Faculty of Food Technologies, the Faculty of Economics and Management, and the Faculty of Pre-academic Studies. The University is run by the Rector and the faculties are headed by Deans. Our University trains veterinary doctors, zooengineers, veterinary sanitation experts, technologists of meat and milk products, managers, economists and lawyers. They are specialists whom our young state needs today and will need tomorrow.

The University is 124 years old. It has rich and glorious history. In 1881 the Veterinary school was opened in the city of Lviv. In 1896 the school was renamed into Lviv University of Veterinary Medicine. Since 1939 it was the Veterinary Institute with one faculty only. The second faculty – Zootechnical or Zooengineering Faculty (now the Faculty of Biology and TEchnology) – was set up in 1949. In 1991 the third faculty – the Faculty of Food Technologies – was opened here. Two new faculties were created in 2001 – the Faculty of Pre-academic Studies and in 2002 – the Faculty of Economics and Management. In June 1992 the Academy regained its former name. Professor Peter Seifman was the first director of Veterinary school, professor Joseph Spielman was the first rector of the Academy, the first rector of the Academy in independent Ukraine is professor Roman Yo. Kravtsiv. In 1994 the Academy received the name of its former student, prominent scientist – Prof. Stepan Gzhytskyj (1900-1976). In 2003 it got the national status. In 2007 the Academy was renamed into the University of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnologies named after S.Z. Gzhytskyj.

There are full-time and extra-mural departments at the University. About 2000 students are at the full-time department, they study for 5 or 5.5 years. More than 1660 extra-mural students combine their work with their studies. There are 34 chairs at the University and about 300 teachers work here, 40 professors including.

The University has 5 educational buildings with many lecture-halls, classrooms and laboratories. Four hostels, two libraries, four clinics, a sports complex and a sports camp are at the students' disposal. There are three museums at the University: the Museum of University's History, the Museum of Horseshoes and the Anatomical Museum. The students also work in different scientific circles and go in for sports.

Notes

1. is run by the Rector – ректор керує (університетом)

2. whom our state needs – які потрібні нашій державі
3. 40 professors including – включаючи 40 професорів
4. are at the disposal – є у розпорядженні
5. go in for sports – займаються спортом

Запам'ятайте

| | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| What is the date today? | Яке сьогодні число? |
| Who is on duty today? | Хто сьогодні черговий? |
| – I am on duty today. | – Я сьогодні черговий. |
| Who is absent today? | Хто сьогодні відсутній? |
| – Student Lukach is. | – Студент Лукач. |
| – All are present today. | – Сьогодні всі присутні. |

EXERCISES

I. Перекладіть речення, зважаючи на модальні дієслова.

1. In the evening you can see only some students in the reading room. 2. Can you name the days of the week? 3. I am sorry, I cannot help you. 4. May I ask you a question? – I am afraid not. I am in a hurry to the lecture. 5. Must I translate the text? – No, you need not. 6. All the students must be attentive in class. 7. You must not be late for classes. You must come in time. 8. Which of you can answer the question? – Nobody can. 9. May we come in? – Yes, you may. 10. The students must not miss classes. 11. The judges must subject only the law.

II. Поставте речення у питальній і заперечній формі.

1. I can do this work. 2. She must go. 3. He may come in. 4. He can speak English well. 5. We must work at the text today. 6. You can tell them about our University. 7. She must speak to the Dean about it. 8. You can come to the Dean's

office. 9. We should always visit our parents. 10. Everybody can break the law. 11. They can afford a lawyer.

III. Зверніть увагу на переклад речень з модальними дієсловами:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| a) Can you help me? | Чи не можете допомогти мені? |
| – Yes, I think I can. | – Думаю, що так. |
| – Certainly I can. | – Звичайно, можу. |
| – No, I am afraid, I can't. | – Боюся, що ні. |
| – I am sorry, I can't. | – На жаль, ні. |
| b) Must I go home now? | Чи мені йти додому зараз? |
| – Yes, you must. | – Так, іти. |
| – No, you needn't. | – Ні, не треба. |
| c) Must I read or translate the text? | Мені читати чи перекладати текст? |
| – Please, read it. | – Прошу, читайте. |
| d) Must I answer your question? | Чи мені відповідати на ваше питання? |
| – Do, please. | – Так, прошу. |

IV. Визначте часову форму виділених слів.

1. He had to do it yesterday. 2. I shall have to do it next month. 3. He said he might do it himself. 4. We could do it last week. Could we do it yesterday? 5. The judges cannot work as lawyers. 6. The case may lead to death.

V. Who is on duty today?

– I am on duty today.

What day is it today?

– Today is Monday (Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday).

What is the date today?

– Today is the 10th (tenth) of October 2005.

– Today is October the 10th (tenth) 2005.

Who is absent today?

– ... is absent today. (One student)

– ... are absent today. (Two students and more)

– Nobody is absent today.

– All are present today.

What was our home task for today?

– For today we had to read, translate, retell text 1, to learn new words, to learn grammar rules, to do exercise 2 on page 10, to review the topic ... , to prepare home reading, etc.

VI. Перекладіть речення.

1. My brother's name is Boris. 2. My sister's family is not large. 3. My friend's mother is a teacher of Biology. 4. My parents' flat is on the second floor. 5. Which of you is Peter's sister? 6. This is his son's book. 7. My uncle's house is opposite the Institute. 8. This girl's mother was ill. 9. The Museum of University's History is open on week-ends. 10. The Prosecutor's office is on the first floor.

VII. Замініть іменники з прийменником присвійним відмінком.

1. The mother of these children is young. 2. The question of the teacher was difficult and I could not answer it at once. 3. The families of these students live in a village. 4. The friend of my sister comes to see her. 5. The house of our professor is near the park. 6. The father of that student is a lawyer.

VIII. Замініть групу з присвійним відмінком на групу з прийменником *of*.

1. This boy's dog is very clever. 2. The lion's claws [κλ]ζ] are very sharp. 3. There are many trees around the Petruks' house. 4. My friend's sister has two children. 5. My brothers' flat is small. 6. Modern artists' pictures are in the gallery now.

IX. Визначте просту і абсолютну форму присвійного займенника.

1. My room is large, yours is small. 2. Your pen is bad, take mine, please. 3. Whose dictionary is that? It is hers. 4. Our books are in the bookcase and theirs are on the shelves. 5. Your notebooks are thin, ours are thick. 6. I have no red pencil, give me yours, please. 7. Ann is a friend of mine. 8. This doctor is a friend of ours. 9. His story was his „alibi”.

X. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

1. Університет ветеринарної медицини та біотехнологій є у Львові. 2. В університеті є п'ять факультетів. 3. Я вчуся на факультеті доуніверситетської освіти, а мій товариш вчиться на факультеті ветеринарної медицини. 4. Ми будемо спеціалістами, яких потребує наша молода держава. 5. Наш університет має ... років. 6. У 1881 році у Львові була відкрита ветеринарна школа. Її першим директором був професор Петро Зайфман. 7. Наш факультет був заснований у ... році. 8. Ми вчимося на стаціонарному відділенні. 9. В університеті є 34 кафедри. 10. Я займаюся спортом. 11. Музей підків дуже цікавий. 12. Ми є на кафедрі української та іноземних мов. 13. Ми вивчаємо багато предметів, англійська мова є одним з них.

XI. Текст для аудіювання. Додумайтесь до значення виділеного слова.

IN THE CLINIC

Patient: Good morning.

Nurse: Good morning. Can I help you?

Patient: I must see the dentist. Can he see me at once, please?

Nurse: I am afraid, he can't. Can't you wait till three o'clock?

Patient: I can wait, but my *toothache* can't.

XII. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) economics, to run, a rector, to head, to train, to need, whom, rich, glorious, to open, to rename, only, second, to set up, third, to regain, former, a name, full-time department, extra-mural, to combine, studies, a chair, a lecture-hall, a hostel, a library, a clinic, a camp, a horseshoe, anatomical, scientific, a circle, to wait, a Prosecutor's office;

b) in independent Ukraine, to be at smb's disposal, a chair of Ukrainian and foreign languages, to go in for sports.

c) Who is on duty today? What is the date today? What day is it today? Who is absent today? All are present. Nobody is absent today. What was our home task for today?

It can be of use

Letters

There are two classes of letters – business letters (ділові листи) and social letters (особисті листи).

A social letter

Dear Andrew,

How are you? I know that you

have visited ...

Best wishes

Best regards

Kindest regards

Peter

A business letter

Dear Mrs Lee,

I have just learned from Mr.

Brown that you ...

Respectively yours

Respectfully

Very respectfully

J. Sillet

Marketing Department

Lesson 5

1. Голосний **i** в наголошеному складі.
2. Голосний **i** перед **gh, ld, nd**.
3. Питальні речення з дієсловами **to be, to have, can, must, may**:
 - а) загальні питання
 - б) спеціальні питання.
4. Текст: **Lviv – the Pearl of Europe**.

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте слова:
meet, meat, dead, head, heart, heat, read, reed, red, less, leaf, left, ready, peek, peak, peace, wealth, beef, sheep, feed, dean, sea, death, health; picture, feature, nature, future, Monday, Sunday.

2. Прочитайте слова. Зважайте на різну вимову голосного **i**:

| i [αɪ] | i [ɪ] | ir [ɪ̯] | ire [αɪ̯] |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|
| mine | sit | bird | fire |
| fine | pit | girl | tire |
| line | skin | shirt | mire |
| write | fish | fir | hire |
| five | mix | stir | spire |

3. Прочитайте слова з голосним **y** під наголосом:

| y [αɪ] | y [ɪ] | yr [ɪ̯] | yre [αɪ̯] |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|------------------|
| my | lymph | myrtle | tyre |
| dry | symbol | | lyre |
| sky | system | | syren |
| sty | nymph | | lyrist |
| supply | Olympus | | gyre |

4. У словах, що подані нижче, вимовляйте **i** як [ai]:

| | | |
|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| night | slight | child |
| light | sight | mild |
| high | bright | kind |
| fight | might | blind |

LVIV – THE PEARL OF EUROPE

The ancient Lviv was founded in 1256 by Danylo Romanovych, King of Galicia and named in honour of his son Leo. “This town was born under such a sky and such a star that it calls towards beauty”, wrote the poet Jozef Zimorowicz in the 17th century.

Lviv today is the largest city in the western region of Ukraine, its cultural, political and industrial center. It occupies an area of 155 square kilometers, its population is 830 thousand.

During its history Lviv was a center of political and military upheavals. It was renamed Leopoldis, Lemberg, Levensburgh, Lwuw, Lvov. The August 1991 brought freedom and independence to our city.

Lviv is one of the most beautiful towns in Ukraine. There are 2000 historical, architectural and cultural monuments in Lviv, it is more than 50% of all monuments within Ukraine. The history and rich cultural life attract many people to our city, known as “the pearl of Europe”. In 1999 Lviv was included into “World Heritage List” of UNESCO.

There are many cafes, bars and restaurants, beautiful parks and museums in the city. Lviv Opera House is one of most wonderful in all of Europe.

Lviv is a town of students and scholars. There are 15 state higher schools, among them 5 universities, 6 academies and 4 institutes, a number of colleges, special technical schools, about 200 schools. More than 70 thousand students are trained

here. The Lviv National University named after Ivan Franko is one of the oldest in East Europe. It was founded in 1661.

Notes

1. in honour of his son – на честь свого сина
2. known as – відомий як
3. pearl of Europe – перлина Європи
4. World Heritage List – Список всесвітньої спадщини (ЮНЕСКО)
5. a number of – багато
6. named after Ivan Franko – імені Івана Франка

Запам'ятайте

| | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I am sorry, I am late. | Перепрошую, що я запізнився. |
| May I come in? | Чи можна увійти? |
| – Yes, you may. | – Прошу. |
| Take your seat, please. | Прошу сідати. |
| 2. I am sorry. | Вибачте (перепрошую). |
| That's all right. | Прошу, прошу. |
| Don't mention it. | Нічого, будь ласка. |
| Not at all. | Нічого, прошу. |

EXERCISES

I. Розкрийте дужки, вживайте *Present Indefinite*.

1. The court (to be) an open contest between two sides. 2. We (to be) in the library. 3. I (to have) many good friends. 4. She (to have) no time. 5. We (to have) equal rights and duties. 6. He (can) speak English very well. 7. All the students (must) study foreign languages. 8. You (may) come in. 9. It (to be) not my fault.

II. Поставте речення у заперечній формі.

1. Peter is a second-year student. 2. We have all necessary books in Civil Law. 3. My friends have good marks in Botany. 4. They are students of the University. 5. I am 20 years old. 6. He can play hockey. 7. We must do it today. 8. He cannot understand the facts.

III. Поставте речення у питальній формі.

1. You are a student of the University. 2. The person is guilty. 3. He has an English grammar. 4. The judge is 30 years old. 5. They have two English lessons a week. 6. The students can translate this text. 7. You must learn new words. 8. He may go there. 9. He may come in. 10. She has breakfast at 8 o'clock.

IV. Дайте короткі відповіді на кожне питання.

1. Is Peter a student? 2. Are the students at the court-session? 3. Is she ill? 4. Have you a brother? 5. Has she a dictionary? 6. Can he speak English? 7. Must we work hard? 8. May he ask the teacher?

V. Поясніть порядок слів у загальних питаннях.

Визначте часову форму дієслова у реченні.

| Присудок | Підмет | Невідмінювана частина присудка | Інші члени речення |
|-----------|----------|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| Am | I | a student? | – |
| Are | you | – | at the Academy? |
| Is | he | a manager? | – |
| Is there | a pen | – | on the desk? |
| Are there | pictures | – | on the wall? |
| Was | he | ill? | – |
| Were | they | – | in London? |

| | | | |
|-------|------|-------|----------------|
| Will | he | be | in London? |
| Shall | we | be | in England? |
| Have | you | – | a dictionary? |
| Has | she | – | much time? |
| Had | they | – | many presents? |
| Can | he | speak | English? |
| Can | they | do | it? |
| Could | you | come | in time? |
| Must | you | visit | the doctor? |
| Had | you | to do | it? |
| May | I | come | in? |
| Might | they | do | it? |

VI. Перекладіть речення, які ви утворили з поданих слів:

1. in English, my friend, good marks, has. 2. on Monday, ill, my sister, was. 3. yesterday, Friday, was, it. 4. Roman, at the clinic, on duty, was. 5. from 9 a.m., till 5 p.m., my working hours, are. 6. I, must attend, every day, lectures. 7. after dinner, the museum, the students, visit. 8. the crime, against, is, Justice, it.

VII. Перекладіть англійською мовою, пам'ятаючи про прямий порядок слів в англійському реченні.

1. Він сьогодні хворий. 2. Вона цього не може зробити. 3. Цього тексту ми не можемо перекласти. 4. В університеті вчиться приблизно чотири тисячі студентів. 5. О 9 годині починаються заняття. 6. Цю книжку всі студенти читають з великим інтересом. 7. Ми не маємо в суботу занять. 8. 28 днів має тільки лютий. 9. Не всі студенти старанно вчать. 10. У Львові осінь дуже гарна. 11. Ми живемо у незалежній Україні.

VIII. Перекладіть слова, що зустрічаються у спеціальних питаннях:

who, what, whose, which, how many, how much.

IX. Поставте питання до підмета зі словами who або what.

1. Peter is in the class now. 2. He was in the laboratory. 3. He has enough time. 4. He can speak English and German. 5. All the students must study hard. 6. You may go on. 7. This dictionary is new. 8. The train will stop in 20 minutes. 9. The University is situated in Pekarska-street. 10. These pictures are modern.

X. Поставте питання до групи підмета зі словами: whose – чий? which – котрий? what – який?

1. My watch is slow. 2. His watch is ten minutes slow. 3. My sister's daughter can translate his story into English. 4. The winter holidays are short. 5. The summer holidays are long. 6. The canteen of our University is not always full of students. 7. Exercises 5 and 7 are not difficult. 8. The reading room is on the ground floor.

XI. Поставте питання до виділених другорядних членів речення.

1. We have all necessary books. 2. My brother is well. 3. He is 20 years old. 4. They must give this book to me. 5. They have two English lessons a week. 6. He may go to the clinic. 7. The judge is the central figure in any courty. 8. We must work hard. 9. She may ask the professor. 10. They are innocent. 11. Ann is in the reading room.

XII. Перекладіть англійською мовою:

а) Хто ти?

Я студент. Я студент першого курсу.

б) Як поживаєш?

Дякую, добре.

- в) Ми відпочиваємо в неділю. А ви?
Ми відпочиваємо в суботу і в неділю.
- г) До побачення.
До побачення.
- д) Котра година?
Пів на дев'яту.
Дуже дякую.
Прошу.
- е) Скільки тобі років?
Мені 18. А скільки тобі?
Мені 20.
- є) Ти маєш час?
Ні, я не маю часу.
Перепрошую.
- ж) Який сьогодні день?
Сьогодні середа.
Дуже дякую.
- з) Яке сьогодні число?
Сьогодні 24 жовтня ...
Хто відсутній сьогодні?
Сьогодні всі присутні.
Дякую.
Прошу.
- и) Чи не могли ви б допомогти мені?
На жаль, ні.
- і) Чи не міг би ти допомогти мені?
Звичайно, що можу.
То прошу.

XIII. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

Львів – найбільше місто в Західній Україні. Воно було засноване в 1256 році. Король Данило назвав це місто на честь свого сина Лева. Місто займає площу у

155 квадратних кілометрів і має понад 800 тисяч жителів. Львів – це місто гарних парків, багатих музеїв і чудових пам’ятників. Тут є 50% історичних, архітектурних та культурних пам’яток України. Тому Львів занесений до Списку всесвітньої спадщини ЮНЕСКО. У Львові є 15 вищих навчальних закладів, де навчаються понад 70 тисяч студентів.

XIV. Перекладіть. Зважайте на переклад англійських виразів залежно від відповіді на подяку чи побажання:

| | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| Thank you very much. | I am sorry. |
| – That’s all right. | – That’s all right. |
| – Not at all. | – Not at all. |
| – Don’t mention it. | – Don’t mention it. |

XV. Текст для аудіювання. Чи пам’ятаєте веселу історію зі свого життя? Розкажіть її по-англійськи.

A SAD STORY

Three men came to New York for a holiday. They came to a large hotel. Their room was on the forty-fifth floor. In the evening the young men went to the cinema and came back to the hotel very late.

“I am sorry”, said the clerk of the hotel, “but our lifts do not work at night. If you do not want to walk up to you room, we shall make beds for you in the hall”.

“No, no”, said one of three men, “no, thank you, we shall walk to our room”. Then he said, “I think I know how to make it easy for us to walk up to the forty-fifth floor. On our way to the room I shall tell you some jokes, than you, Andrew, will sing us a song, and you, Peter, will tell us some interesting stories”.

So, they began to walk to their room. At last they came to the thirty-fourth floor. They were tired and decided to have a

rest. “Well”, said Tom, “now it is your turn, Peter. Tell us a story with a sad ending”.

“I shall tell you a sad story”, said Peter. “It is not long, but it is sad enough. We left the key to our room in the hall”.

XVI. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) ancient, to found, to name, the sky, a star, the beauty, a centre, a region, cultural, political, industrial, to occupy, an area, a square, military, an upheaval, freedom, an independence, architectural, to attract, a pearl, to include, a cafe, a restaurant, an opera, wonderful, a scholar, a college, national;

b) by King Danylo, in honour of, under such a star, in the 17th century, more than 50% (per cent), within Ukraine, known as, in all of Europe, a number of, named after Ivan Franko, East Europe, in 1661.

c) I am sorry, I am late. May I come in? Yes, I may. Take your seat, please. That’s all right.

It can be of use

Звертання

1. Офіційно (з прізвищем): до чоловіків – Mister [‘mɪstɹ̩] Grey – пан Ґрей; до жінок – Mrs [‘mɪsɪz] Grey – пані Ґрей; до неодружених і дівчат – Miss [mɪs] – панна Ґрей.

2. До незнайомих: чоловіків – Sir [sɪ] – пан; до жінок – Madam [‘mɪd̩əmə] – пані.

3. Скорочення: Dr = Doctor, Prof = Professor, Mr = Mister, Mrs = Mistress, Ms = Miss

Lesson 6

1. Сполучення букв, які передають звук [ʃ].
2. Present Indefinite Tense: стверджувальна, заперечна і питальна форми.
3. Текст: **My Working Day.**

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте слова хором:

make, sake, map, sad, mark, mare, hare, note, froze, smog, frog, corn, pork, more, store, human, tube, cut, sun, turn, nurse, pure, cure, mete, be, men, pen, nerve, serve, here, mere, write, fine, fish, mix, girl, stir, hire, spire, sty, dry, nymph, symbol, tyre, gyre, fight, might, bright, child, blind, find, read, ready, leap, wool, food, foot, soon.

2. Прочитайте слова зі звуком [ʃ]:

| | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| o + r | a + ll | oo + r | au | augh |
| horse | all | door | Paul | aught |
| force | call | floor | auto | daughter |
| before | small | fault | autum | taught |
| | | | | |
| ough | a + lk, lt | aw | ou + r | (w)a+r, qua+r |
| bought | talk | claw | Court | war |
| fought | walk | straw | Course | warm |
| thought | salt | awful | Source | quarter |

3. Прочитайте, зважаючи на різну вимову закінчення (e)s у дієсловах:

| Після глухих приголосних [σ] | Після голосних і дзвінких приголосних [ζ] | Після -s, -z, -ss, sh, -ch, -x [Iζ] |
|---------------------------------|--|--|
| he speaks | he goes | he closes |
| he writes | he plays | he dresses |
| he asks | he reads | he teaches |
| he meets | he lives | he washes |
| he takes | he comes | he boxes |

MY WORKING DAY

My working day begins early. I always get up at 7 o'clock. Before I leave for the University I have a lot of things to do. First of all I open the windows, switch on the radio and do my morning exercises. I like to do my morning exercises to music. Then I go to the bathroom where I wash, clean my teeth and dress. At half past 7 I begin to prepare my breakfast. It does not take me long to do it. At the quarter to eight I have breakfast. At a quarter past eight I leave for the University. As I live far from the University I go there by tram.

I am never late. I always come to the University in time. Our classes begin at nine o'clock. Between classes we have short break. At 11.55 we have a long break for dinner. I usually have dinner in the canteen of our University which is always full of students at this time.

As a rule we have three lectures or seminars a day. Twice a week we have four lectures a day. Classes are over 5 minutes to two or half past three. Sometimes I stay at the

University if I have social work to do. I am a member of Students' Scientific Society of our University and once a month I attend its meetings at the chair of Science of Law. I also stay at the University if I need a book or an article which I can get in the reading room of our library. After classes there are many students there. They read books and articles, work at their reports or do their lessons.

I usually walk home, that is why I am fit. When I come home I have a short rest. Then I prepare my lessons. It takes me about four hours. In the evening I have supper and watch TV. Sometimes if I have time I go to the cinema or read interesting books on history of Ukraine. I usually go to bed at 11 o'clock.

On Saturday and Sunday we do not study. I visit my parents or friends. On week-ends I have a good time.

Notes

1. I leave for the University – я їду до університету.
2. have a lot of things to do – маю багато справ
3. first of all – насамперед
4. it does not take me long – це не забирає мені багато часу
5. once a month – один раз на місяць
6. that is why I am fit – ось чому я добре себе почуваю
7. it takes me about 4 hours – це забирає мені приблизно 4 години

Запам'ятайте

| | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. It does not take me long. | Це не забирає мені багато часу. |
| It takes me about 2 hours. | Це забирає мені приблизно 2 години. |
| 2. Glad to see you. | Радий бачити тебе (Вас). |
| – So am I. | Я теж. |
| I haven't seen you for ages. | Я так давно тебе не бачив |
| – Neither have I. | Так само і я. |

EXERCISES

I. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

1. О 8 годині я їду до університету. 2. О 4 годині вони їдуть до Києва. 3. О 5 годині вона від'їжджає до Лондона. 4. Двадцять хвилин на сьому ви їдете до Львова. 5. Вони теж можуть поїхати на з'їзд. 6. Ми маємо збори один раз на місяць. 7. Завтра вони мають зробити багато справ.

II. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

1. Він є. Він не є. Чи він є? – Так. – Ні.
2. Ми маємо. Ми не маємо. Чи ми маємо? – Так. – Ні.
3. Вони можуть зробити це. Вони не можуть зробити цього. Чи вони можуть зробити це? – Так. – Ні.

III. Поставте дієслова, що у дужках, у *Present Indefinite*.

1. I (to study) English at the University. He (to study) German at the Institute. They (to study) foreign languages at the University.

2. I (to speak) Ukrainian at home. She (to speak) English at the lessons. We (to speak) different languages.

3. We (to play) volley-ball on the sports-ground. They (to play) football in the gymnasium. I (to like) these games.

4. I (to help) you in Physics. You (to help) me in English. We (to help) one another.

5. We (to do) morning exercises to music. He (to do) his morning exercises to music too. So (to do) my brother.

IV. Поставте речення у заперечній формі.

1. He studies at the University. 2. He goes to the office every day. 3. We speak English to our teacher. 4. She lives in Ternopil. 5. I always come in time. 6. We do many exercises at home.

7. My brother goes in for sports. 8. We attend lectures on History.
9. I agree with you. 10. My friend writes letters in English.

V. Заповніть пропуски словами *do* або *does*.

1. ... you study at the University? 2. ... you work in the library in the evening? 3. ... he learn German? 4. ... you get up at 6 o'clock? 5. Where ... he live? 6. When ... your classes begin? 7. How ... you do? 8. ... he write sentences on the blackboard? 9. ... you walk or go by tram to the University? 10. ... the teacher give you English newspaper? 11. ... you know me? 12. ... he know me?

VI. Поставте подані нижче дієслова у формі третьої особи однини і множини. Перекладіть.

Зразок:

to read: a) he reads – he does not read – Does he read?

b) they read – they do not read – do they read?

to go, to work, to study, to come, to speak, to take, to send.

VII. Дайте короткі відповіді на запитання.

1. Do you study English? 2. Does he study German? 3. Do you come to the University on week-days? 4. Do you come to the University on Saturday? 5. Do you know English well? 6. Do they know German well? 7. Does the court give a verdict?

VIII. Поставте потрібні питальні слова.

- 1.... do you live? 2. ... do you go to the University? 3 ... do you do in the evening? 4. ... books do you read? 5. ... do you meet at the University? 6. ... do you work in the lab? 7. ... do you go after classes? 8. ... do the students come home from their classes? 9. ... do you see at the bus stop every morning? 10. ... do we celebrate on the 24th of August? 11. ... do you propose? 12. ...faculty do you study at?

IX. Утворіть речення, поставте виділені слова після підмета.

1. He, to meet, me, in the library, often. 2. I, to come, usually, in the evening, home. 2. We, to translate, letters, sometimes, from Ukrainian into English. 3. They, to send, telegrams, often, to the capital of Ukraine. 4. He, always, to prepare, his lessons, well. 5. We, to repeat, new words, often. 6. I, to know, already, these words, very well.

X. Порівняйте вживання різних прийменників:

in November, *in* 2005, *in* the morning; *on* Monday, *on* Tuesday, *on* the 10th of November; *at* 7 o'clock.

XI. Дайте відповіді на питання до тексту “My Working Day”.

1. When do you usually get up? 2. Do you do your morning exercises? 3. Do you like to clean your teeth? 4. When do your classes begin? 5. How many classes have you today? 6. Is there a long break for dinner at our University? 7. Are you a member of Students' Scientific Society? 8. Where do you prepare your lessons? 9. Do you live in the hostel? 10. Can you watch TV in the hostel? 11. When do you go to bed? 12. Do you often dream?

XI. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

a) 1. Я звичайно встаю о 7 годині ранку. У неділю я можу встати о 8 годині. 2. Кожного дня я роблю ранкову гімнастику. У неділю я теж роблю гімнастику. 3. Я живу далеко від університету, тому я мушу їхати трамваем і автобусом. Це займає у мене 25 хвилин. 4. Заняття починаються о 9 годині ранку. Вони закінчуються звичайно о пів на четверту. 5. Я завжди вчасно приходжу до університету. Я ніколи не запізнююсь. 6. Я снідаю вдома, обідаю в їдальні університету і вечерю вдома. 7.

Ми маємо три або чотири пари на день. У суботу і в неділю ми відпочиваємо. 8. Я член студентського наукового товариства на кафедрі української та іноземних мов. Я працюю над доповіддю (а report). 9. В університеті є великий читальний зал. Після занять тут багато студентів. 10. У неділю ми не вчимося. Я відвідую своїх батьків або їду з друзями в гори.

б) – Я перепрошую, що я запізнився. Я був у поліклініці.

– Нічого, прошу. Прошу сідати.

XII. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією вирази на згоду.

All right↓.

That's all↓ right.

Glad to ↓see you. So↓ am I.

I haven't seen you↓ for ages. Neither↓ have I.

XIII. Текст для аудіювання. Як ви розумієте слово *тьютор*?

AT OXFORD

At Oxford the working hours of the student are from 9 a.m. till 1 p.m. At 9 o'clock he sees his tutor (teacher) or goes to the library or to the lectures. From 2 p.m. till 5 p.m. he goes in for sports and does different exercises. From 5 p.m. till 7 p.m. he works in the library or in the laboratory. At 7 p.m. he has dinner. After dinner students have club activities or attend different societies. At about 10 p.m. the student begins to work again and works for about two hours.

XIV. На основі інформації вище напишіть листа до нашого студента від імені М. Брайтона, студента з Оксфорда.

Зразок: Dear Colleague,

I am a ...

Yours

M. Bryton.

XV. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) a working day, early, to get up, before, to leave for, a window, to switch on, morning exercises, than, a bathroom, to wash, to clean, a tooth (teeth), to dress, a house, far from, never, to come, between, usually, a canteen, or, twice, sometimes, to stay, if, social work, a member, once, a meeting, an article, to get, after, different, a report, to walk, to watch TV, to visit, parents, to dream;

b) to do a lot of things, first of all, to music, it does not take me long, to have breakfast, full of students, to go by tram, to be late, in time, to have dinner, at this time, as a rule, Students' Scientific Society, to be fit, that is why, it takes me two hours, to have supper, to go to bed, to give a verdict.

c) Glad to see you. So am I.

I haven't seen you for ages. Neither have I.

It does not take me long.

It takes me about 2 hours.

It can be of use

Proverbs and Sayings

So many countries, so many customs. Скільки країн, стільки й звичаїв.

If you want a thing well done, do it yourself. Якщо хочеш мати добре зроблену річ, зроби її сам.

When the pigs fly. Коли рак на горі свисне.

Jack of all trades is master of none. За все братися – тічого не зробити

Lesson 7

1. Слова з початковою буквою **w**.
2. Past Indefinite Tense повнозначних дієслів.
3. Future Indefinite Tense.
4. Текст: **My Biography**.

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте слова, звертаючи увагу на виділені букви під наголосом і без наголосу:

| [ɛ] | [ɪ] | [ɛ] | [ɪ] | [ʌ] |
|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|--------|
| ready | alone | breakfast | some | sun |
| already | about | cinema | love | lunch |
| breakfast | ago | theatre | one | but |
| clever | o'clock | vegetable | someone | butter |
| fellow | doctor | regular | bucket | run |

2. Прочитайте слова з початковою буквою **w**:

| [O] | [ʊ] | [ɜ] | без w | без h |
|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| was | war | work | whole | what |
| water | ward | world | who | when |
| want | warn | worm | whose | which |
| watch | warp | worse | whom | where |
| wander | warty | worst | whoop | wheat |

3. Вимовляйте суфікс **-ed**

а) як [t]

| Present | Past | Present | Past |
|---------|---------|---------|----------|
| ask | asked | dress | dressed |
| cook | cooked | finish | finished |
| cross | crossed | help | helped |
| dance | danced | talk | talked |

б) як [d]

| Present | Past | Present | Past |
|---------|-----------------|---------|-----------------|
| answer | answered | love | loved |
| clean | cleaned | listen | listened |
| study | studied | open | opened |
| play | played | carry | carried |

с) як [ɪd] після приголосних **t, d**:

| Present | Past | Present | Past |
|---------|------------------|---------|-----------------|
| act | acted | end | ended |
| consist | consisted | repeat | repeated |
| need | needed | wait | waited |
| depend | depended | want | wanted |

MY BIOGRAPHY

My name is Petro Lisevich. I was born on the 14th of September 1992 in a big town far from Lviv. My father is a lawyer and my mother is a teacher at a secondary school.

At the age of seven I went to school. I studied well and usually got only top marks. I finished school at the age of 17 and in the same year I entered Lviv University of Veterinary Medicine and Biotechnologies. Now I am a first year student. I study to be a lawyer. We study many subjects such as History of State and Law, Practice of Law, Principles of Economics, Latin, History of Ukraine and English.

I study hard. It is my first duty to study well, as our young state needs well-educated specialists. I attend lectures and seminars every day except Saturday and Sunday. In December and June I shall take examinations. I hope to get good and excellent marks in all the subjects because I want to be a good specialist. In five and a half years I shall graduate from the University. Then I shall return to my native town where my family lives.

My family is large. It consists of a mother, a father, two sisters, a brother, my grandmother and grandfather. My grandmother is 70

years old, my grandfather is 74. My grandparents are pensioners. My elder sister Olya is 27, she is a nurse. Olya is married. Her husband is a farmer. They have two children, a boy and a girl. So I have a nephew and a niece. My nephew is 5 years old, he goes to the kindergarten. My niece is eight, she is a schoolgirl. My younger sister is a student of Lviv Medical University. My brother's name is Roman. He is in the tenth form. He will finish school next year. He wants to be a manager. Roman will try to enter the University too.

Notes

1. at the age of – у віці
2. in all the subjects – з усіх предметів
3. so I have – таким чином я маю

Запам'ятайте

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. When were you born? | Коли ти народився? |
| – I was born on the first of December 1987. | Я народився 1 грудня 1987 року. |
| – I was born in 1988. | Я народився 1988 року. |
| 2. Where were you born? | Де ти народився? |
| – I was born in the village of... | Я народився у селі ... |
| – I was born in the town of ... | Я народився у місті ... |

EXERCISES

I. Поставте пропущені слова.

1. He was born ... the first of January. 2. They live ... a small village ... Lviv. 3. ... the age ... 7 he went ... school. 4. We entered ... the University ... 2009. 5. ... Sunday we do not study. ... Sunday we rest. 6. ... December and July we shall take examinations. 7. ... five years we shall graduate ... the University. 8. He wants to return ... his native village. 9. My family consists ... 5 persons. 10. My younger brother goes ... the kindergarten. 11. My elder sister is a student ... Lviv Medical University.

II. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

1. Він відповідає добре. Він не відповідає добре. Чи він відповідає добре? – Так. – Ні.

2. Вони говорять по-англійськи. Вони не говорять по-німецьки. Чи вони говорять по-англійськи? – Так. – Ні.

3. Вона вчиться в університеті. Вона не вчиться в академії. Чи вона вчиться в академії?

4. Ти встаєш о 7 годині ранку. Ти не встаєш о 7 годині ранку. Чи ти встаєш о 7 годині ранку? – Так. – Ні.

III. Утворіть *Past Indefinite* від дієслів за зразком:

to see – I saw

to work – I worked

бачити – я бачив

працювати – я працював

б) to go, come, become, say, do, stand, get, give, know, read, tell, speak, write, make, meet, eat, build, bring, be, have;

в) to ask, dance, dress, help, study, play, carry, repeat, wait.

IV. Поставте речення у заперечній формі.

1. He studied English a year ago. 2. She left for London yesterday. 3. The students went to sports camp last week. 4. Our classes began at 10 o'clock. 5. My sister left for England last month. 6. First spring flowers appeared in the fields. 7. He made his report on Monday. 8. We saw the Dean yesterday. 9. We translated the text without dictionary. 10. The court listened to both sides. 11. The way to truth was short.

V. Поставте питання до виділених слів.

1. He knew all the words very well. 2. He studied English at the University. 3. Two years ago they lived in the country. 4. She made an interesting report. 5. He found time to help me. 6. Last night we watched a football match on TV. 7. She left for Canada the day before yesterday.

VI. Поставте дієслова у *Past Indefinite*, як це показано на першому слові. Перекладіть.

| Infinitive | Past Indefinite | | |
|------------|-----------------|---------------|------------|
| | стверджувальна | заперечна | питальна |
| to see | I saw | I did not see | Did I see? |
| to come | | | |
| to know | | | |
| to go | | | |
| to get | | | |
| to say | | | |
| to eat | | | |
| to make | | | |
| to feed | | | |
| to read | | | |
| to speak | | | |

**VII. З дієсловами попередньої вправи поставте 5 запитань і дайте короткі відповіді на них за зразком:
Did you see him? Yes, I did. – No, I didn't.**

VIII. Провідмініяйте речення у *Future Indefinite*.

1. I shall be a lawyer in five years.
2. I shall not stay in the town on Sunday.
3. Shall I get up tomorrow at 7 o'clock?

IX. Поставте дієслова *shall* або *will*.

1. I ... invite her to the theatre tomorrow.
2. Next year we ... study Civil Law.
3. My parents ... leave for Odesa next summer.
4. After dinner he ... rest one hour.
5. It ... take me a long time to do it.
6. The meeting ... take place on Friday.
7. ... he go in for sports?
8. They ... go to the reading-room after classes.
9. The hall ... be full of students before the concert.
10. We ... go for a walk in the evening.
- 11.

Tomorrow our classes ... begin an hour later. 12. You ... translate this article into English. 13. It ... rain soon.

X. Дайте відповіді на питання (якщо можливо, то короткі й повні):

1. Will you go home now? 2. Will you stay at the University after classes? 3. When will you leave for Kyiv? 4. What will you do in the evening? 5. When will the holidays begin? 6. How long will they last? 7. Will you go home by bus or by tram? 8. Will your brother enter our University next year?

XI. Дайте відповіді до тексту “Моя біографія”.

1. When were you born? 2. Where were you born? 3. What are your parents? 4. When did you go to school? 5. Were you a good pupil? 6. When did you enter the University? 7. What do you study? 8. What are you? 9. How many faculties are there at our University? 10. What is your favourite subject? 11. What faculty do you study at? 12. How many persons are there in your family? 13. How old is your father? (your mother?, your brother?, your sister?) 14. Have you a nephew? (a niece?) 15. What is your sister? (your brother?). 15. What will you be?

XII. Текст для аудіювання: Додумайтесь до значення виділених слів.

IN THE COUNTRY.

King George III of England was in the country one day and stopped at a small hotel for lunch. He wasn't very hungry, so he had only two boiled eggs. He ate them and asked for the bill. The landlord gave him the bill – two pounds. (English pound – J). The King said: “What? Two pounds for two eggs? Eggs must be very scarce here.

“No, sir”, said, the landlord, “eggs are not scarce – but kings are”.

XIII. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

а) 1. Мене звати Мені ... років. Я народився (число, місяць, рік). 2. У віці 7 років я пішов до школи. Це була середня школа. У віці 17 років я закінчив школу. 3. У ... році я вступив до Львівського університету ветеринарної медицини та біотехнологій. Я студент першого курсу. 4. Я вчуся на факультеті освіти. Я вивчаю правознавство. 5. Ми вчимося 5 днів на тиждень. У суботу і в неділю ми не вчимося. Ми відпочиваємо. 6. Через 5 років я закінчу університет і стану юристом. Я буду працювати у суді. 7. Моя сім'я живе у великому (малому) селі недалеко від Львова. Моя сім'я складається з 5 осіб. 8. Я маю двох братів і одну сестру. Мій дідусь не працює. Він пенсіонер. 9. Мій старший брат одружений. Його дружина – вчителька хімії. 10. Вони мають двоє дітей. Їх син є мій племінник, а їх дочка – моя племінниця.

- б) – До побачення.
- Бувай.
- Завтра зустрінемося.

XIV. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією:

- What is ↓your name?
- My name↓ is Petro.
- When were you↓ born?
- I was born on the first of De↓cember.

XV. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

а) a biography, a town, a village, far from, near, a secondary school, a top, a mark, to finish, to enter, hard, a duty, young, a state, well-educated, except, to hope, to graduate from, to return, native, to consist of, dead, a pensioner, elder, a nurse, married, a husband, a farmer, a child (children), a boy, a girl, so, a nephew, a niece, a kindergarten, a schoolgirl, medical, a form, to try;

b) my name is ... , I was born, at the age of, to go to school, top marks, in the same year, to take examinations, in all the subjects, next year.

c) What is your name? – My name is Petro? When were you born? – I was born on the first of December. At the age of 7 I went to school.

It can be of use

Proverbs and Sayings

| | |
|--|--|
| Like father, like son. | Який батько, такий син. |
| Little children, little sorrow, big children, big sorrow. | Малі діти – малі клопоти, великі діти – великі клопоти. |
| East or West, home is best. | У гостях добре, а вдома краще. |
| An Englishman's home is his castle. | Дім англійця – його фортеця. |
| So many languages you know, so many times you are a man. | Скільки мов ти знаєш, стільки разів ти людина. |
| Time is money. | Час – це гроші. |
| One today is worth two to- morrow. | Одне сьогодні варте двох завтра. |
| Better late than never. | Краще пізно, ніж ніколи. |
| When two Sundays meet to- gether. | На Миколи та й ніколи. |
| Christmass comes but once a year. | Двічі на рік літа не буває. |
| As you sow, you shall mow. | Що посієш, те й пожнеш. |
| Business before pleasure. | Спочатку справа, а потім розвага. |
| Fools are growing without watering. | Дурнів не сіють, вони самі родяться. |

Lesson 8

1. Узагальнення правил читання: слова з наголошеним [αI].
2. Суфікс **-ity**.
3. Ступені порівняння прикметників. Окремі форми ступенів порівняння прикметників і прислівників.
4. Текст: **Great Britain**.

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте питальні слова з буквою **w**:

| | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| what | who | which | where |
| when | whose | when | what |
| where | whom | what | whom |
| which | whole | whose | who |

2. Прочитайте слова з наголошеним [αI]:

| | | | |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| i | y | i + gh | i + gn |
| nine | my | night | align |
| fine | type | light | sign |
| lie | lye | sight | design |
| tie | rye | right | benign |
| | | | |
| i + ld | i + nd | ei | uy |
| child | blind | heigh | buy |
| mild | find | heighten | buyer |
| wild | kind | leit- motiv | guy |

3. Наголошуйте третій склад від кінця.

activity, ability, possibility, acidity, responsibility, reality, quality, probability, quantity, nationality, property.

GREAT BRITAIN

Great Britain or United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK) is a country in northwestern Europe. It consists of four political parts – England, Scotland, and Wales, which make up the Island of Great Britain, and Northern Ireland, which occupies the northeastern part of the Island of Ireland. London is the capital and the largest city of Great Britain.

More than 70 countries are larger in size than the United Kingdom, and the country has only about 1 per cent of the world's people. But it has a rich history. The British started the Industrial Revolution in the 1700's. They founded the largest empire in history. They produced some of the world's greatest scientists, explorers, artists, and political leaders.

The English Channel separates the Iceland of Great Britain from France. This narrow stretch of water helped shape the character and history of the British people. It helped protect Britain from invasion and give the people a feeling of security. The British came to respect privacy and to value old traditions. They developed a dry wit, a love for personal freedom, and a high degree of self-criticism.

The history of Britain is the story of how a small country became the world's most powerful nation. Today the United Kingdom is still a leading industrial and trading nation. But it is no longer the world power it once was.

Great Britain is a constitutional monarchy. Queen Elizabeth II is the head of state, but cabinet of ministers actually governs the country. The prime minister is the head of the government.

The Parliament makes the laws of Great Britain. Two houses – the House of Lords and the House of Commons

make up Parliament. Of two houses the House of Commons is by far the more powerful. It has 651 members, elected from the four parts of the country. The House of Lords has about 1,200 members. The people do not elect them. It has today little power.

The official language in Great Britain is English. The National anthem is “God Save the Queen” (or “King”). United Kingdom’s flag is known as the British Union Flag or the Union Jack. It was officially adopted in 1801. Royal arms date from 1837 in their present form. The shield bears the symbols of England, Ireland, and Scotland.

Notes

1. UK – United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
2. more than – понад
3. in size – за розміром (величиною)
4. in the 1700’s – на початку тисяча сімсотих років
5. they produced – вони (британці) дали
6. some of – *тут*: багатьох
7. come to – *тут*: навчилися, домоглися
8. the story of how – розповідь про те, як
9. it once was – якою вона була колись
10. God Save the Queen – Боже, храни Королеву (державний гімн Великобританії)
11. the Union Jack = the British Union Jack – державний прапор Великобританії

Запам’ятайте

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Well. Now it is your turn. | Гаразд. Зараз твоя (ваша) черга. |
| 2. In order to know much we must study hard. | Щоби багато знати, треба наполегливо вчитися. |
| 3. The more we study, the more we know. | Чим більше ми вчимося, тим більше ми знаємо. |

EXERCISES

I. Доповніть речення.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a) ... is larger than ... | b) ... is the largest ... |
| ... is easier than ... | ... is the easiest ... |
| ... is shorter than ... | ... is the shortest ... |
| ... is warmer than ... | ... is the warmest ... |
| | |
| c) ... is as large as ... | d) ... is not so large as ... |
| ... is as easy as ... | ... is not so easy as ... |
| ... is as short as ... | ... is not so short as ... |
| ... is as warm as ... | ... is not so warm as ... |

II. Поставте прикметники, що у дужках, у відповідному ступені.

1. London is the (large) city of Great Britain. 2. Ukraine is (large) in size than Great Britain. 3. Great Britain produced some of the world's (great) scientists. 4. A (small) country become the (powerful) nation in the world. 5. The House of Lords is (large) than the House of Commons. 6. The House of Lords has today (little) power.

III. Дайте повні відповіді на питання.

a) 1. Which is longer: a day or a night in winter? 2. Which is shorter: a day or a night in summer? 3. Which is better: spring or autumn? 4. Which is better: truth or lie? 5. Which is more difficult: English or Latin? 6. Which is better: to work or to rest?

b) 1. Which do you like better: to sleep or to study? 2. Which do you like better: apples or tomatoes? 3. Which do you like better: meat or fish? 4. Which do you like better: milk or ice-cream? 5. Which do you like better: light music or classic music?

IV. Визначте ступінь порівняння.

1. He is as happy as me. 2. We must be more responsible for our studies. 3. My friend knows English worse than my

brother. 4. Peter's knowledge in Anatomy is not so deep as Jura's. 5. Today I came to the University earlier than usually. 6. It was my first competition in football. 7. See you later.

V. Підтвердіть або заперечте такі думки.

1. The days in winter are so long as in summer. 2. Great Britain is not so big as Ukraine. 3. English Language is for me not so difficult as for my elder sister. 4. Summer in Ukraine is so rainy as in England. 5. In summer the trees are not so beautiful as in autumn. 6. The city of Lviv is so old as Kyiv. 7. Summer holidays are not so short as winter holidays.

VI. Визначте ступені порівняння.

1. Better late than never but better never late. 2. Say well is good, do well is better. 3. Those do least who speak most. 4. East or West home is best. 5. Health is better than wealth. 6. Wear the old coat and buy a new book.

VII. Перед вищим ступенем прикметника додайте слова *much* або *far*. Перекладіть.

1. This way is shorter than that one. These ways are shorter than those ones.

2. This text is longer than that one. These texts are longer than those ones.

3. This book is more interesting than that one. These books are more interesting than those ones.

4. She speaks English better than he does. They speak German better than we do.

5. He works worse than she does. We work better than they do.

VIII. Поясніть значення артикля *the* перед вищим ступенем.

1. The more we study, the more we know. The more we know, the more we forget.

2. The less we study, the less we know. The less we know, the less we forget.

3. The nearer the winter, the shorter the days. The nearer the winter, the longer the nights.

4. The more we have, the more we want. The older we are, the more we like our life.

IX. Дайте відповіді на питання до тексту “Great Britain”.

1. What is the official name of Great Britain? 2. How many parts does the UK consist of? 3. What two isles does Great Britain lie on? 4. What is the capital of Great Britain? 5. When did the Industrial Revolution begin? 6. Which great English scientists and political leaders do you know? 7. What features can you call in the character of the British? 8. Is the UK today an enormous empire? 9. What is the name of English Queen? 10. Who is the head of the British government? 11. What is the aim of British government? 12. How many houses are there in the British Parliament? 13. What is the national anthem of Great Britain? 14. What is the Union Jack? 15. Do you value old traditions of your country?

X. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

Великобританія складається з чотирьох частин – Англії, Шотландії, Уельсу та Північної Ірландії. Вона лежить на двох великих островах. Тут проживають 59 млн. людей. Столиця Великобританії – Лондон.

Протока Ла-Манш розділяє Великобританію від Франції. Ця протока допомагала захищати країну від нападів, тому британці зберегли свої давні традиції.

Сьогодні Великобританія – це велика і могутня промислова країна, але у сільському господарстві працює лише 1% населення.

Великобританія – конституційна монархія. Головою держави є королева Єлизавета II, а головою уряду – прем'єр міністр (Тоні Блер – Tony Blair). Парламент країни складається з двох палат: палати громад і палати лордів. Палата лордів не має сьогодні великої політичної сили.

Державною мовою країни є англійська, державний гімн є „Боже, нам Королеву (Короля) храни”.

XI. Текст для аудіювання.

Mrs. Priestly is an English woman of about forty. She tells us about the meals in her house:

We have breakfast in the breakfast room. I like to begin the day well. So our breakfast is always a good one. My husband reads his newspaper and smokes a cigarette with his last cup of tea, before he begins to work at nine o'clock. Then Susan begins to clean the house, wash up, make the beds, and get the vegetables ready for lunch. We have lunch at one o'clock. After that I go for a walk or go to see people.

We have afternoon tea about five o'clock, but for that we do not go into the dining-room. We go to the sitting room and Susan brings in the tea with plates of bread and butter and small cakes.

After tea we sit and talk or read. Sometimes we go to the cinema or to the theatre. About seven or eight o'clock we have dinner or supper, and at eleven o'clock I generally go to bed, but my husband likes to sit up late and read or write.

XII. Зверніть увагу на дієслова *to do* – робити, виконувати якусь дію і *to make* – робити, щось створювати, щось нове будувати:

| to do | to make |
|--------------|----------------------------|
| a job | money |
| one's best | progress |
| the shopping | an impression |
| home work | a noise |
| ones duty | a speech |
| the garden | a decision |
| well | a cup of coffee |
| badly | breakfast (dinner, supper) |

XIII. Вимовляйте з правильною інтонацією вирази на згоду.

Please to meet you.

How do you do?

How do you say it in English?

How old are you?

XIV. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) a country, northwestern, a part, to make up, an Iceland, a size, per cent, to start, an empire, to produce, a scientist, an explorer, an artist, a leader, a channel, to separate, narrow, to stretch, to shape, to protect, an invasion, a feeling, a security, to respect, a privacy, to value, dry, a wit, a self-criticism, a trade, a monarchy, a queen, to govern, a government, a law, a horse, to elect, an anthem, to save, to adopt, royal arms, a shield, to bear;

b) more than, is no longer, it once was, by far.

c) Better late than never but better never late. East or West home is best.

Holidays in England

| When | What | Meaning |
|--------------------|---------------------|---|
| January 1 | New Year's Day | Новий рік |
| February 14 | St. Valentine's Day | День св. Валентина |
| March 17 | St. Patrick's Day | День св. Патріка |
| March 25 | Lady Day | Благовіщення |
| March 21 | Birthday of Queen | День народження |
| ко- | | |
| | Elizabeth II | ролеви Єлизавети II |
| April 1 | Fools Day | День усіх дурнів |
| Before Easter | Good Friday | Велика П'ятниця |
| March or April | Easter | Великдень |
| May 1 | May Day | Перше Травня |
| 2nd Sunday in May | Mothering Sunday | День Матері |
| June 14 | Flag Day | День прапорців (день збору пожертвувань — хто жертвує, той отримує паперовий прапорець) |
| 3rd Sunday in June | Father Day | День Батька |
| 2nd Sunday in Nov. | Remembrans Day | День пам'яті |
| November 1 | All Saints Day | День усіх святих |
| November 5 | Guy Fawkes Night | Ніч Гая Фокса (розкриття змови вбивства короля Якова I) |
| December 25 | Christmas | Різдво |

Lesson 9

1. Узагальнення правил вимови: слова з довгими голосними заднього ряду [©], [ɔ], [ʌ].
2. Вимова слів з буквою **c** та сполученнями **ch**, **ck**, **tch**.
3. Числівники: кількісні числівники
порядкові числівники.
4. Текст: **London**.

Попередні вправи

1. Прочитайте слова

а) з довгим **a** заднього ряду [©]:

dark, mark, shark, basket, heart, laugh;

б) з довгим **o** заднього ряду [ɔ]:

for, horn, pour, four, tall, fall, ball, caught, dawn;

в) з довгим **e** заднього ряду [ɛ]:

girl, shirt, bird, learn, fur, turn, word, world, work.

2. Прочитайте слова:

а) вимовляйте **c** як:

| [s] | [k] |
|--------|-------|
| place | clean |
| nice | cat |
| pencil | cod |
| policy | cut |

б) вимовляйте сполучення приголосних з **c** як:

| ck [k] | ch [ʃ] | ch [k] | ch [ʃ] | tch [ʃ] |
|--------|--------|-----------|---------|---------|
| pick | child | chemistry | machine | watch |
| deck | each | chlorine | – | match |

3. Почисліть від 1 до 20:

| | | | |
|---------|---------|-------------|--------------|
| 1 – one | 6 – six | 11 – eleven | 16 – sixteen |
| two | seven | twelve | seventeen |
| three | eight | thirteen | eighteen |

| | | | |
|------|------|----------|----------|
| four | nine | fourteen | nineteen |
| five | ten | fifteen | twenty |

LONDON

London is the capital of Great Britain. It is one of the 9 largest cities in the world. With almost 8 million people London is the largest city in Europe. London is more than 2,000 years old. Over the years, it became the center of Britain's once-enormous empire. Each year, millions of tourists visit London to see such historic sights as Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey and the Tower of London. William Shakespeare wrote: "I hope to see London before I die".

London is a great seaport, situated on the two banks of the river Thames. It flows in an eastward direction through the heart of London. London was nearly destroyed twice, by the fire in 1666 and by German air raids during World War II (1939-1945).

Central London can be divided into three main parts: the City, the West End and the South Bank. A number of great bridges link the south Bank with the City and West End.

The City is the historical and financial center of London. It covers about 1 square mile. Only about 5,000 people live in the City, but almost half a million of people work here in various offices every day.

The City is the oldest part of London. It consists largely of modern bank and office buildings. But it also has some monuments of its past. Here you can see St. Paul's Cathedral, a 62 meters stone column stands near the spot in the City where the Great Fire started in 1666.

The West End is the center of Britain's government and London's retail trade and night life. Beautiful parks and squares, the best theatres and museums are all in the West End. The British museum with its famous library and the National Gallery are here. Trafalgar Square is an area of open

pavement with statues and fountains, under them you can see Nelson's Column. The finest London Park – Hyde Park – is also in the West End.

The Houses of Parliament are in Westminster, they stand on the north bank of the Thames. The flag of UK flies from Tower of London when the Parliament is in session. Big Ben – the famous Clock, is also in one of the Towers.

London has long been Britain's chief center for education. The University of London, with about 65,000 students, is the nation's largest traditional University.

Notes

1. over the years – за довгі роки
2. see the sights – оглянути визначні місця
3. Buckingham Palace – Букінгемський палац
4. Westminster Abby – Вестмінстерське абатство
5. the Tower of London – Лондонський Тауер
6. the West End – Вест-Енд (західна частина Лондона)
7. the South Bank – Південний берег (частина Лондона)
8. it covers about – він займає приблизно
9. St. Paul's Cathedral – собор св. Павла
10. Trafalgar Square – Трафальгурська площа
11. Big Ben – Великий Бен (годинник на будинку англійського парламенту)

Запам'ятайте

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| My watch is fast. | Мій годинник спішить. |
| My watch is ... minutes fast. | Мій годинник спішить на ... хвилин. |
| My watch is slow. | Мій годинник відстає. |
| My watch is ... minutes slow. | Мій годинник відстає на ... хвилин. |

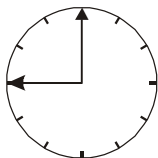
EXERCISES

I. Так питають про годину і так відповідають:

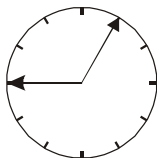
What is the time? =

What's the time? =

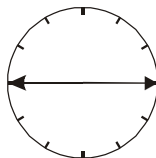
What time is it?



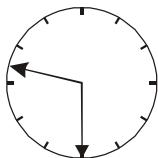
It is 9 o'clock



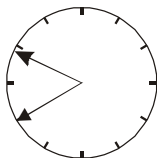
It is 5 minutes past 9



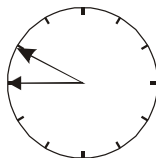
It is a quarter past nine



It is half past 9



It is 20 minutes to 10



It is a quarter to 10

II. Перекладіть.

1. Classes at the University begin (o 9.00).
2. The first break begins (o 10.20).
3. The long break begins (об 11.55).
4. Classes are over (o 15.30).
5. The meeting was over (o 17.15).
6. I have dinner (o 18.10).
7. I go to bed (o 11.30).

III. Погляньте на свій годинник і дайте відповіді на питання.

1. What's the time by your watch? – It is ... by my watch.
2. Is it the correct time?
 - Yes, it is.
 - No, it is not.
3. Is your watch fast or slow.
 - My watch is slow. My watch is ... minutes slow.
 - My watch is fast. My watch is ... minutes fast.

IV. Починайте переклад з кінця речення.

1. There are 12 months in a year. 2. There are 7 days in a week. 3. There are 4 seasons in a year. 4. There are 30 or 31 days in a month. 5. There are 60 seconds in a minute. 6. There are 60 minutes in an hour. 7. There are 365 or 366 days in a year. 8. There are 625 members in the House of Commons. 9. There are 250 members in the House of Lords.

V. Скажіть по-англійськи, котра година. Починайте від 1 години (It is one o'clock):

| to | past |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 5 (minutes) to 2 (1.55) | 5 (minutes) past 1 (1.05) |
| 10 (minutes) to 2 (1.50) | 10 (minutes) past 1 (1.10) |
| a quarter to 2 (1.45) | a quarter past 1 (1.15) |
| 20 (minutes) to 2 (1.40) | 20 (minutes) past 1 (1.20) |
| 25 (minutes) to 2 (1.35) | 25 (minutes) past 1 (1.25) |
| | half past 1 |

VI. Поставте питання і дайте відповіді.

Зразок: How much is 2 plus 3? (plus [πλ\σ])

2 plus 3 is 5.

$$2 + 4 = \quad 6 + 8 = \quad 10 + 2 =$$

$$3 + 5 = \quad 7 + 9 = \quad 11 + 3 =$$

$$4 + 6 = \quad 11 + 10 = \quad 12 + 4 =$$

$$5 + 7 = \quad 15 + 20 = \quad 13 + 5 =$$

VII. Поставте питання і дайте відповіді.

Зразок: How mach is 5 minus 3? (minus [μΑΙv≅σ])

5 minus 3 is 2.

$$10 - 1 = \quad 20 - 11 = \quad 110 + 27 =$$

$$9 - 2 = \quad 19 - 12 = \quad 230 - 16 =$$

$$8 - 3 = \quad 18 - 13 = \quad 300 + 100 =$$

$$7 - 4 = \quad 17 - 14 = \quad 1035 - 297 =$$

VIII. Числіть десятками до 100.

IX. Прочитайте. Про що йдеться у цій вправі? Побудуйте речення з кожним виразом:

15 higher schools, one of them, 125 years old, in 1881, in 1896, since 1939, in 1949, in 1991, in June 1992, about 2000 students, more than 1660 students, about 300 teachers, 5 buildings

X. Назвіть по-англійськи:

Це перша кімната. Це дев'ятий текст. Це четверта сторінка. Це п'ята аудиторія. Це було о 7 годині. Дівчина мала 18 років. У 2005 році ми стали студентами.

XI. Чи завжди ви поступате саме так?

What you have to do – do quick.

Time is gliding fast away:

Let us act and act today.

XII. Дайте відповіді на питання до тексту “London”.

1. What is London? 2. Name the greatest cities in Europe. 3. How old is London? 4. What historic sights of London do you know? 5. What river is London situated on? 6. When was London nearly destroyed? 7. What do you know about the City? 8. Call some monuments in the City. 9. What is the British Museum? 10. Where is Nelson's Column placed? 11. How many houses the British Parliament consist of? Call them. 12. Where is Big Ben? 13. How many students has the University of London?

XIII. Перекладіть англійською мовою.

Лондон – столиця З'єднаного королівства і найбільше місто країни. Тут проживають біля 8 млн. людей. Лондон має понад 2000 років. Це великий політичний і культурний центр. Кожного року до Лондона прибувають мільйони туристів, щоб оглянути такі

історичні пам'ятки, як Букінгемський палац, Вестмінстерське абатство і Лондонський Тауер.

Лондон ділиться на три великі частини: Сіті, Вест-Енд та Іст-Енд.

Центральна частина Лондона – Сіті. Це історичний і фінансовий центр Лондона. Тут є сучасні банки й офіси. Тут можна оглянути також старі пам'ятники, як собор св. Павла, колону на місці Великої пожежі 1666 року.

Будівлі Британського парламенту знаходяться у Вест-Енді. Тут є чудові парки і площі, красиві театри і музеї, Британський музей і Національна галерея, численні статуї і фонтани. Колона Нельсона і Гайд-парк теж знаходяться у Вест-Енді. На Лондонському Тауері є знаменитий годинник Біг-Бен. Через центр Лондона тече ріка Темза.

XIV. Текст для аудіювання.

BIG BEN

Some clocks are very big, for example Big Ben. It is the clock on the Houses of Parliament in London. It weighs 12 metric tons and is 2.7 meters in diameter and 23 meters high. The clock's mechanism weighs 4.5 metric tons. The minute hand of Big Ben is fourteen feet (1 foot = 30,9 cm) long, and the hour hand is nine feet long.

Big Ben first boomed out in 1859. On New Year's Eve, 1923, the bell was first heard on radio, and on New Year's Eve, 1949, it appeared on television.

The clock was named after Sir Benjamin Hall, a tall man, who led the works during the installation of the clock.

You can hear Big Ben every night on the radio at nine o'clock. At that hour its sound goes out all over the world.

XV. Перекладіть рідною мовою:

a) almost, enormous, sights pl, an abbey, a tower, a seaport, to flow, a direction, nearly, to destroy, a fire, air raids pl, a bridge, to

link, to cover, a mile, modern, a past, a stone, a spot, a retail trade, famous, a pavement, a statue, a fountain, an education;

b) the heart of London, World War II, a number of, of its past, the Great fire, night life, under them, the flag flies, to be in session.

c) My watch is slow. My watch is 5 minutes slow. My watch is fast. My watch is 5 minutes fast. It is the correct time.

It can be of use

Holidays in the USA

| When | What | Meaning |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| January 1 | New Year's Day | Новий Рік |
| February 14 | St. Valentine's Day | День св. Валентина |
| March 17 | St. Patrick's Day | День св. Патріка |
| April 1 | April Fools Day | День усіх дурнів |
| Before Easter | Good Friday | Велика П'ятниця |
| March or April | Easter | Великдень |
| Spring | Arbor Day | Весняне свято дерево-насадження |
| May 1 | May Day | Перше Травня |
| May | Mother's Day | День Матері |
| May 20 | Armed Forces Day | День військових сил |
| May 30 | Memorial Day | День пам'яті |
| June 14 | Flag Day | День прапорців |
| 3rd Sunday in June | Father Day | День Батька |
| July 4 | Independence Day | День Незалежності |
| 1st Monday in Sep. | Labour Day | День праці |
| October 31 | Halloween | Геловін (переддень свята всіх святих) |
| November 11 | Veterans Day | День ветерана |
| 4th Thursday in Nov. | Thanksgiving | Свято пам'яті перших колоністів |
| December 25 | Christmas | Різдво |

UKRAINE

Ukraine is my Motherland. On the 24th of August 1991 it was proclaimed sovereign. It has its territory, constitution, the highest body of state power (Verkhovna Rada – the Supreme Council), its government, the national emblem (the Trident), the state flag (blue and yellow) and the anthem. The area of Ukraine is more than 603 000 square kilometers. The population of the country is 47 300 000 people. The capital city is Kyiv.

Ukraine is situated in the East of Europe. It is divided into 24 regions and the Autonomous Republic of Crimea. Our country borders on 7 states – Russia, Belarus, Moldova, Poland, Slovakia, Hungary, and Romania. Ukraine is washed by the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov. The major rivers of Ukraine are the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Bug and the Donets. The Carpathians and the Crimean Mountains occupy 5 per cent of Ukraine’s territory.

The climate of Ukraine is favourable for animal husbandry, especially for cattle-, swine- and sheep-farming. Wheat, rye, corn, buckwheat, sugar beets, potatoes, flax and hemp are cultivated on its fertile fields. The orchards of Ukraine give much fruit. Ukraine is rich in metals, coal, oil, gas, and various ores.

Kyiv is one of the most beautiful cities of Europe. It was probably founded in the 5th century. The most famous historical monuments in Kyiv are Kyiv-Pechersk Lavra, St. Andrew’s Church and many others. Such prominent people as Mykola Kostomarov, Mykhailo Drahomanov, Mykhailo Hrushevsky lived and worked there.

Ukraine is a president-parliamentary republic trending on to be a parliament-presidential republic. The president of

the country is Victor Yushchenko, the prime-minister is Yulia Tymoshenko, the head of Verkhovna Rada is Volodymyr Lytvyn, the General-Prosecutor is Svjatoslav Piskun.

Task 1. Write and learn the words.

| | | |
|------------------|----------------|----------------|
| motherland | [ˈmʌɪl{vδ}] | батьківщина |
| to proclaim | [πρɛˈκλεΙμ] | проголошувати |
| sovereign | [ˈσΟπρΙv] | суверенний |
| the highest body | [ˈηαΙστˈβΟδΙ] | найвищий орган |
| state power | [ˈστεΙτˈπαυΞ] | державна влада |
| National Emblem | [ˈεμβλΞμ] | державний герб |
| an anthem | [ˈ{vTΞμ] | гімн |
| area | [ˈEΞρΙΞ] | площа |
| to be situated | [ˈσΙτφυεΙτΙδ] | знаходиться |
| to divide | [δΙˈπαΙδ] | поділяти |
| the Crimea | [κραΙˈμvΞ] | Крим |
| to wash | [ωΟΣ] | омивати |
| The Carpathians | [κ⊙ˈπεΙΤφΞvζ] | Карпати |
| to occupy | [ˈΟκφυπαΙ] | займати |
| cattle-farming | [ˈκ{τλˈφ⊙μΙε] | скотарство |
| swine-farming | [ˈσωαΙvˈφ⊙μΙε] | свинарство |
| sheep-farming | [ˈΣ√πˈφ⊙μΙε] | вівчарство |
| wheat | [ω√τ] | пшениця |
| rye | [ραΙ] | жито |
| corn | [κ]v] | кукурудза |
| buckwheat | [ˈβ]κω√τ] | гречка |
| sugar-beet | [ˈΣυγΞβ√τ] | цукровий буряк |
| flax | [φλ{κσ] | льон |

| | | |
|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| hemp | [ηεμπ] | коноплі |
| to cultivate | [ˈκλτΙπεΙτ] | виросувати |
| fertile | [ˈφταΙλ] | родючий |
| coal | [κουλ] | вугілля |
| oil | [ΟΙλ] | нафта |
| ore | [] | руда |
| to found | [φαυνδ] | засновувати |
| prominent | [ˈπρΟμΙνεντ] | визначний |
| to trend | [τρενδ] | мати тенденцію |

Task 2. Answer the questions.

1. Where is Ukraine situated?
2. When was Ukraine proclaimed sovereign?
3. What are the area and population of Ukraine?
4. How many regions are there in Ukraine?
5. What can you say about the geography of Ukraine?
6. What is the climate of Ukraine favourable for?
7. What mountains in Ukraine do you prefer?
8. When was Kyiv founded?
9. What are the most famous monuments in Kyiv?
10. What prominent people lived and worked there?
11. Who are the president, the prime-minister, the head of the Parliament, the General-Prosecutor of Ukraine?

Task 3. Tell your group mates about your favourite place in Lviv.

Task 4. Imagine you are talking to a foreign tourist. Make up a dialogue explaining how to get to the Opera House.

Task 5. Test your grammar.

1. Ukraine _____ a country in the Eastern Europe.
 - a. is
 - b. are
 - c. were
2. Ukraine is a land _____ with good climate, fertile soil and excellent geographic situation.
 - a. blesses
 - b. blessed
 - c. blessing
3. The capital city of Ukraine _____ Kyiv with a population of about 2,6 million people.
 - a. are
 - b. is
 - c. was
4. From the 9th century Ukraine was a part of Kyivan Rus, the first significant East Slavic state which _____ to the Mongol invasions of the 13th century.
 - a. is succumbed
 - b. succumbed
 - c. succumbs
5. Ukraine is a country of ancient cultural traditions, many of which _____ roots in the pre-Christian times.
 - a. have
 - b. has
 - c. will have
6. Pysanka, a decorated Easter egg, is a symbol _____ Ukraine.
 - a. at
 - b. of
 - c. between

- d. to
7. Easter is the biggest holiday _____ Ukraine.
- a. on
 - b. at
 - c. in
 - d. across
8. Christian vertep _____ the traditional folk puppet theatre.
- a. is
 - b. are
 - c. will be.
9. The Ukrainian money _____ hryvnia.
- a. is
 - b. are
 - c. will be
10. The most popular dishes in Ukraine _____ varenyky, kovbasa, holubtsi, and borsch.
- a. is
 - b. are
 - c. was
11. Hopak is the famous traditional folk dance _____ Ukraine.
- a. on
 - b. in
 - c. at
12. Mount Hoverla _____ the Carpathian Mountains is the highest peak of the country.
- a. on
 - b. between
 - c. in
 - d. at

Task 6. Fill in the missed words.

Deeds (вчинки), sun, hearts, centuries, flourishing orchard (квітучий сад), wind, water, grass, dream, joy, happiness, nightingale (соловей), tongue (мова), awake (той, що не спить).

LOVE UKRAINE

by Volodymyr Sosyura

Love Ukraine, love it like the _____;
Like the _____, and the _____ and _____...
In the hour of _____ and in time of _____,
Love it in the hour of misfortune.

Love Ukraine in your _____
And when you are _____,
Your cherry-like Ukraine.
Its beauty, eternally live and new,
And its _____ like that of the _____.

Among the brotherly peoples,
Like a _____
She is shining for _____.
Love Ukraine with all your _____
And with all your _____.

Task 7. Translate the sentences into English.

Україна – це моя Батьківщина. У 1991 році вона стала незалежною. Її шлях до свободи був дуже довгий. Україна лежить на Сході Європи і займає 603 000 квадратних кілометрів. За своєю площею вона найбільша країна в Європі. Україна омивається двома морями. П'ять відсотків території України займають Карпати та Кримські гори.

Помаранчева революція відновила основні демократичні права людини в Україні.

LEGAL SYSTEM IN UKRAINE

The judicial system of Ukraine **consists of**:

- *district (town) People's Courts,*
- *regional and territorial courts,*
- *the Supreme Court,*
- *military tribunals.*

Ninety-seven per cent of all criminal cases and 99 per cent of all civil cases are examined in *the People's Courts*. Regional courts examine the most serious offences. *The Supreme Court* of Ukraine examines the most complex cases. *Military tribunals* are the courts for servicemen.

The legality of the court's activities is controlled by *the Procurator's Office*.

Verkhovna Rada appoints the Procurator-General of Ukraine.

The court hearing is preceded by the complicated work of collecting and investigating evidence. This stage is called *preliminary investigation*. The court alone decides on penalty to be applied to the guilty person. No person can be regarded guilty **until a court has passed sentence**. All citizens of Ukraine are equal before the law.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What courts are there in Ukraine?
2. How many percent of all civil cases are examined in the People's Courts?
3. Where are the most serious offences examined?
4. What are the courts for servicemen called?
5. What is the Procurator-General appointed by?
6. What stage is called preliminary?
7. When can a person be regarded guilty?

8. What institutions decide on penalties to be applied?
9. Are citizens of Ukraine equal before the law?

Task 2. Make up sentences using the following words.

1. are There types courts four of Ukraine in.
2. courts Regional difficult cases examine.
3. The have rights equal Ukrainians.
4. Office The Procurator's controls of the legality activities the court's.

Task 3. Complete the sentences.

1. Verhovna Rada ...
2. The Procurator's Office...
3. The People's Courts...
4. The regional courts...
5. The Supreme Court...
6. The tribunals ...

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Верховна Рада призначає генерального прокурора України.
2. Усі громадяни мають рівні права.
3. Судова система України складається з районних, регіональних судів, Верховного суду та військових трибуналів.
4. Найважливіші справи розглядаються у Верховному суді.
5. Військові трибунали – це суди військовослужбовців.
6. Законність діяльності суду контролюється прокуратурою.

**THE INSTITUTE OF LEGISLATION OF THE
SUPREME COUNCIL OF UKRAINE**

The Institute of Legislation is the first research and applied organization in the history of development of the statehood and parliamentarism. It is aimed to guarantee the adequate scientific level of execution of tasks associated with further development of legislation.

Development of bills and debates of them are of great importance at the Institute of Legislation. Leading scientists of law and specialists in various branches of law are actively invited to take part in this work. The bills prepared are discussed at conferences or “round tables” with participation of scientists, people’s deputies, senior officials of the Supreme Council and Cabinet of Ministers. Drafts of the following laws of Ukraine were debated at these conferences: “On Laws and Legislative Activity”, “On Making Amendments and Supplements to the Civil Code of Ukraine”.

The post-graduate courses, which are functioning at the Institute, contribute much to training of the scientific personnel. The Institute has enlisted such well-known scientists of law as V.V. Kopeichikov, E.V. Nazarenko, V.I. Bordenyuk.

The Institute cooperates with Ukrainian and foreign scientific organizations. The Institute has created the reference book “Scientists of Law in Ukraine”. Specialists of the Institute examine and work out some drafts of the laws. One of them is the draft of the Law “On Laws and Legislative Activity in Ukraine”.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the Institute of Legislation?

2. What is its aim?
3. What is the most important in its work?
4. Who takes part in the work of the Institute?
5. The Drafts of what Laws were debated at its conferences?
6. What is the mission of post-graduate courses?
7. What famous scientists of law do you know?
8. What is the name of the reference book prepared by the Institute?
9. What do the specialists of the Institute examine and work out?
10. When do the drafts of the laws become the laws?

Task 2. Fill in the gaps.

Parti_ _ pation, le_ _ slative, _ _ vil, re _ _ _ rch, to
 g_ _ rant_ _ , ade_ _ ate, a cour_ _ , perso_ _ _
 _ , C_ _ _ _ , referen _ _ .

Task 3. Match the word and the meaning.

| | |
|-----------------------|---|
| a bill | a conference |
| a scientist | a parliamentary document |
| a Code | teaching |
| a scientific meeting | a person making researches |
| training | members of some organization |
| post-graduate courses | a book containing laws |
| a personnel | a book containing this or that information |
| a reference book | studies for those who have higher education |

THE CONSTITUTION OF UKRAINE

The legal traditions of the Ukrainians are deeply rooted in the past. In 1710, in Bendery city, Cossack Rada and Pylyp Orlyk adopted the first Ukrainian Constitution. The present Constitution of Ukraine was proclaimed and confirmed on June 28, by Verhovna Rada. According to it Ukraine is the sovereign, democratic and legal state. Ukraine is a Unitarian state with single citizenship.

The Constitution includes the preamble and 102 clauses. They reflect the main principles of the state system of Ukraine, the rights and duties of its citizens. The state language of Ukraine is Ukrainian. The state symbols of our country are the National Emblem, the National Flag, and the National Anthem of Ukraine. The National Emblem is a golden Tryzub on a blue Shield. The National Flag is a cloth with two equal horizontal stripes. The upper is coloured blue and the lower golden yellow.

The land, air space, mineral resources, water and other resources are the property of the Ukrainian people. Ukraine is the republic. The people are the only source of power that is exercised directly and through the bodies of state power and local governments. The Constitution of Ukraine establishes the country's political system, freedoms and duties of citizens and is the basis for its laws.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Who proclaimed the Constitution of Ukraine?
2. Ukraine is a Unitarian state, isn't it?
3. What is the state language of Ukraine?
4. Describe the National Flag of Ukraine.
5. Who is the only source of power in our country?

6. When and where was the first Ukrainian Constitution adopted?
7. Who was the author of the first Ukrainian Constitution?

Task 2. Match the words.

| | |
|------------|--------------|
| legal | state |
| present | system |
| sovereign | Emblem |
| single | Tryzub |
| main | traditions |
| National | principles |
| golden | government |
| horizontal | citizenship |
| local | Constitution |
| state | stripes |

Task 3. Fill in the missed words.

1. The first Ukrainian Constitution was _____ in 1710.
2. The present Constitution of Ukraine was _____ on June 28, 1996 by _____.
3. The Constitution includes _____.
4. The state language of Ukraine is _____.
5. The National _____ is a golden Tryzub on a blue shield.
6. _____ is a republic.
7. The Constitution of Ukraine establishes _____, freedoms and duties of _____.

LEGAL ASPECT OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN UKRAINE
(Part 1: The History)

Judging by the date when the Act of Independence of Ukraine was adopted, i.e., August 24, 1991, Ukraine is one of the youngest democracies. However, Ukraine enjoyed independence several times in its history and has old-age democratic traditions. In the twelfth century, in the Ukrainian state of Kyivan Rus', Prince Yaroslav the Wise ordered that all rights be recorded in a Code of laws called "Rus'ka Pravda". This Code demonstrated that ancestors of today's Ukrainians valued person's honour most of all. Punishments for crimes were fines and banishment as the most severe punishment for horse theft and arson.

In 1710, the Constitution of the Cossack hetman Pylyp Orlyk included certain human rights norms such as the right to ownership of land by childless widows, the right to elect "uryadnyky" and "polkovnyky" and the right of Cossack widows and orphans to be free from taxes and common obligations.

The Third Universal (Proclamation) of the Ukrainian Central Rada (Council) in 1917 abolished capital punishment, guaranteed freedom of speech, the press, the worship, and assembly.

The Fourth Universal of the Ukrainian Central Rada, which proclaimed the independence of all citizens, reaffirmed all the democratic freedoms guaranteed by the Third Universal.

The 1918 Constitution of the Ukrainian National Republic proclaimed the equality of all citizens, without any privileges of birth, worship, nationality, education, property.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. When was the Act of Independence adopted?
2. Is Ukraine one of the oldest democracies?
3. When was “Rus’ka Pravda” created?
4. What was the main idea of it?
5. Who was the author of the first Ukrainian Constitution?
6. Name the human rights granted by this Constitution.
7. What Universal abolished capital punishment?
8. What were the statements of the Constitution of 1918?

Task 2. Match the date and the event.

| | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1918 | “Rus’ka Pravda was created” |
| the 12 th century | the date of the Third Universal |
| 1917 | the second Constitution was adopted |
| 1710 | the date of the Fourth Universal |
| 1991 | the first Constitution was adopted |

Task 3. Odd one out.

1. Independence, democracy, freedom, colony.
2. Fine, banishment, prize, imprisonment.
3. A person, a country, a human, a citizen.
4. A privilege, a prize, a punishment, an award.

Task 4. Write sentences in all the tenses you know.

Citizens elect a president.

The Parliament adopted the Constitution.

**LEGAL ASPECT OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN UKRAINE
(Part 2: Modern Times)**

It is apparent from the previous text that Ukrainian human rights traditions have deep roots in its history. Since the adoption of the Act of Independence of Ukraine in 1991 much has been done concerning human rights and in particular in implementing international human rights norms in Ukrainian legislation.

Gaining independence by Ukraine in 1991 meant not only liberation but also new obligations. As a member of the international community, Ukraine became bound by international law, including human rights law. The fact that in November 1995 Ukraine became the 37th member of the European Council demonstrated that much had been accomplished in Ukraine. Our state has already ratified more than 50 conventions of the International Labour Organization ILO out of 170 devoted to human rights.

The implementation of international human norms in Ukrainian legislation is regulated by the Declaration of State Sovereignty of Ukraine, the law “On the Functioning of International Treaties” et cetera.

The Committee on Human Rights, Ethnic Minorities and International Relations is charged with responsibility of analyzing the laws of Ukraine whether they correspond to the norm of international law.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Ukraine has ancient traditions of human rights, hasn't it?
2. What is the biggest achievement in this sphere in present?

3. When did Ukraine gain independence?
4. Is Ukraine a member of the international community?
5. Are there 170 or 107 conventions concerning human rights in ILO?
6. How many conventions concerning human rights has our country ratified?
7. What documents regulate implementation of international human laws in Ukrainian legislation?
8. What organization examines laws whether they correspond to the norms of international law?

Task 2. Define the type of the questions.

Task 3. Fill in the table.

| <i>A noun</i> | <i>An adjective</i> |
|---------------|---------------------|
| independence | |
| | demonstrative |
| a human | |
| | legislative |

Task 4. Fill in the table.

| <i>A noun</i> | <i>A verb</i> |
|----------------|---------------|
| adoption | |
| | to implement |
| | to liberate |
| obligation | |
| accomplishment | |
| | to ratify |

CANADA'S GOVERNMENTS

Canada is governed by an organized system of laws. Governments, which the people choose freely and which function according to the principles of parliamentary democracy, create these laws. The Constitution is this country's fundamental law. It establishes the government and legal system as well as Individual rights and freedoms. Canada has *three levels* of government: the federal government, provincial and territorial governments, and municipal governments. The federal government has *three main parts*: the Executive, the Legislative and the Judicial.

The Executive consists of the Governor General, the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. The Governor General is the official representative of Queen Elizabeth II. Canada is a constitutional monarchy, and the Queen is Canada's official head of state. Parliament is the Legislative Branch of government. It has *two chambers*: the House of Commons and the Senate. Members of the House of Commons are called Members of Parliament, or MPs. Canadian citizens elect them over the age of 18. Members of Senate are called Senators. The Governor General on the advice of the Prime Minister appoints them.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the main law in Canada?
2. What are the contents of it?
3. How many levels of government are there in Canada?
4. How many parts of the federal government are there?
5. What does the Executive consist of?
6. Who is the official head of the state?
7. Who is the official representative of the Queen?

8. Is Canada a constitutional monarchy?
9. How many chambers are there in the Parliament?
10. Who elects the members of the Houses?

Task 2. Complete the sentences.

1. The levels of the Canadian governments are:
2. The parts of the federal government are:
3. The Executive consists of ...
4. The Parliament has ___ chambers:

Task 3. Put the words in the correct order.

1. head/ The/ official/ Queen/ is/ Canada's/ of/ state.
2. monarchy. / constitutional/ Canada/ a/ is/
3. Canadian/ have/ right/ the/ vote/ to/ citizens/ when/ 18./ they're

Task 4. Classify the words from the text.

| Legislative branch | Executive branch |
|--------------------|------------------|
| | |

Task 5. Correct the statements.

1. There is no written Constitution in Canada.
2. Canada has 4 levels of government.
3. The federal government has 2 main parts.
4. The Executive in Canada consists of the President, the Prime Minister and the Cabinet.
5. The Governor General is the official representative of the President.
6. Parliament is the Executive branch of government.
7. The Parliament has 3 chambers.

THE EXECUTIVE AND LEGISLATURE IN CANADA

Government is the mechanism through which the public wills are expressed and made effective. The federal government is responsible for a wide variety of national matters. These include foreign policy, national defence, trade and commerce, criminal justice and social benefits. The federal government and the provincial governments share control of immigration, agriculture and other areas.

The Supreme Court of Canada is the highest body of the Judiciary.

The provincial governments control education, health, social services and municipal government. In the Executive Branch, the Queen’s representative is known as the Lieutenant Governor. The leader of the governing party is called the Premier.

Each of ten provinces has a parliament. In most provinces the parliaments are called Legislatures. In Quebec, the parliament is called the “Assemblée nationale”.

Municipal governments are concerned with local matters. These include school, water, sewage, and garbage collection, fire protection service. Larger towns and cities have their own police forces.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is federal government in Canada responsible for?
2. What governments does federal government share control with?
3. What is the highest body of Judiciary in Canada?
4. What are the responsibilities of provincial governments?

5. Who is the Queen's representative in the Executive Branch?
6. Who is the leader of the governing party?
7. What is the name of the provincial governments?
8. What are the matters of the local governments?

Task 2. Match two halves of the sentences.

| | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| The federal government deals with | immigration and agriculture |
| The federal and provincial governments control | called Legislatures. |
| The Supreme Court is | education, health, social services. |
| Municipal governments work on | in large cities. |
| The provincial governments are | local matters. |
| There are local police forces | the highest court in Canada. |
| The provincial governments control | foreign policy and criminal justice. |

Task 3. Complete the sentences.

1. In, the parliament is called "Assemblée nationale".
2. are concerned with local matters.
3. The leader of the governing party is called ...
4. is the highest body of Judiciary in Canada.
5. is responsible for social benefits.
6. The provincial governments control

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Task 1. Test your knowledge of the USA. Answer the questions.

1. How many states are there in the USA?
2. What is the capital of the USA?
3. Where is the capital situated?
4. What are the area and the population of the country?
5. What oceans wash the USA?
6. What countries are the neighbours of the USA?
7. What American cities do you know?
8. What rivers is the country famous for?
9. When did the country get independence?
10. What is the residence of the president?

Task 2. Read the text about The White House and put the verbs in the necessary tense form.

WHY IS THE WHITE HOUSE WHITE?

We all (to know) about the White House, the official residence of the president of America. It (to have) its history. The original building (to be set on fire) by the British during the British-American War of 1812 when the Americans (to fight) for independence. Later the building (to be restored) and (to be painted) white. That's why it (to be) still white.

The house (to be designed) by James Hoban in 1792. All presidents, except George Washington, have lived here. There (to be) 132 rooms and 20 baths and showers. The largest room on the main floor (to be) East Room; here receptions and balls (to be held). The President and his family (to live) on the upper floors. The Oval Room (to be situated)

in the west wing. The east wing (to be used) by officials and staff members.

Task 3. True/False.

1. The original building was white.
2. It was destroyed by the French.
3. The house was designed in 1793.
4. George Washington lived there.
5. There are many rooms in the White House.
6. The president and the family live on the upper floor.
7. The Oval Room is situated in the east wing.

Task 4. The Quiz

New York is divided into _____ districts.

- a. 3
 - b. 4
 - c. 5
2. The central district is
 - a. Manhattan
 - b. The Bronx
 - c. Brooklyn
 3. In 1624 Manhattan was bought by the Dutch for _____ dollars.
 - a. 24
 - b. 24 000
 - c. 24 000 000
 4. The population of New York is _____ people.
 - a. 9 000 000
 - b. 8 000 000
 - c. 10 000 000
 5. There are _____ stripes on the flag of the USA.

- a. 15
 - b. 13
 - c. 30
6. There are _____ stars on the American flag.
- a. 60
 - b. 40
 - c. 50
7. What holiday is not celebrated in the USA?
- a. New Year's Day
 - b. Armed Forces Day.
 - c. The Queen's Birthday.

Task 5. Make up your own questions and test your group mates.

Task 6. Read the story and put the paragraphs in the correct order.

THE MULE IS YOURS

On the Texas frontier a man was riding an old mule.

“Stranger”, said he, “I’m not going to let a little matter of ninety-five dollars stand between me and a mule trade. The mule is yours”.

“How much for the mule?” asked a bystander.

The rider stopped and thought.

“I’ll give you five dollars”, said the bystander.

“Just a hundred dollars”, said the other.

Task 7. Read and memorize the examples of British and American English words.

| British English | Translation | American English |
|------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| minister | міністр | secretary |
| car | машина | automobile |

| | | |
|------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| secondary school | середня школа | high school |
| biscuits | печиво | cookies |
| flat | квартира | apartment |
| form (school) | клас | grade |
| lift | ліфт | elevator |
| post | пошта | mail |
| pavement | тротуар | sidewalk |
| lorry | вантажівка | truck |
| tram | трамвай | street-car |
| petrol | бензин | gasoline (gas) |
| government | уряд | administration |
| autumn | осінь | fall |
| underground | метро | subway |
| shop | магазин | store |
| shop-assistant | продавець | clerk |
| taxi | таксі | cab |
| tin | жестяна банка | can |
| wash up | мити посуд | do the dishes |
| wash your hands | мити руки | wash up |
| all right | гаразд | O.K. |
| good bye | до побачення | so long |
| bill | рахунок | check |
| car park | місце для паркування | parking lot |
| chemist | аптекарь | druggist |
| full stop | крапка | period |
| grilled | смажений, запечений | broiled |
| motorway | автомагістраль | freeway |
| sweets | цукерки | candies |
| toilet | туалет | restroom, bathroom |
| trousers | штани | pants |

THE USA: THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF GOVERNMENT

The U.S. Constitution defines a federal system of government in which certain powers are delegated to the national government; the other powers fall to the states. The national government consists of executive, legislative, and judicial branches that check and balance one another.

The president, who must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, at least 35 years old and a resident of the country for at least 14 years, heads the executive branch of the government. The formal responsibilities of the president include those of chief executive, treaty maker, commander in chief of the army, the head of state. In practice they are: drafting legislation, formulating foreign policy, leadership of his political party.

The members of the president's Cabinet are: the attorney general and the secretaries of Treasury, Defence, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, Labour, Health and Human Services, Education and some others. The president with the approval of the Senate appoints them. There is also the president's Executive Office, which includes the Office of Management and Budget, the Council of Economic Advisers, and the National Security Council.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What are the branches of the national government?
2. Who is the head of the executive branch?
3. What are the requirements to the candidate of the president?
4. What are the responsibilities of the president?

5. Who are the members of the president's Cabinet?
6. Who appoints them?
7. What are the divisions of the president's Executive Office?

Task 2. Match the verbs and the nouns.

| | |
|----------------------|------------------|
| to be headed by | powers |
| to check and balance | the president |
| to delegate | three branches |
| to be appointed by | responsibilities |
| to consist of | one another |
| to include | the president |

Task 3. Write the Past form of the following verbs.

| | |
|------------|--|
| to define | |
| to fall | |
| to consist | |
| to make | |
| to check | |
| to appoint | |
| to break | |

Task 4. Fill in the preposition.

To consist ...; to be headed ...; to be appointed ...; with the approval ...; to fall ...; the head ...state; commander ... chief of the army.

Task 5. Add the sentences.

1. The President of the USA is
2. The Secretary of the USA is

THE USA: THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH OF THE GOVERNMENT

The legislative branch of the government is the Congress, which has two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. The powers of Congress are: the powers to levy taxes, borrow money, regulate interstate commerce, and declare war and so on.

With the exception of revenue bills, which must originate in the House of Representatives, legislative bills may be introduced in and amended by either house. Then it must pass both houses and be signed by the president before it becomes law. The president may veto a bill, but a veto can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of both houses.

Voters of every district choose the House of Representatives. The number of representatives depends on the population of the district. Though, it never exceeds 435 in total. The candidates must be 25 years old, residents of the given states, and previously residents of the state from which they are elected. They serve for a two-year period.

Each state elects 2 senators at large. Senators must be at least 30 years old, residents of the state from which they are elected, and citizens of the United States for at least 9 years. Each term of service is for six years.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. How many houses are there in the Congress?
2. What are the powers of Congress?
3. What is the procedure of lawmaking?
4. Who chooses the members of the House of Representatives?

5. What is the number of the members to the House of Representatives?
6. What are the requirements to the candidates?
7. What is the number of senators from each state?
8. What are the requirements to senators?

Task 2. Fill in the preposition.

The branch ... the government; to originate ... the House ... Representatives; to be amended ...; to depend ...; ... total; ... large; ... least.

Task 3. Write the Past form of the given verbs.

| | |
|--------------|--|
| to have | |
| to lavy | |
| to borrow | |
| to originate | |
| to become | |
| to choose | |
| to give | |
| to elect | |
| to introduce | |

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Кожен штат обирає двох сенаторів.
2. Конгрес є законодавчою гілкою уряду.
3. Конгрес складається з сенату та палати представників.
4. Кількість представників залежить від населення округу.
5. Сенатор має мати тридцять років і бути громадянином США не менш як дев'ять років.

**THE JUDICIAL BRANCH OF THE GOVERNMENT
IN THE USA**

The U.S. Supreme Court heads the judicial branch of the federal government in the USA. It consists of nine judges (including the chief judge) appointed for life by the president with the consent of the Senate.

Three types of questions generally reach the Supreme Court: cases involving litigants of different states, cases involving the interpretation of federal law, and cases involving the interpretation of the Constitution.

Below the Supreme Court are the U.S. courts of appeal. Special courts handle property and contract damage suits against the United States (U.S. Claims Court), review customs ruling (U.S. Court of International Trade), and apply the Uniform Code of Military Justice (U.S. Court of Military Appeals).

Each state has at least one federal district court and at least one federal judge. District judges are appointed for life by the president with Senate consent. Appeals from district-court decisions are carried to the courts of appeals.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the main Court in the USA?
2. How many judges are there in the Supreme Court of the USA?
3. Who appoints the judges?
4. What questions arise in the Supreme Court?
5. What special courts do you know?
6. What are their functions?
7. Are there any district courts in the USA?
8. Who heads them?

9. What term are district judges appointed for?
10. Where are the appeals from district courts carried?

Task 2. True/False.

1. The Court of Appeal heads the judicial branch.
2. There are nineteen judges in the Supreme Court.
3. The judges are appointed for 5 years.
4. Three main types of questions reach the Supreme Court.
5. There are no special courts in the U.S.A.
6. Each state has at least one federal judge.
7. Appeals from the district courts reach the courts of appeals.

Task 3. Complete the sentences.

1. The ... is below the Supreme Court.
2. Each state has at least court.
3. There are ... judges in the Supreme Court.
4. District judges are appointed for life by ...

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Кожен штат має як мінімум одного федерального суддю та один федеральний окружний суд.
2. Верховний суд США – найвищий суд федерального уряду.
3. Судді Верховного суду призначаються президентом за згоди сенату.
4. У США є апеляційні та спеціальні суди.
5. Верховний суд складається з дев'яти суддів.
6. Позови з окружного суду передаються до апеляційних судів.
7. Суд міжнародної торгівлі є спеціальним судом.

ADMINISTRATION STATE AND MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS IN THE USA

The governments of the 50 states have structure similar to that of the federal government. Each state has its own *constitution*. Each state has *a governor, a legislature, and a judiciary*. Most state judicial systems are based upon elected *justices of the peace*, above whom come *district courts* and *appellate courts*. In addition, there are *probate courts* concerned with wills, estates, and guardianships.

The *functions* of state governments are: agriculture, roads, public safety, and education.

Municipal governments are more diverse in structure than state governments. There are *three basic types*: mayor-council governments, commission governments, and council-manager governments. *In the first type*, the mayor and the council are elected, and the former one controls the latter one. Boston, New York City, and Chicago are the examples of this type. *In the second type*, voters elect a number of commissioners, each of whom serves as head of a city department; the presiding commissioner is generally the mayor. Utah and the Salt Lake City are the cities of this type. *In the council-manager type*, an elected council hires a city manager to administer the city departments. The mayor, elected by the council, simply chairs it and officiates at important functions. Iowa, Ohio, and Cincinnati have council-manager governments.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Have the states structure similar to that of the federal government?
2. Are there special constitutions for every state?

3. What courts are there in the state judiciary?
4. What are the functions of the state governments?
5. How many types of municipal governments are there in the USA? Describe them.
6. What cities are the examples of each type?

Task 2. Correct the sentences.

1. The governments of the states have structure different from that of the federal government.
2. The half of the states has its own constitution.
3. Justices of the peace are above district courts.
4. There are four types of municipal governments.
5. New York City is the example of the third type.

Task 3. Classify the words from the text.

| <i>People</i> | <i>Organizations</i> | <i>Functions</i> |
|---------------|----------------------|------------------|
| | | |
| | | |

Task 4. Fill in the missed words.

1. There are _____ basic types of municipal governments.
2. The governments of the states have structure similar to that of _____ .
3. Each _____ has its own constitution.
4. _____, _____, and _____ have council-manager governments.
5. There are _____ _____ concerned with wills, estates, and guardianships.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE USA

The Constitution was written during the summer of 1787 at a convention of 55 delegates who met in Philadelphia to amend the Articles of Confederation, the country's first constitution. The new Constitution attempted to retain as much of the independence of the states as possible. At the same time it also established a central government to carry out important national functions that the states could not handle individually.

The main text of the Constitution comprises *seven articles*. *Article 1* vests all legislative powers in the Congress. *Article 2* vests executive power in the president. *Article 3* places judicial power in the hands of the courts. *Article 4* deals with relations among the states and privileges of the citizens of the states, *Article 5* - with amendment procedure. *Article 6* is devoted to public debts and the supremacy of the Constitution. *Article 7* gives ratification terms.

Twenty-seven amendments have been added to the Constitution since 1789. In the thirteenth amendment slavery was abolished. The fourteenth one guaranteed the right to vote regardless of race, the nineteenth gave the right to vote to women.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. When was the Constitution written?
2. What was the aim of the new Constitution?
3. How many articles are there in the Constitution of the USA?
4. Which article deals with the executive power?

5. How many amendments have been added to the Constitution since 1789?
6. Which amendment gave women the right to vote?

Task 2. Write the numbers in words.

1787, 55, 27, 13th, 14th, 19th, 1987, 25th, 11th, 2004, 17, 2nd, 1st, 3rd, 9th; 0.8, 0.6; 107, 222.

Task 3. Write 5 false sentences by the text. Let your group mates correct them.

Task 4. Match verbs and nouns.

| | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| to write | the functions |
| to amend | relations |
| to retain | public debts |
| to carry out | the Articles |
| to comprise | the Articles |
| to vest | the Constitution |
| to deal with | ratification terms |
| to be devoted to | slavery |
| to give | powers |
| to abolish | the right |
| to guarantee | independence |

Task 5. Correct the sentences.

1. Thirty amendments were added to the Constitution in 1789.
2. Article 5 places judicial power in the hands of the courts.
3. The nineteenth amendment abolished slavery.

ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE

Today, English is one of the most popular languages in the world. It is an international one. It is difficult to believe that in Shakespeare's times only a few million people spoke English.

English has become a world language because of its establishment as a mother tongue outside England, in all the continents of the world. It began in the seventeenth century, with the first settlements in North America. The great growth of population in the United States gave the English language its present status. The Industrial Revolution contributed to the export of British goods to many countries of the world. In the 18th and 19th centuries Britain became the biggest empire in the world. With the growth of colonies the number of English-speakers increased.

Today, English is still an official language in many countries: Great Britain, the USA, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia. It is spoken in India and other former colonies. Geographically, English is the most widespread language on the Earth, second only to Chinese in the number of people who speak it. There are 400 million people who speak English in the world. It is the language of business, technology, and sport.

There are 3 groups of English-speakers: those who have learned it as their native language (the British, the Americans); those who live in bilingual countries (India, Canada); those who are forced to use it for their work or studying (people from the majority of countries in the world, Ukraine including). One person in seven of the world's entire population belongs to one of these three groups. 75% of the world's mail and 60% of the world telephone calls are in

English. There are many foreign words in the English language. The English also borrowed its words to many languages in the world. There is a movement of purists – those who are against using English and other foreign words in their languages.

Task 1. Write down and learn the new words.

| | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|
| establishment | [Ισ'τ{βλΙΣμεντ}] | становлення |
| mother tongue | ['μ\Δ≅'τ\ε] | рідна мова |
| settlement | ['σετλμ≅ντ] | поселення |
| growth | [γρουТ] | ріст |
| status | ['στεΙτ≅σ] | статус |
| English-speaker | ['ΙεγλΙΣ'σπ\к≅] | той, хто розмовляє англійською |
| native | ['νεΙτΙω] | рідний |
| bilingual | [βαΙ'λΙεγω≅λ] | двомовний |
| to be forced | [φ\στ] | бути змушеним |
| to use | [φ\ζ] | використовувати |
| entire | [Ιν'ταΙ≅] | цілий |
| to belong to | [βΙ'λοε] | належати до |
| mail | [μεΙλ] | пошта |
| foreign | [φΟρΙν] | іноземний |
| widespread | ['ωαΙδσπρεδ] | поширений |

Task 2. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the status of the English language today?
2. Was it international in the times of Shakespeare?
3. How many groups of English-speakers are there?
4. What group do you belong to?

5. How much mail is in English in the world? What about phone calls?
6. In what spheres is English used?
7. Is it the first in the world by the number of speakers?

Task 3. Write the names of the languages.

| | |
|----------|--|
| Italy | |
| English | |
| Germany | |
| Japan | |
| Spain | |
| France | |
| China | |
| Portugal | |
| Ireland | |
| Turkey | |

Task 4. Read about Esperanto, an artificial language, and compare it with English.

ESPERANTO

Esperanto, an artificial language, was invented by a Polish doctor, Ludwig Lazarus Zamenhof. The vocabulary comes mainly from Western European languages, and the grammar is similar to Slavic languages. There are no exceptions (винятки) to the rules. There are just 16 rules. Esperanto is spoken by 8 million people in the world. There is no problem of spelling. Esperanto is taught in some countries of the former Yugoslavia, in Hungary. China is also interested in using it.

HUMAN RIGHTS AND DEMOCRACY IN BRITAIN

Human rights are of great importance in Great Britain. Respect for individual freedom is the main factor of Britain's democratic system. British public opinion is concerned about violations of human rights throughout the world. The observation of human rights and their protection is a necessary element of the foreign policy of the British Government.

These rights and freedoms are listed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1948. They include the right to:

- *work*: everyone has the right to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and protection against unemployment;
- *an adequate standard of living*: the right to have proper food, clothing, housing and medical care;
- *social security*: financial help to people who are elderly, sick, disabled and so on;
- *education*: education shall be free, at least in the elementary stages. Elementary education is compulsory. Technical and professional education is generally available and higher education is equally accessible to all on the basis of merit;
- *the highest health care standards*: treatment is provided regardless of patients' income and financed out of general taxation;
- form and join *trade unions* for the protection of his interests;
- participate in *cultural life*.

Britain is a parliamentary democracy. The Government is responsible to the people through the elected House of Commons.

Democracy produces conditions in which an individual can show his initiative. Aid is used in a practical way.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Is Great Britain a democratic country?
2. What do the British people respect the most?
3. Where are the main human rights listed?
4. When was the Universal Declaration adopted?
5. What main human rights do you know?
6. Explain the essence of the right to work.
7. What does the notion „an adequate standard of living” include?
8. What categories of people are provided with financial help?
9. What education is free and compulsory?
10. What education is based on the basis of merit?
11. What is the source of financing of health care?
12. Why do the British join trade unions?
13. What House of Parliament is especially responsible for observing human rights?
14. Is individual initiative encouraged in Britain?

Task 2. Look at the questions again and name special and general ones.

Task 3. Fill in the missed words.

1. Everyone has the to protection against unemployment.
2. The rights are in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

3. Elementary is free and
4. Technical and professional education shall be generally
5. The British people join to protects their interests.
6. Medical treatment is regardless of patients' income.
7. Britain is a democracy.

Task 4. Put the words in the correct order.

1. education./ Everyone/ right/ has/ to/ the
2. security/ social/ a/ is/ right. Human
3. education/ Technical/ generally/ is/ available.
4. way./ Aid/ used/ is/ in/ a/ practical
5. Everyone/ right/ has/ the/ work./ to

Task 5. Translate the sentences into English.

1. У демократичному суспільстві кожна особа може виявляти ініціативу.
2. Вираз „відповідний рівень життя” означає право мати належну їжу, одяг, житло та медичне обслуговування.
3. Соціальний захист – це допомога людям похилого віку та хворим.
4. Початкова освіта у Великій Британії є обов’язковою.
5. Універсальна Декларація прав людини була прийнята в 1948 році.
6. Права людини є дуже важливими для британців.
7. Кожен має право вільно обирати професію.

THE LEGAL PROFESSION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

The legal profession has two branches: barristers and solicitors.

Solicitors. If a person requires (потребує) legal advice, he or she will go to a solicitor, who for a fee will advise on a course of action. Much of his work concerns (стосується) routine matters, such as buying and selling houses, executing wills and checking (перевірка) documents and contracts, but solicitors are also involved into (залучені до) criminal and civil cases. A solicitor can't plead in the higher courts, so if the case is to be heard in one of these, he or she must brief a barrister on the client's behalf (від імені клієнта).

In order to become a solicitor it is necessary to take „articles of clerkship” for a period of between 2 and five years. It depends (залежить) on the qualification of the person. Then an articulated clerk must pass the examinations. After that he/she becomes a member of the Law Society.

Barristers. The barrister conducts proceedings in higher courts. In order to become a barrister it is necessary to reach certain educational standard and to pass an examination of the Council of Legal Education. A barrister with a substantial practice may become a „Queen's Counsel” (королівський радник). He has to get a patent from the Lord Chancellor for that.

Judges. Judges are appointed (призначаються) by the Lord Chancellor. The only way to remove him is by a petition to Parliament.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What branches of the legal profession are there in Great Britain?
2. What are solicitors occupied with?
3. Are they permitted to plead in the higher courts?
4. What is required to become a solicitor?
5. How long does it take?
6. Where does a barrister work?
7. Who may become a „Queen’s Counsel”?
8. Who gives a patent of a „Queen’s Counsel”?
9. Who appoints judges?
10. In what way can they be removed?

Task 2. Match English and Ukrainian equivalents.

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| barrister | заповіт |
| solicitor | пройти стажування у солісітора на посаді клерка |
| legal advice | солісітор, адвокат нижчої категорії |
| fee | учнівство |
| will | бути залученим |
| to execute a will | баристер, адвокат вищого суду |
| to brief a barrister | юридична консультація |
| to take “articles of clerkship” | залежати |
| articled clerk | доручити ведення справи баристерові |
| apprenticeship | стати королівським адвокатом |
| to take silk | гонорар |
| to depend | клерк-стажист |
| to be involved | оформляти заповіт |

Lesson 27

THE LEGAL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND AND WALES

The United Kingdom has a unitary legislative system. There is one legislature for the whole of the United Kingdom, but *3 different legal jurisdictions*: England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The United Kingdom has no written constitution. The sources of law are what Parliament lays down in Acts of Parliament and in subordinate legislature interpreted by the courts, and court decisions on areas where Parliament has not acted – common law *strictu sensu*.

Although there is no written constitution in England and Wales, there is a number of rights, which have been developed by the statute and by the courts administering the common law. Parliament has the power to abolish these rights but this is regarded as no more than a theoretical possibility.

The rights are: the right to life, the right to personal liberty, the right to freedom of expression, and the right to freedom of conscience.

There are no special courts, which deal with the protection of such rights or other constitutional questions. These questions may arise in any court.

A defendant always has the right to challenge the jurisdiction of a particular court.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What kind of legislative system is there in the United Kingdom?

2. How many jurisdictions are there?
3. What are the sources of Law in the UK?
4. What rights are there in Britain?
5. Has the Parliament the right to abolish them?
6. Are there any special courts dealing with protection of human rights in Britain?
7. What is the defendant's right?

Task 2. Make up all types of questions.

1. I like modern music.
2. There are several theatres in Lviv.
3. Lviv has more than 50 historical monuments of all Ukraine.
4. Helen has 3 brothers.
5. There are many fruit trees in the yard.
6. Books are source of wisdom.
7. The man speaks 3 languages.

Task 3. Translate the sentences into English.

1. У Сполученому Королівстві є три юрисдикції.
2. Основними правами людини є право на життя, особисту свободу, свободу совісті та слова.
3. Теоретично, парламент може скасовувати деякі права.
4. Велика Британія не має писаної конституції.
5. У Сполученому Королівстві є унітарна законодавча система.
6. Джерелами права у Великій Британії є акти парламенту і підзаконні акти.
7. Питання про права людини можуть виникати у будь-якому суді.
8. Підзахисний має право оскаржувати рішення суду.

THE BRITISH SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Britain has no written constitution and rules on mixture of statute law, common law and conventions. Britain is a monarchy. In theory the monarch's powers are as absolute as they were during the middle Ages, but in practice this power is restricted in a number of ways.

The monarchy is hereditary. Membership of the House of Lords is largely hereditary, too, although there are various categories of life peers. The lower house, the House of Commons, is elected and represents the wishes of the British people. Over the centuries the Crown and the Lords, have gradually lost power.

The Queen reigns with the consent of Parliament. All the actions of government are carried out in the Queen's name, and automatically have her approval, although she doesn't even know about them.

The Queen is the symbol of the state. The Queen's functions are virtually all ceremonial. She opens the Parliament, but takes no part in its activities. She can't even enter the House of Commons. Parliament is dissolved by the monarch but can only be dissolved with its consent.

Between 1945 and the late seventies it was generally agreed that Britain had a „two party” system of government: Conservative or Labour Party.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Is there a written constitution in Britain?
2. What laws has Britain got?
3. Are the monarch's powers really absolute?
4. What is the monarch's power restricted by?

5. Which of two houses of Parliament is elected?
6. Which of the two houses of Parliament has more power in Great Britain?
7. Who is the symbol of the British state?
8. What does the Queen do in Parliament?
9. Can the Queen dissolve Parliament without its own consent?
10. What parties are there in Great Britain?

Task 2. Put the words in a correct order.

1. the Queen/ Is/ the symbol/ of / the state?
2. the Queen/ dissolve/ the Parliament/ Can/ without/ consent? / its own
3. Is/ the House of Lords/ the House of Commons/ or/ elected?
4. The Queen/ with/ the Parliament,/ the consent/ reigns/ of/ doesn't she?
5. What/ in Great Britain? / parties/ are/ there

Task 3. Define the type the questions in the exercise above.

Task 4. Give the plural of the nouns.

Monarchy, theory, power, a way, a category, a house, a wish, an activity, a party, a life.

Task 5. Correct the sentences.

1. Britaine has a written constitution.
2. Britaine is a republic.
3. Monarch's powers are still absolute.
4. Membership of the House of Commons is hereditary.
5. The lower house is the House of Lords.

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The British Parliament consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. It sits in the Palace of Westminster, also known as the House of Parliament.

The Parliament is responsible for governing the country: it passes legislation, ratifies international treaties, and provides the finance. The government is carried on by agreement between the political parties. The majority party forms the Government and the minority party forms the Opposition.

The people at elections choose members of the House of Commons. There must be general elections every five years. The citizens who have attained the age of 18 have the right to vote. Any man or woman over 21 can be a candidate at parliamentary election.

Once the election is over, the monarch calls upon the leader of the victorious party to form a Government. He becomes a Prime Minister. The Prime Minister's residence is 10 Downing Street. His responsibility is to choose the ministers and to form The Cabinet. The Cabinet is the heart of government system.

The Bills. To be passed by Parliament a Bill must go through both Houses, and then the monarch must approve it before it can become a law.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. How many Houses are there in the British Parliament?
2. Where does the Parliament sit?
3. What are the responsibilities of the Parliament?

4. In what way do the parties in the Parliament cooperate?
5. How often are the elections conducted?
6. Who can take part in elections and who can be a candidate?
7. Who becomes a Prime Minister?
8. Where is his residence situated?
9. Who forms the Cabinet of Ministers?
10. What do you know about the Bills?

Task 2. Continue the sentences:

1. The Houses of Parliament are:.....
2. Members of are chosen by the citizens.
3. The Parliament sits in the, the Prime Minister's residence is
4. The British can take part in elections when they are They can be candidates at the age of
5. The responsibilities of the parliament are.....
6. The Parliament passes ... and ratifies

Task 3. Decode the words:

Tionselec, liaparment, typar, candatedi, nismiter, denceresi, canetbi, tizensci.

Task 4. Fill in the missed letters:

Parl- -ment, re- -d-n-e, le- - slation, re- pon- - ble, Pr- - - M- n- - ter, monar - -, gove - - ment, el- c- - - - - .

Task 5. Put the words in the correct order.

1. The/Parliament/of/consists/British/houses./two
2. elect/People/Commons./members/House/of/the/of

LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF ENGLAND AND WALES

The traditional units of English local government were *the parish, the borough and the county*. They originally fulfilled functions far different from those that they were later called upon to undertake. The parish was in its early days an ecclesiastical unit, the center of which was the parish Church. During the 16th and 17th centuries it acquired civil functions, such as maintenance of the roads and care of the poor. The Crown granted borough status. Boroughs had their own courts; and they could also hold markets and send representatives to Parliament. The county was originally the territory granted to an earl by the king in return for feudal service.

In 1888 a system of *county councils* elected by ratepayers was introduced. A quarter of the council was “aldermen”, elected by the councillors.

In 1972 the Local Government Reorganization Act established a new pattern of local authorities. The local authorities included the Greater London Council, 6 metropolitan counties and 30 non-metropolitan counties, divided into districts. In 1986 the metropolitan councils and the Greater London Council disappeared. Power was redistributed to *the districts*.

County councils and district authorities are responsible for education, youth employment, personal social services, and libraries. Museums and art galleries are also in responsibility of the councils and authorities.

Expenditure by local authorities is financed from the following sources: grants from central government and local rates.

Task 1. Answer the questions:

1. What are the traditional units of English local government?
2. What were the functions of parishes?
3. What were the functions of boroughs?
4. What can you say about counties?
5. When was the system of county councils elected by ratepayers introduced?
6. What was established as a result of Local Government Reorganization Act?
7. What can you say about the history of formation of the district authorities?
8. What are the responsibilities of the county councils and district authorities?
9. What are the sources of finance of the local authorities?

Task 2.

Find all the prepositions in the text. Write down these prepositional word combinations.

Task 3. Correct the sentences.

1. There are four traditional units of government in Great Britain.
2. They always performed their present functions.
3. In 1986 the power was redistributed to the boroughs.
4. A system of county councils elected by ratepayers was introduced in 1898.
5. The Crown granted the county status.
6. The county was originally bought.
7. According to the Local Reorganization Act there were five metopolotan counties.

**ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN GREAT
BRITAIN AND THE USA**

A person offending against the law is summoned before a court. The summons issued by a court states the charges moved against the offender by the person suing him. When a defendant is brought before a court the charge is read out to him and he is asked whether he pleads guilty or not guilty. If he pleads guilty, the court sentences him. If he pleads not guilty, a jury of 12 jurors must be formed and summoned to attend the court. When the jurors are sworn the trial proceeds.

Opening the case for the prosecuting party and hearing the evidence of the witnesses for the prosecution carry on the trial. On the completion of the plaintiff's evidence, the defendant's case is stated and evidence is heard in support of it.

The accused is entitled to be defended by a counsel. Witnesses for the prosecution may be cross-examined by the accused or his counsel and the accused may call witnesses or give evidence in his own defence. At the conclusion of the evidence, and after speeches on both sides, the judge sums up the case to the jury, who considers its verdict.

If they decide that the accused is not guilty, i.e. if they acquit him, he is immediately discharged. If the jury returns the verdict of guilty, the judge pronounces sentence. The punishments can be imprisonment, fine or probation.

In England there are *magistrate's courts, juvenile courts, courts of counties and boroughs, courts of assize and the Court of Appeal.*

In the USA there are *district courts, which are grouped into judicial circuits, courts of appeals and the USA Supreme Court.*

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What happens if the defendant pleads himself not guilty?
2. How many jurors are there in the jury?
3. What can you say about a trial procedure?
4. What are the rights of the defendant?
5. What happens if the jury decides the accused is not guilty?
6. What kinds of punishment do you know? Which one is the fairest, in your opinion?
7. What courts are there in England?
8. What courts are there in the USA?
9. Which courts are supreme in England and the USA?

Task 2. Write 5 sentences with wrong word order and let your group mates find a mistake.

Task 3. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Хто порушує закон, повинен стати перед судом.
2. Не кожний злочинець визнає себе винним.
3. Суд вислуховує покази свідків.
4. Суддя виносить вирок.
5. Є такі форми покарання: ув'язнення, штраф та умовне покарання.
6. У судовому процесі беруть участь суддя, прокурор, адвокат, позивач і свідки.
7. Парламент України призначає Генерального прокурора.

SOME ENGLISH CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS

Task 1. Learn the new words, read the texts and answer the questions.

| | | |
|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| patron saint | [ˈpeɪtrɪvˈseɪnt] | святий покровитель |
| lover | [ˈlʌvə] | закоханий |
| to declare feelings | [dɪˈkleɪvˈfɛɪlɪŋz] | зiзнаватися у почуттях |
| anonymously | [ˈɒnɪmɪsli] | анонiмно |
| unsigned | [ˈʌnsaɪnd] | не пiдписаний |
| leek | [li:k] | цибуля-порей |
| shamrock | [ˈʃæmɒk] | трилижник |
| thistle | [ˈθɪsl] | чортополох |
| gift | [ɡɪft] | подарунок |
| to hunt | [hʌnt] | полювати, шукати |
| concealed | [kənˈseɪld] | прихований |

St. Valentine's Day. St. Valentine is the patron saint of lovers and on February 14th young men and women declare their feelings for each other. But the tradition is to do it anonymously. Valentine's Day cards, which carry messages of undying love, and romantic flowers such as red roses, are always left unsigned. Many people hope for cards on St. Valentine's Day.

National Saints' Day. The patron saints of Wales, Ireland and England are, in order, St. David, St. Patrick and St.

George. Their days are celebrated on March 1st, March 17th, and April 23rd respectively. National symbols decorating the Welsh - dragon or leek, the Irish – shamrock and the English – rose are worn on the appropriate days. St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland, has his day later in the year on November 30th, Scotland’s national symbol is the thistle.

Mothering Sunday. Mothering Sunday, or Mother’s Day as it is usually called, falls three weeks before Easter Sunday. On this day, the children buy their mothers cards, small gifts, and traditionally bring her breakfast in bed.

There is also a Father’s Day, which is celebrated on the third Sunday in June.

Easter. Easter is a great Christian holiday. Different countries have different traditions. In Britain, most children are given Easter eggs made of chocolate or small gifts. It is a popular game to hunt for small eggs concealed around the house or garden.

Task 2. Answer the questions.

1. When is St. Valentine’s Day celebrated?
2. What gifts are given on this day?
3. Who are the patron saints of England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales?
4. When are the days of British saints celebrated?
5. What are the symbols of England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales?
6. When is the Mother’s Day celebrated?
7. When is the Father’s Day celebrated?
8. What are the gifts for children on Easter Day?

Task 3. Name the holiday.

1. Wishing you an Easter Bonnet...

- With springtime flowers and ribbons on it! Happy Easter!
2. Love you, mommy, very much!
So here's a great big kiss
For the nicest person in the world –
The one who is reading this!
 3. Here's a special Valentine
With lots of love for you,
And since you are very special
Here are the hugs and kisses too!
 4. Wishing you all the joy and wonder of Christmas.
 5. Wishing you a Happy Year and all good fortune in the future.

Task 4. Learn new words.

The Bonfire Night.

| | | |
|------------|-------------|------------|
| to blow up | [βλου] | дути |
| gunpowder | [γυψαυδεις] | порох |
| plot | [πλωτ] | заколот |
| bonfire | [βοψφαεις] | вогнище |
| award | [εωδ] | винагорода |
| huge | [ηφεις] | величезний |
| to burn | [βυ] | спалювати |

Task 5. Read and dramatize the dialogue.

- a. Hello.
- b. Hello.
- c. How are you?
- d. Thank you, I'm fine. How are you?
- e. Thank you, I'm well too.
- f. What can you tell me about the 5th of November in Great Britain?

- g. There is a public holiday on this day. It is known as the Bonfire Night (or Guy Fawkes Night). Robert Gatesby formed a scheme against a Parliament many years ago.
- h. When was it?
- i. It was in the 17th century. The scheme was called a Gunpowder plot.
- j. What did he want to do?
- k. He wanted to blow up the King and Lords at the next opening of Parliament.
- l. What tradition do college students have now?
- m. They prepare “guys” and burn them in the huge bonfire. The best “guy” gets an award.
- n. Where do celebrations take place?
- o. In Trafalgar Square.
- p. Thank you. Your story was very interesting.

Task 5. Fill in letters.

b _ _ f _ _ _
 _ oli _ _ _
 p _ _ _
 sc _ _ _ _

Task 6. Translate the sentences into English.

1. 14 лютого ми святкуємо День святого Валентина, день закоханих.
2. Англія, Ірландія та Уельс святкують своє національне свято.
3. День Матері є радісне свято для матерів та дітей.
4. Великдень – найбільше християнське свято.

JUDICIAL LAW

Law operates in all the spheres of our life and work. It determines the legal status of every citizen. That's why it is very important to know all peculiarities of the judicial system of the given country.

A **court** is an institution that is set up by the government to settle disputes through a legal process. There are such types of courts in Ukraine as: *district (town) People's Courts, regional and territorial courts* (for more serious offences), *the Supreme Court, military tribunals* (courts for servicemen). If you loose a trial in a district court, you can ask *the court of appeals* to review the case. The legality of the court's activities is controlled by *the Procurator's Office. Verhovna Rada appoints The Procurator-General of Ukraine.*

According to the Constitution of Ukraine **judges, prosecutors, clerks of the court, a team of lawyers, plaintiffs and witnesses** are involved in court trials. *The judge* presides over the trial. Any citizen of Ukraine who has reached the age of 25, who has a higher legal education, has been in the legal profession for 2 years may become a judge. The people who are able to help the defendants are called *lawyers. Witnesses* give testimony about the facts that are in dispute.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Is it important to know all peculiarities of the judicial system of the given country? Why?
2. What is a court?
3. What courts does the judicial system of Ukraine consist of?

4. In what court can more difficult cases be examined?
5. Where can the cases be reviewed?
6. What institution controls the legality of the court's activities?
7. Who is the Procurator-General appointed by?
8. Who takes part in court trials?
9. What person can become a judge?
10. Who are the lawyers?
11. What do the witnesses do?

Task 2. Find examples of Passive Voice in the text.

Task 3. Complete the sentences.

1. Military courts are called ...
2. ... controls the legality of the court's activities.
3. Witnesses are people who give...
4. You need ... years of legal experience to become a judge.
5. Defendants are defended by ...
6. You may go to the court of appeal if you want the case to be ...
7. Verhovna Rada appoints the ...

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Закон визначає юридичний статус кожного громадянина.
2. Судова система кожної країни має свої особливості.
3. В Україні є чотири видів судів.
4. Законність судів контролюється прокуратурою.
5. Суддя є головною особою у судовому процесі.

Lesson 34

PROCEDURAL CRIMINAL LAW

Court Structure. There are many types of courts and many ways to classify them, for example: civil and criminal courts, courts of general jurisdiction and those of limited jurisdiction, trial and appellate courts.

Criminal Courts. Criminal courts deal with people accused of crime, deciding whether they are guilty or not. If a person has been found guilty, he is sentenced according to law. The most common sentences are fines, short or long terms of imprisonment, and probation.

Civil Courts. Civil courts deal with “private” controversies, where two individuals (or corporations) are in dispute over the terms of a contract or over who shall bear responsibility for an auto accident. The objective is not to punish, but to solve the problem.

Courts of General Jurisdiction. They are the courts dealing with both civil and criminal cases.

Courts of Limited Jurisdiction. They are the courts of limited jurisdiction: commercial, labor courts.

Appellate Courts. They are the courts correcting the errors of the above-mentioned courts, or “courts of first instance”.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What classifications of courts do you know?
2. What do the Criminal Courts do?
3. What sentences do you know?
4. What is the difference between Civil and Criminal Courts?
5. What is the difference between Courts of General and Limited Jurisdiction?

6. What Courts of Limited Jurisdiction do you know?
7. What courts are “the courts of first instance”?
8. Are Appellate Courts the courts of first instance?
9. What is the function of Appellate Courts?

Task 2. True/False.

1. There are few classifications of courts.
2. Civil courts deal with crimes.
3. Criminal courts pass sentences.
4. Courts of General Jurisdiction can't deal with civil cases.
5. Appellate Courts can correct mistakes of Criminal Courts.

Task 3. Fill in the missed letters.

C..rt; e..ors, instan.e; t..m; disp...; resp.n..bility; senten.es.

Task 4. Put the words in the correct order.

1. courts/civil/private/solve/cases.
2. Appellate/review/courts/cses.
3. Fine/punishment./light/is/a

Task 5. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Є багато видів судів, але у першу чергу ми говоримо про цивільні та кримінальні суди.
2. Тільки суд вирішує, чи винна людина чи ні.
3. Винна особа повинна бути покарана відповідно до закону.
4. Цивільні суди вирішують суперечку двох сторін.
5. Суди загальної юрисдикції розглядають цивільні та кримінальні справи.

CRIMINAL LAW

Crime violates the laws of a community, state or nation. It is punishable in accordance with their laws. The definition of the crime varies according to time and place, but the laws of most countries consider as crimes such offences as arson, bigamy, forgery, murder, and treason.

Felony and Misdemeanour. The common law originally divided crimes into **two categories** – felonies (the graver crimes which once were punishable with death) and misdemeanours (for which the common law provided fines or imprisonment). Felonies are: murder, arson, rape, etc. Misdemeanours are: theft, shoplifting, pick pocketing, etc.

Not all offences against the law are crimes. The laws that set down the punishments for crimes form the criminal law. This law defines as crimes those offences considered most harmful to the community. On the other hand, a person may wrong someone else in some other way that offends the civil law.

Task 1. Write 5 questions to the text.

Task 2. Write down the words “Law Breakers” and learn them.

- a) a thief – злодій;
- b) a bigamist – двоєженець;
- c) a vandal – вандал;
- d) a pickpocket – кишеньковий злодій;
- e) a blackmailer – шантажист;
- f) a hijacker – бандит, що нападає на автомобілі, захоплює літаки;
- g) a kidnapper – викрадач людей;

- h) a shoplifter – магазинний злодій;
- i) a robber – грабіжник;
- j) a burglar – зломщик.

Task 3. Match the words and the definitions.

- 1) steals;
- 2) steals purses and wallets;
- 3) gets money by threatening to disclose personal information;
- 4) seizes planes;
- 5) takes things from a shop without paying;
- 6) steals from houses and offices;
- 7) steals from banks or trains;
- 8) takes people hostage for a ransom;
- 9) steals government secrets;
- 10) Wilfully destroys property;
- 11) marries illegally by being married already.
 - a) a thief;
 - b) a bigamist;
 - c) a vandal;
 - d) a pickpocket;
 - e) a spy;
 - f) a blackmailer;
 - g) a hijacker;
 - h) a kidnapper;
 - i) a shoplifter;
 - j) a robber;
 - k) a burglar.

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

- 1. Всякий злочин порушує закон.
- 2. Злочин повинен бути покараний.
- 3. Злодій, кишеньковий злодій, двоєженець – це теж злочинці.

ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: PRESIDENTIAL AND PARLIAMENTARY SYSTEM

One of the key problems on the way to creation of law-governed state is the problem of designing a constitution for a new democracy. The choice between a presidential and a parliamentary system is a complex and the most important question within the problem.

In a pure presidential system, voters elect a president to be head of government. The president appoints members of the Cabinet. The best-known regimes of this type are those of the United States and several Latin American Countries.

Another type of regime is the premier-presidential type. Here the president's powers include: the power to nominate a candidate to be prime minister, the right to dissolve parliament and call early elections. The best-known case of this regime type is France under the Fifth Republic.

The head of state in a "pure" parliamentary system is either a monarch or a president who is not elected by the people but usually by the parliament itself.

Ukraine is moving to the creation of a law-governed state. A cardinal updating of all basic branches of legislation accompanies this movement. The proposal is for the president to dismiss several important ministers, such as the prime minister and the ministers of foreign affairs, defense and interior, only with the approval of parliament. The president could appoint and dismiss other ministers.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the main problem on the way to law-governed society?

2. What is the chief question within the problem?
3. In what system do the voters elect a president to be the head of government?
4. Give the examples of countries with presidential system of government.
5. What are the presidential powers in the countries of premier-presidential type?
6. What type of regime is there in France? In the USA?
7. Describe a “pure” parliamentary system.
8. What proposals are there in Ukraine on the way of creation of a law-governed state?

Task 2. Decode the words.

tesat, erup, dahe, tperisend, tpalrienma, ermintis, gislealiont, aptoinp, chmoarn, eltec.

Task 3. Complete the gaps.

| | |
|-------------|----------------|
| k _ _ | f _ _ _ _ gn |
| r _ g _ _ _ | d _ _ _ n _ _ |
| _ o _ e _ | a _ _ ro _ _ l |
| c _ o _ c _ | ca _ _ _ _ t |

Task 4. Guess the words.

1. A head of the state.
2. The main minister.
3. The chief document of the country.
4. A person who votes.
5. A process when people vote for somebody.
6. Group of ministers.
7. Group of deputies.
8. A person who is voted for.

LAWMAKING

Not long ago the Supreme session approved several laws and resolutions concerning courts in Ukraine. They are: on the procedure of appealing unlawful actions of state administration bodies and officials, on liability for contempt of court and some others. History teaches us that it is not enough to make progressive laws; there is also a need to ensure that they be fulfilled. Courts are institutions responsible for that.

The grandeur of democracy lies in the fact that both the citizen and the state are equal before the law. The newly adopted law “on the procedure of appealing” provides a serious basis under this equality. Both sides can compete on equal terms, and the court is in duty to listen to the arguments of both.

The problem of lodging a complaint in court was that a citizen could lodge a complaint solely against a personal action by an official; he (she) is helpless when it comes to a collective decision of some organization. Now the right to lodge a complaint in court against both individual and a collective decision by officials and state administration bodies has been assured. Although, of course, practice alone will reveal all merits and defects of lawmaking in full measure.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What are the new laws and resolutions approved by the Supreme session?
2. Is it enough just to make progressive laws?
3. What organizations are responsible for ensuring that laws be fulfilled?

4. Are citizens and the state equal before the law?
5. What was the problem of lodging a complaint against officials?
6. Is the problem solved now?

Task 2. Match verbs and nouns.

| | |
|--------------|--------------------|
| to approve | a basis |
| to lodge | arguments |
| to provide | merits and defects |
| to reveal | laws |
| to listen to | a compliant |

Task 3. Put the words in the correct order.

1. citizens/equal/and/state/the/both/are/the/before/law.
2. necessary/is/it/that/be/fulfilled./laws/the

Task 4. Write sentences in all the Indefinite, Continuous and Perfect Tenses.

1. The Supreme Session approved several laws.
2. The court listens to the arguments.

Task 5. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Закони повинні бути прогресивними.
2. Дуже важливо, щоб закони виконувалися.
3. Основна вимога демократії полягає в тому, що громадяни і держава є рівні перед законом.
4. Обидві сторони виступають на рівних правах.
5. Суд зобов'язаний вислухати аргументи обох сторін.
6. Практика виявляє всі вади законотворчості.
7. Суди відповідальні за виконання законів.

INTERNATIONAL LAW: THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

It was on December 10, 1948, that the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. During the last 20 years the Declaration has become a living document, which is likely to exert an increasing influence in the years to come.

One of the purposes for which the United Nations was created was to achieve international cooperation “in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion”.

The major portion of the declaration is devoted to two broad categories of rights: 1) personal, civil and political rights; 2) economic, social and cultural rights.

General Principles. The first article lays down the main principle of the Declaration: all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. The second one states that “everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as colour, political or other opinion, national and social origin, property, birth and other status.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. When was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted?
2. What organization adopted it?
3. Is it an important document?
4. What was the reason for creating the United Nations?

5. What main categories of rights is the declaration devoted to?
6. What is the main principle of the first article?
7. Do all the people have equal rights?

Task 2. Complete the puzzle using definitions.

1. D _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
2. _ _ g h _ s
3. _ u r _ _ _ _
4. p _ _ _ _ _ _ _ l
5. _ _ m a _
6. f r _ _ d _ m

DEFINITIONS:

1. *The main international document about human rights.*
2. *The things we can do.*
3. *The synonym of the word "aim".*
4. *The same as "individual".*
5. *Concerning people.*
6. *The most precious thing we have.*

Task 3. Complete the statement using as many words as you can.

All human beings have equal rights without distinction as to ...

Task 4. Translate the sentences into English.

1. У грудні 1948 року була прийнята Декларація прав людини.
2. Україна поважає Декларацію прав людини.
3. Всі люди повинні мати рівні права незалежно від раси, статі, мови чи релігії.
4. Всі люди народжуються рівними перед законом.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW

Constitution is the main law of the country. Only with the existence of an independent judiciary there will be any guarantee of the supremacy of the rule of law. In this area some positive steps have been taken: three higher courts are proposed - a Supreme Court of General Jurisdiction, a High Economic Court (Arbitration Court) and a Constitutional Court. In an alternative proposal, two higher courts would remain: a Supreme Court of General Jurisdiction and a Constitutional Court. However, there is also a strong proposal for the establishment of the Supreme Court with several divisions, i.e., constitutional, general jurisdiction, and a division for specialized courts. The Procurator General is charged with interpreting and applying the law.

Work on the new Ukrainian Constitution began after the Declaration of Independence in August 1991. It was adopted in June 1996. The main human rights are listed in it: the right to life, the right to a court appeal in case of arrest or detention, the right of defendants to refuse to provide evidence against themselves and their family members. The Constitution should guarantee all the basic rights and freedoms provided by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. What is the main law of the country?
2. Under what condition will the supremacy of the rule of law exist?
3. What are the proposals concerning the improving of the existing Constitutional Law?

4. What are the responsibilities of the Procurator General in the field of the Constitution?
5. When did the work on the new Ukrainian Constitution begin?
6. When was it adopted?
7. What are the human rights listed in the Constitution?
8. What is the aim of Constitution?

Task 2. Make up 4 types of questions to the sentence.

The Constitution was adopted in June 1996.

Task 3. Write the sentence in all the tenses you know.

The Constitution guarantees freedom.

Task 4. Write in English.

1. Верховний суд матиме декілька підрозділів.
2. Незалежність України була проголошена в серпні 1991 року.
3. Існує багато прав людини.
4. Конституція гарантує право на життя та свободу слова.
5. Основні права людини забезпечуються Універсальною Декларацією прав людини.

**Task 5. Write 10 words from the text with missed letters.
Let your group mates fill in.**

Task 6. Translate the sentences into English.

1. Конституція – це основний закон держави.
2. Є три вищі суди – Верховний суд, Арбітражний суд та Конституційний суд.
3. Генеральний прокурор піклується про тлумачення закону.
4. Основне право людини є право на життя.

CHURCH LAW

During history there were many violations of human rights in the field of religious freedom. Hundreds of believers in the former Soviet Union faced severe harassment. Several million of people were arrested by the outbreak of World War II. All monasteries and seminaries and most places of worship had been forcibly closed. Until the 1980's the life of the church was cheerless: the clergy had no rights and even the existing, rather discriminatory laws, were constantly violated. The authorities insisted that in big parishes the priests prepared to praise Brezhnev's regime were assigned. Commissioners of the Council for religious affairs sent optimistic reports to the Kremlin. The Church lost prestige, especially among the young.

Now the states of the former Soviet Union enjoy a renaissance: churches and seminaries are opened, charity is allowed. But there are still some problems: the church has not yet been granted the status of a juridical person and thus many of its charity funds are illegal. It has yet to be decided where our parishioners are supposed to get their religious instruction.

Task 1. Answer the questions.

1. Were there any violations of religious rights of people during history?
2. When were they the most severe?
3. What were they?
4. What was Brezhnev's policy?
5. What is the state of churches nowadays?
6. What are the main modern problems?

Task 2. Match synonyms.

| | |
|--------------|-----------------|
| freedom | to detain |
| former | to violate |
| to arrest | independence |
| to break | sad |
| the outbreak | continuously |
| cheerless | to present with |
| constantly | previous |
| to grant | the beginning |

Task 3. Find the following groups of words in the text.

| <i>Religion</i> | <i>Legal Terms</i> |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

Task 3. Look at the table and learn 4 types of questions in English:

| Types of questions (типи питань) | Definitions | Examples |
|---|--|------------------------|
| General questions (загальні) | Питання, на які можна відповісти словами yes або no. | Do you like this film? |
| Special questions (спеціальні) | Питання, що починаються | Where do you live? |

| | | |
|--|--|------------------------------------|
| | питальними словами what (що), who (хто), where (де), how many (скільки) | |
| Alternative questions (альтернативні) | Запитання вибору. Складаються з двох частин, з'єднаних сполучником or. | Is he a doctor or an engineer? |
| Disjunctive questions (розділові) | Питання- “перепитування” (Чи не так?) | You speak English well, don't you? |

Task 4. Study the following examples and define the type of the question:

1. He is seldom late, isn't he?
2. Where are you going?
3. Can you help me?
4. Do you work or study?
5. Why are you smiling?
6. Are you tired?
7. This is a nice city, isn't it?
8. Is she going home or to the institute?

Task 5. Write the sentences in the interrogative form:

1. Every country has a particular legal system.
2. Many countries were dissatisfied with the common law.
3. Common law in England differs from Continental law.
4. There are two main traditions of law in the world.
5. We can understand the legal system if we look at the history of the country.

Використана література до занять 10-40

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ГРАМАТИЧНИЙ ДОВІДНИК

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АРТИКЛЬ

Three little words you often see
Are articles – *A*, *An*, and *The*.

В англійській мові іменники вживаються з артиклями, які не перекладаються і не наголошуються. Артиклі є: неозначені та означені.

Неозначений артикль має дві форми: *a* або *an* і вживається тільки в однині. Артикль *a* стоїть перед словом, що починається з приголосного: *a table*, *a new table*, *a hundred*. Артикль *an* стоїть перед словом, що починається з голосного: *an apple*, *an English word*.

Артикль *an* вживається також перед словами, котрі починаються з *h*, що не вимовляється: *an hour* [≅v 'αυ≅], *an heir* ['E≅], *honour* ['Ov≅], *honorary* ['Ov≅p≅pI], але *α ηανδ* [≅ 'η {vδ}], *a hair* [ηE≅].

Wait **an** hour.

He is **an** honorary doctor of law.

Якщо в однині перед іменником стоїть артикль *a* або *an*, то у множині ці іменники стоять без артикля: *a street – streets*, *some streets*; *an apple – apples*, *any apples*.

There is *a long street* in our town.

There are *some streets* in our town.

Означений артикль має одну форму *the*, яка вимовляється двояко: як [Δ≅] перед словами, котрі починаються з приголосного – *the book*, і як [Δ√] перед словами, котрі починаються з голосного – *the uncle*, *the English word*.

Артикль *the* вживається з іменниками в однині та в множині: *the son – the sons*; *the sun*, *the USA*, *the Thames*, *the spectacles*.

ІМЕННИК

A noun is the name of anything
As *Academy, Garden or King.*

Рід іменників

У словнику іменники позначаються латинською буквою *n*, котра ставиться після іменника: *garden n* – сад.

В англійській мові іменники є чоловічого, жіночого та середнього роду, але рід не є категорією граматичною, а чисто смисловою. Іменники, котрі означають живі істоти чоловічої статі, є чоловічого роду: а *man (he)*; іменники, котрі означають живі істоти жіночої статі, є жіночого роду: а *woman (she)*;); іменники, котрі означають неживі предмети, є середнього роду: а *house (it – він)*, а *academy (it – вона)*, а *town (it – воно)*. Про тварин можна говорити як про живі істоти відповідної статі і як про такі, що належать до середнього роду:

a horse (he = it – він)

a cow (she = it – вона)

До винятків належать також назви засобів водного транспорту та назви країн, займенником для яких служить слово *she*:

a ship – корабель (she – він)

a boat – човен (she – він)

England – Англія (she – вона)

Chile – Чиле (she – воно)

Деякі іменники можуть називати осіб чоловічого та жіночого роду: а *teacher – вчитель, вчителька*. У таких випадках для розрізнення осіб чоловічої і жіночої статі до відповідних іменників додають окремі слова, як *boy, male* – для чоловічого, та *girl, female* – для жіночого:

a student – студент, студентка

a male student – студент
a female student – студентка

У назвах тварин рід часто позначають особовим займенником *he* або *she*:

| | |
|----------------|------------------------|
| a goat – коза | a he-goat – цап, козел |
| a wolf – вовк | a she-wolf – вовчиця |
| a duck – качка | a he-duck – селезень |

Множина іменників

Іменники, які можна порахувати, вживаються в однині (*singular*) та у множині (*plural*):

a cow – корова, cows – корови, *ale* milk – молоко.

1. Множина іменників утворюється додаванням закінчень *-s* або *-es* до форми в однині, які вимовляються як [s], [z] або [Iz]: a book – books [s], a day – days [z], a class – classes [Iz], a box – boxes [Iz].

2. Іменники, котрі в однині закінчуються на *-f* та *-fe*, мають у множині закінчення *-es*, а приголосний *-f* змінюється на *-v*: a leaf – leaves, a wolf – wolves, a knife – knives.

3. В іменниках, що в однині закінчуються на *-y* з попереднім приголосним, у множині *-y* змінюється на *-i* та додається закінчення *-es*: a city – cities [‘σΚτΙζ], a faculty – faculties, a body – bodies, *але* a day – days.

4. З відхиленням від норми утворюють множину такі іменники:

| | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| a man – men людина, чоловік | a foot – feet нога, ступня |
| a woman – women жінка | a goose – geese гуска |
| a child – children дитина | a mouse – mice миша |
| an ox – oxen віл | a sheep – sheep вівця |
| a tooth – teeth зуб | a deer – deer олень |

Вживання артиклів

Вживання неозначеного артикля

Неозначений артикль з наступним іменником вживається у таких випадках:

1. При першому називанні предмета чи особи:

This is *a room*.

2. Після звороту there is (there was, there will be):

There is *a car* in the yard.

There was *a garden* before the house.

Після звороту there are (there were, there will be) іменники стоять у множині і вживаються без артикля:

There is *a book* on the table. На столі є книжка.

There are *books* on the table. На столі є книжки.

3. Перед іменною частиною присудка:

He is *a judge*. Він суддя.

He is *a young judge*. Він молодий суддя.

4. В окличних реченнях після слів what *який*, а також після слів such *такі*, quite *зовсім*:

What *a pretty girl!* Яка гарна дівчина!

He is still quite *a child*. Він ще зовсім дитина.

5. Коли неозначений артикль має значення *один*:

Wait *a minute*. Почекай (одну) хвилину.

A hundred – (одна) сотня.

Коли неозначений артикль означає *будь-який, всякий*:

A man must die. Людина повинна померти.

Вживання означеного артикля

Означений артикль з наступним іменником вживається у таких випадках:

1. При повторному називанні предмета або якщо з попередньої ситуації зрозуміло, про який предмет іде мова:

I see *a door*. *The door* is white. Я бачу двері. (Ці) Двері білі.

Open *the door*, please. Відчини двері, будь ласка.

2. Перед прикметниками у найвищому ступені:

It is *the warmest place* in Ukraine.

3. Перед порядковим числівником:

The first of April is an all Fools' day.

4. Перед іменниками, які означають предмети, єдині в своєму роді, наприклад, *the sun, the moon, the earth, the sky*:

There was no cloud *in the sky*. На небі не було ні хмаринки.

Відсутність артикля перед іменниками

Жодний артикль з наступним іменником не вживається у таких випадках:

1. Якщо перед іменником стоїть присвійний, вказівний чи питальний займенник: *my motherland, this village; What book? Яка книжка?, а також займенники some, any, no, each, every: some students, no problem, every day.*

2. Якщо в однині мав стояти неозначений артикль, то у множині іменник стоїть без артикля:

My friend is a student. Мій товариш – студент.

My friends are students. Мої друзі – студенти.

3. Перед назвами днів тижня, місяців і пір року з прийменниками *on, in*: *on Sunday, in May, in winter*, але *in the winter of 2004.*

4. У певних словосполученнях: *at night вночі, by train поїздом, to go to bed лягати спати, from time to time час від часу.*

5. Артикль не вживається, якщо перед іменником стоїть інший іменник уприсвійному відмінку:

Ukraine's laws – закони України.

Great Britain's laws – закони Великої Британії

Окремі випадки вживання артикля

Є багато випадків, коли вживання артикля має свої особливості:

1. Іменники, які є назвами речовин, вживаються без артикля:

Milk is *a white liquid*. Молоко – біла речовина.

Якщо ж мова йде про певну частину речовини, іменник вживається з означеним артиклем:

Give me *the milk*, please. Дай мені, будь ласка, молоко.

2. Незлічувані абстрактні іменники вживаються без артикля:

People like freedom.

3. Імена, прізвища, а також клички тварин вживаються без артикля: Tony Blair, Tom.

Якщо ж перед іменем, прізвищем чи кличкою тварини стоїть означення, ці іменники вживаються з означеним артиклем: the big Benjamin.

4. Назви континентів, країн, міст і сіл вживаються без артикля: Europe, Ukraine, London, Shklo.

Але такі назви країн і місцевостей вживаються з означеним артиклем: the Netherlands, the Caucasus, the Crimea, the Carpathians, the United States of America, the United Kingdom.

5. Назви океанів, морів і рік вживаються з означеним артиклем: the Atlantic Ocean, the Black Sea, the Thames, the Dnieper.

6. Назви площ, вулиць і парків вживаються без артикля: Trafalgar Square, Oxford Street.

7. У виразах in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, on the left, on the right, the other day (днями) вживається означений артикль.

8. Назви політичних партій та організацій вживаються з означеним артиклем: **the** United Nations Organisation.

ПРИКМЕТНИК

Adjectives tell the kind of noun
As *Great, Small, Pretty, White* or *Brown*.

За своїм значенням прикметники є відносні (a *wooden* house) і якісні (*warm* weather). Якісні прикметники можуть утворювати ступені порівняння. В загальному ми говоримо про три ступені прикметників:

звичайний – positive degree
вищий – comparative degree
найвищий – superlative degree

Звичайний ступінь

Це початкова форма прикметника, яка подається у словниках: *wooden* – дерев'яний, *warm* – теплий. Прикметники в англійській мові не змінюються ні за родами, ні за числами: I am *young*. He is *young*. She is *young*. We are *young*.

Вищий ступінь

1. Односкладові прикметники і ті двоскладові, що закінчуються на *-er, -le, -y, -ow*, утворюють вищий ступінь за допомогою суфікса *-er* [≡]:

warm – warmer [ˈɔːm̩] μ≡]
clever – cleverer [ˈklev̩ə] ρ≡]

У прикметниках, що закінчуються у звичайному ступені на німе *-e*, воно зливається з суфіксом *-er*:

wide – wider [ˈwaɪd̩] ≡]
simple – simpler [ˈsɪm̩pl̩] ≡]

2. Якщо прикметник закінчується на *-y* з попереднім приголосним, то кінцеве *-y* змінюється на *-i*:

busy – busier [’βΙζΙΞ]

happy – happier [’η{πΙΞ}]

3. Якщо прикметник закінчується на приголосний з попереднім коротким голосним, то кінцевий приголосний подвоюється: big – bigger [’βΙγΞ], hot – hotter [’ηΟτΞ].

Найвищий ступінь

1. Односкладові прикметники і ті двоскладові, що закінчуються на *-er*, *-le*, *-y*, *-ow*, утворюють найвищий ступінь за допомогою суфікса *-est* [Ιστ]. Треба пам’ятати, що найвищий ступінь вживається з означеним артиклем *the*:

warm – the warmest [’ω]μΙστ]

clever – the cleverest [’κλεωΞρΙστ].

У прикметниках, що закінчуються у звичайному ступені на німе *-e*, воно зливається з суфіксом *-est*:

wide – the widest [’ωαΙδΙστ]

simple – the simplest [’σΙμπλΙστ].

2. Якщо прикметник закінчується на *-y* з попереднім приголосним, то кінцеве *-y* змінюється на *-i*:

busy – the busiest [’βΙζΙΠστ]

happy – the happiest [’η{πΠστ].

3. Якщо прикметник закінчується на приголосний з попереднім коротким голосним, то кінцевий приголосний подвоюється: big – the biggest [’βΙγΙστ].

4. Багатоскладові прикметники, наприклад, *important*, і двоскладові прикметники, крім тих, що закінчуються на *-er*, *-le*, *-y*, *-ow* (див. вище), утворюють вищий і найвищий ступені не за допомогою суфіксів, а за допомогою окремих слів, котрі ставляться перед прикметником у звичайному ступені.

Слова *more* – більш, *less* – менш вживаються у вищому ступені, наприклад, *important: more important* – важливіший (більш важливий).

У найвищому ступені вживаються слова *the most* – найбільш, *the least* – найменш, наприклад, *the most important* – найважливіший, *the least important* – найменш важливий.

Неправильні форми ступенів порівняння

1. В англійській мові, подібно як і в українській, є прикметники, що утворюють вищий і найвищий ступені порівняння від інших коренів, тобто не за загальними правилами, тому їх часто ще називають неправильними формами. До таких прикметників належать:

| | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|
| good | better | the best |
| добрий | кращий | найкращий |
| bad | worse | the worst |
| поганий | гірший | найгірший |
| many | more | the most |
| багато | більше | найбільше |
| little | less | the least |
| малий | менший | найменший |

2. Слова *well*, *badly*, *much* і *little* як прислівники утворюють ступені порівняння так само, як прикметники, з тою лише різницею, що у найвищому ступені прислівники вживаються без означеного артикля *the*:

| | | |
|--------|--------|-----------|
| well | better | best |
| добре | краще | найкраще |
| badly | worse | worst |
| погано | гірше | найгірше |
| much | more | most |
| багато | більше | найбільше |

| | | |
|--------|-------|-----------|
| little | less | least |
| мало | менше | найменше. |

Прикметник **old** *старий* має дві форми у вищому й найвищому ступенях: *old* – *older*, *elder* (вищий ступінь) і *the oldest*, *the eldest* (найвищий ступінь). Форми *elder*, *the eldest* вживаються, коли йдеться про членів однієї сім'ї.

Вживання ступенів порівняння.

Вищий ступінь

1. При порівнянні двох різних якостей предметів після прикметника у вищому ступені вживається сполучник *than* – *ніж*, *як*, *від*, *за*, перед яким в англійській мові кома не ставиться:

My sister is *younger than* me.

Щоб не повторювати той самий іменник двічі, в англійській мові у другому разі вживають слова-замінники *one* (для однини) і *ones* (для множини):

This room is larger than that *one*.

These rooms are larger than those *ones*.

2. Для порівняння двох однакових якостей прикметник ставиться у звичайному ступені між подвійним сполучником *as ... as* – *такий (самий) ... як* або *not as ... as* – *не такий ... як*:

This room is *as large as* that one.

3. Перед прикметником чи прислівником у вищому ступені можуть вживатися слова *much* – *набагато*, *значно*, *(by) far* – *значно*, *набагато*, *still* – *ще*, *ever* – *ще*, котрі підсилюють вищий ступінь:

much more – *значно (набагато) більше*

much less – *значно (набагато) менше*

much more important – *значно важливіший*

far better – *набагато (значно) кращий*.

4. Перед прикметником чи прислівником у вищому ступені означений артикль не вживається. Означений артикль може вживатися з формою вищого ступеня у тому випадку, коли він повторюється двічі (*the ... the*), і тоді він перекладається словами *чим ... тим*:

The nearer the winter, the shorter the days.

Чим ближче зима, тим коротшими стають дні.

Примітка. Перекладіть і вивчіть напам'ять жартівливий вірш:

The more we study, the more we know.

The more we know, the more we forget.

The more we forget, the less we know.

The less we know, the less we forget.

The less we forget, the more we know.

Why study?

Найвищий ступінь

1. Прикметник у найвищому ступені завжди вживається з означеним артиклем *the*:

Kyiv is the largest city of Ukraine.

2. Прислівники у найвищому ступені вживаються без означеного артикля:

East or West, home is best.

Всюди добре, а вдома найкраще.

3. Іноді слово *most* стоїть перед іменником. У такому випадку воно перекладається іменником *більшість*:

Most students want to know English well.

Більшість студентів хочуть добре знати англійську.

Сполучення most of перекладається як більшість із:

Most of them were girls from seventeen to twenty.

Більшість із них були дівчата від сімнадцяти до двадцяти років.

ЗАЙМЕННИК

Instead of nouns pronoun is
As *Mine, Yours, Our* and *His*.

Особові займенники

Особові займенники в англійській мові мають два відмінки: *називний і непрямий*, або *об'єктний*.

Називний відмінок

I – я

you – ти

he – він

she – вона

it – воно (він, вона)

we – ми

you – ви

they – вони

Непрямий відмінок

me – мене, мені

you – тебе, тобі

him – його, йому

her – її, їй

it – його, йому, її, їй

us – нас, нам

you – вас, вам

them – їх, їм

Присвійні займенники

Присвійні займенники в англійській мові мають дві форми: *коротку*, або *прилягаючу*, і *повну*, або *абсолютну*.

Прилягаюча форма

I my

you your

he his

she her

it its

we our

you your

they their

Абсолютна форма

mine – мій, моя, моє, мої

yours – твій, твоя, твоє, твої

his – його

hers – її

its – його, її

ours – наш, наша, наше, наші

yours – ваш, ваша, ваше, ваші

theirs – їх (їхній, їхня, їхнє, їхні)

Коротка форма займенника вживається з наступним іменником, абсолютна – без наступного іменника:

This is *my* book.

This book is *mine*.

| | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| This is <i>your</i> book. | This book is <i>yours</i> . |
| This is <i>his</i> book. | This book is <i>his</i> . |
| This is <i>her</i> book. | This book is <i>hers</i> . |
| This is <i>our</i> book. | This book is <i>ours</i> . |
| This is <i>their</i> book. | This book is <i>theirs</i> . |

Присвійний займенник *свій* української мови не має прямого відповідника в англійській мові. Якщо приналежність, яку виражає займенник, відноситься до підмета, то слово *свій* перекладається відповідним присвійним займенником у короткій формі:

Я даю йому *свою* книжку.
 I give him *my* book. (мою)
 Він дає мені *свою* книжку.
 He gives me *his* book. (його)
 Ми даємо їм *свою* книжку.
 We give them *our* boor. (нашу)

Питальні займенники

| | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| who? – хто? | whom? – кому? кого? |
| what – що? який? | which? – котрий? |
| whose? – чий? чия? чие? чий? | |

Вказівні займенники

| | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| Однина | Множина |
| this – цей, ця, це | these – ці |
| that – той, та, те | those – ті |
| the same – той (та, те) самий | the same – ті самі |
| such – такий | such – такі |

Зверніть увагу:

This is a book. – *Це* книжка.

They are books. – *Це* книжки.

Неозначені займенники

Є дві групи неозначених займенників: *прості і складні*.

До простих належать:

| | |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| all – всі | little – дещо |
| another – інший | many – багато |
| any – будь-який | much – багато |
| both – обидва | one – хтось, якийсь |
| each – кожний | other – інший |
| few – декілька | some – дехто, деякі |

Складні займенники утворюються від простих займенників *any, every, no, some* шляхом додавання до них слів *-body, -one, -thing*:

| | | |
|-----|--------|--------------------|
| | -body | anybody – хтось |
| any | -one | anyone – що-небудь |
| | -thing | anything – щось |

| | | |
|-------|--------|--------------------|
| | -body | everybody – кожний |
| every | -one | everyone – кожний |
| | -thing | everything – все |

| | | |
|----|--------|----------------|
| | -body | nobody – ніхто |
| no | -one | no one – ніхто |
| | -thing | nothing – ніщо |

| | | |
|------|--------|-----------------------|
| | -body | somebody – хто-небудь |
| some | -one | someone – хтось |
| | -thing | something – що-небудь |

Займенники з *some* вживаються у стверджувальних реченнях, з *any* – у питальних реченнях; у заперечних реченнях вживаються: *no* – ніякий, *nobody* – ніхто, *nothing* – ніщо.

I have *no* sisters.
Nobody knows it exactly.
Nothing has happened there.

В англійському реченні може стояти лише одне заперечення, тоді як в українській мові – два і більше:

Я *ніколи нікому нічого* I have never done anything
поганого *не* зробив. worse to anyone.

ЧИСЛІВНИК

Числівники поділяються на кількісні і порядкові.

| Кількісні числівники | Порядкові числівники |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1 one | the first |
| 2 two | the second |
| 3 three | the third |
| 4 fourthe | fourth |
| 5 fivethe | fifth |
| 6 sixthe | sixth |
| 7 seven | the seventh |
| 8 eight | the eighth |
| 9 nine | the ninth |
| 10 ten | the tenth |
| 11 eleven | the eleventh |
| 12 twelve | the twelfth |
| 13 thirteen | the thirteenth |
| 14 fourteen | the fourteenth |
| 15 fifteen | the fifteenth |
| 16 sixteen | the sixteenth |
| 17 seventeen | the seventeenth |
| 18 eighteen | the eighteenth |
| 19 nineteen | the nineteenth |
| 20 twenty | the twentieth |
| 21 twenty one | the twenty first |

| | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 30 | thirty | the thirtieth |
| 40 | forty | the fortieth |
| 50 | fifty | the fiftieth |
| 60 | sixty | the sixtieth |
| 70 | seventy | the seventieth |
| 80 | eighty | the eightieth |
| 90 | ninety | the ninetieth |
| 100 | one hundred | the hundredth |
| 101 | one hundred and one | the one hundred and first |
| 110 | one hundred and ten | the one hundred and tenth |
| 235 | two hundred and thirty five | the two hundred and thirty fifth |
| 1,000 | one thousand | the thousandth |
| 10,000 | ten thousand | the ten thousandth |
| 100,000 | one hundred thousand | the one hundred thousandth |
| 1,000,000 | one million | the millionth |

Числівники від 13 до 19 мають два наголоси: на першому складі і на суфіксі – *fifteen* [ˈfɪfˈtiːn], *nineteen* [ˈnaɪˈtiːn]. Перед іменником з наголосом на першому складі ці числівники втрачають наголос на суфіксі: *fifteen* [ˈfɪftɪn] students; у позиції після наголошеного односкладового слова ці числівники втрачають наголос на першому складі: *part fifteen* [pɑːt ˈfɪftɪn].

Треба звернути увагу на такі особливості вживання числівників в англійській мові:

1. Перед числівниками *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* ставиться неозначений артикль *a* або числівник *one* (один): *a (one) hundred*, *a (one) thousand*.

2. Числівники *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* не вживаються у множині із закінченням *-s*, коли перед ними стоїть кількісний числівник: *two hundred*, *five thousand*.

3. Між сотнями (тисячами і мільйонами) та наступними десятками або й одиницями, якщо перед ними немає десятків, ставиться сполучник *and*:

320 three hundred *and* twenty

301 three hundred *and* one

3,001 three thousand *and* one.

4. Перед порядковим числівником ставиться артикль *the*: *the first* – перший, *the tenth* – десятий.

5. Кожна тисяча на письмі відділяється комою:

1,000 – a (one) thousand

1,000,000 – a (one) million.

6. Номери сторінок, глав у книжці, аудиторій, будинків, трамваїв звичайно позначаються кількісними числівниками, котрі ставляться після іменника, а сам іменник тоді вживається без артикля: *page 5* – п'ята сторінка. Правда, форма з порядковим числівником теж можлива: *the fifth page*.

7. Дробові числівники виражаються кількісним числівником у чисельнику і порядковим – у знаменнику: $1/3$ – a (one) third, $2/3$ – two thirds.

Окремі дробові числівники мають назви: $1/2$ – a (one) half, $1/4$ – a (one) quarter.

8. Десяткові дроби відділяються від цілого числа крапкою, а не комою: 0.7; 1.32. Вони читаються так:

0.7 – nought [v] τ] або o[ou] point seven

3.5 – three point five

9. Кількісними є числівники у назві року й години:

у 2005 році – in two thousand and three

о 9 годині – at nine o'clock.

10. Числівники стоять в однині зі словами *процент*, *проценти*: 1% – one per cent, 10% – ten per cent.

11. Окремо треба запам'ятати такі числівники:

twice – удвічі, three times – утричі, a pair – пара, a dozen – десяток.

ДІЄСЛОВО

Verbs tell of something being done
To Read, Count, Laugh, Carry or Run.

Дієслово (the verb) означає дію або стан предмета: to work, to go, to study, to stand, to sleep.

Поділ дієслів

За своїм значенням та функцією у реченні англійські дієслова поділяються на повнозначні (сміслові), допоміжні, модальні та дієслова-зв'язки.

1. *Повнозначні*, або сміслові дієслова мають самостійне лексичне значення: to write, to speak, to come, to translate, to help, to be, to have, to do.

2. *Допоміжні* дієслова не мають самостійного значення, а лише допомагають утворювати певні граматичні форми: to do, to be, to have, shall, will, should, would.

3. *Модальні* дієслова виражають наше відношення до дії чи стану предмета: can, may, must, to be, to have, should, would, need.

4. *Дієслова-зв'язки* служать для утворення складеного іменного присудка: to be, to become, to remain, to seem, to look, to get, to grow.

Часові форми дієслова

Англійські дієслова можуть вживатися у трьох часових формах, якими є:

Present tense – теперішній час

Past tense – минулий час

Future tense – майбутній час

Часи дієслова

До системи часів англійського дієслова належать чотири групи часів:

Indefinite – часи неозначеної дії

Continuous – часи тривалої дії

Perfect – часи dokonanoї дії

Perfect Continuous – часи dokonano-тривалої дії

Спосіб дієслова

В англійській мові розрізняємо три способи дієслова:

дійсний спосіб – The Indicative Mood

наказовий спосіб – The Imperative Mood

умовний спосіб – The Subjunctive Mood

Стан дієслова

Є два стани англійського дієслова:

активний – the Active Voice

пасивний – the Passive Voice

Три форми англійського дієслова

Англійські дієслова треба вивчати у трьох основних формах, якими є:

а) неозначена форма, або інфінітив – *the Infinitive*. Це початкова форма дієслова, відповідає на питання *що робити?* і звичайно вживається з часткою *to* (у словниках позначається знаком *v – verb* і ставиться після дієслова): *to write* – писати; у словнику: *write v – писати*.

б) *Past Indefinite*, або минулий час групи Indefinite. Відповідає на питання *що робив?* При утворенні другої форми добре видно різницю між стандартними і нестандартними дієсловами:

Стандартні дієслова

to ask – asked

Нестандартні дієслова

to write – wrote

просити – просив писати – писав

в) Третьою основною формою англійського дієслова є Past Participle, або Participle II – дієприкметник другий (відповідає на питання *який?*, якщо дієслово перехідне):

| | | |
|---------------|------------|------------|
| to ask | asked | asked |
| питати | питав | питаний |
| to write | wrote | written |
| писати | писав | написаний |
| to read [rʌd] | read [red] | read [red] |
| читати | читав | прочитаний |

Часи неозначеної дії

The Present Indefinite Tense

Теперішній неозначений час

Повнозначні дієслова

Англійські дієслова, що відмінюються, можуть виступати у чотирьох формах: стверджувальній, питальній, заперечній та питально-заперечній.

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Present Indefinite співпадає з неозначеною формою дієслова без частки *to* в усіх особах, крім третьої особи однини, де дієслово приймає закінчення *-s* або *-es*:

| | |
|--------------------|-------------|
| to work | – працювати |
| I work | we work |
| you work | you work |
| he, she, it work-s | they work |

При утворенні третьої особи однини треба пам'ятати такі правила:

а) якщо дієслово закінчується на шиплячий або свистячий, то додається закінчення *-es*:

to wash – he wash-*es*

to dress – he dress-*es*

б) якщо дієслово закінчується на -у з попереднім приголосним, то -у змінюється на -і, а дієслово одержує закінчення -*es*:

to study – he studi-*es*,

але: to play – he play-*s*

Закінчення -(*e*)*s* вимовляється так:

як [s] після глухих приголосних: he work-*s*

як [z] після дзвінких приголосних і голосних: he read-*s*, he play-*s*, he go-*es*

як [ɪʒ] після приголосних ss, ch, sh, x: he dress-*es*, she mix-*es*

д) три дієслова відхиляються від загального правила утворення третьої особи однини:

to have – he has [η{ʒ}]

to do – he does [δ\ʒ]

to say – he says [σɛʒ]

2. **Питальна форма** Present Indefinite утворюється за допомогою допоміжного дієслова *do* (*does* – у третій особі однини), яке ставиться перед підметом, і основного дієслова в неозначеній формі без *to*:

They study. *Do they study?* – Чи вони вчаться?

He works. *Does he work?* – Чи він працює?

3. **Заперечна форма** Present Indefinite утворюється за допомогою дієслова *do* (*does*), частки *not* і форми інфінітива без *to*:

They study. They *do not study*.

He works. He *does not work*.

4. У **питально-заперечній формі** треба особливу увагу звертати на місце частки *not*:

They do not study. *Do they not study?* – Чи вони не вчаться?

They don't study. *Don't they study?* – Чи вони не вчаться?

Present Indefinite виражає дію, яка відбувається взагалі чи постійно, і може вживатися з такими обставинами: *always, often, every day, (week, month, year):*

My grandmother *uses* glasses when she *reads*.

The sun *rises* in the east.

The Past Indefinite Tense

Минулий неозначений час

Від того, як англійські дієслова утворюють Past Indefinite, вони діляться на дві великі групи: стандартні (правильні) і нестандартні (неправильні).

1. Стверджувальна форма.

Стандартні дієслова. Past Indefinite стандартних дієслів утворюється за допомогою закінчення **-ed**, яке додається до інфінітива без **to**. Українською мовою Past Indefinite звичайно перекладається минулим часом недоконаного виду:

to ask – питати he **asked** – він питав

При утворенні Past Indefinite треба пам'ятати такі правила:

а) якщо дієслово закінчується на німе **-e**, то в Past Indefinite воно зливається із закінченням **-ed**: to live – he **lived**;

б) якщо дієслово закінчується на **-y** з попереднім приголосним, то **-y** змінюється на **-i**:

to **study** – he **studied**, *але* to play – he **played**;

в) якщо дієслово закінчується на приголосний з попереднім коротким голосним або на **-el**, то кінцевий приголосний подвоюється: to stop – he **stopped**, to travel – he **travelled**.

Закінчення **-ed** вимовляється трояко:

як [σ] після глухих приголосних, крім **-t**:

to like – he **liked** [λαIкτ];

як [δ] після голосних і дзвінких приголосних, крім **-d**:

to call – he **called** [к|λδ];

як [Iδ] після приголосних **-t i -d**:

to wait – he waited ['ωεIτIδ]

to load – loaded ['λουδIδ].

Нестандартні дієслова. Past Indefinite нестандартних дієслів утворюється, як правило, шляхом зміни кореневого голосного:

to write – he wrote to speak – he spoke

Є також інші форми утворення Past Indefinite нестандартних дієслів:

to send – he sent to put – he put

to buy – he bought to think – he thought

to do – he did to go – he went

Примітка. Нестандартні дієслова треба вивчати напам'ять у трьох основних формах:

to write wrote written

писати писав написаний

2. Питальна, заперечна і питально-заперечна форми

Past Indefinite утворюються так само, як у Present Indefinite, але замість *do (does)* вживається допоміжне дієслово *did*:

a) he asked *Did he ask?*

він питав Чи він питав?

he wrote *Did he write?*

він писав Чи він писав?

b) he asked *He did not ask.*

he wrote *He did not write.*

c) They did not work. *Did they not work?*

They din't work. *Didn't they work?*

Past Indefinite виражає дію, що мала місце в минулому і вживається, як правило, з обставинами yesterday, last year (week, month), ago:

I saw Anna at the Academy *yesterday*.

He called me *last night*.

I walked to school every day when I was a child.

The Future Indefinite Tense

Майбутній неозначений час

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Future Indefinite утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *shall* (для першої особи однини і множини) або *will* (для всіх інших осіб однини і множини) й основного дієслова без частки *to*:

I shall write – я буду писати

he, she will write – він, вона буде писати

they will write – вони будуть писати

2. **Питальна форма** Future Indefinite утворюється винесенням допоміжного дієслова *shall* або *will* на перше місце (перед підметом):

Shall I write? Чи я буду писати?

Will he, she write? Чи він (вона) буде писати?

Will they write? Чи вони будуть писати?

3. **Заперечна форма** Future Indefinite утворюється за допомогою частки *not*, яка ставиться після допоміжного дієслова:

We shall study. We shall *not* study.

4. **У питально-заперечній формі** частка *not* ставиться після підмета, якщо вона не зливається з допоміжним дієсловом, і ставиться *перед* підметом, якщо вона зливається з допоміжним дієсловом:

We shall leave Lviv on May 10.

We shall *not* leave Lviv on May 10.

Shall we *not* leave Lviv on May 10?

Shan't we leave Lviv on May 10?

Future Indefinite виражає дію, яка відбудеться у майбутньому.

З дієсловом у Future Indefinite вживаються такі обставини часу, як *tomorrow*, *next week* (month, year), *in a week*, *in 2026*:

Злиті форми у часах Indefinite

У розмовній англійській мові широко розповсюджені так звані злиті форми. Це насамперед злиття особового

займенника з допоміжним дієсловом, а також злиття допоміжного дієслова з часткою not.

У часах групи Indefinite вживаються такі злиті форми:

а) у Present Indefinite –

do not = don't [δουν't]

does not = doesn't [δ\`ζvτ]

б) у Past Indefinite –

did not = didn't [διδvτ]

в) у Future Indefinite –

shall not = shan't [Σ\`ovτ]

will not = won't [ωουvτ]

Особові займенники з допоміжними дієсловами творять такі злиті форми:

I shall, will = I'll [αΙλ]

you will, shall = you'll [φ\`λ]

he will = he'll [η\`λ]

we shall, will = we'll [ω\`λ]

they will, shall = they'll [ΔεΙλ]

Часи тривалої дії

The Present Continuous Tense

Теперішній тривалий час

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Present Continuous утворюється за допомогою дієслова to be у Present Indefinite (am, is, are) та Participle I (інгова форма) повнозначного дієслова:

to read – читати

reading – інгова форма дієслова

I am reading – я читаю

you are reading – ти читаєш

he, she is reading – він, вона читає

we are reading – ми читаємо

he is reading – ви читаєте

they are reading – вони читають

2. **Питальна форма** Present Continuous утворюється так, що дієслово to be (am, is, are) ставиться перед підметом (на перше місце у реченні):

| | |
|----------------------|----------------|
| Стверджувальна форма | Питальна форма |
| He is reading. | Is he reading? |
| Він читає. | Чи він читає? |

3. **Заперечна форма** Present Continuous утворюється додаванням частки not після дієслова to be:

He is not reading. Він не читає

4. **Питально-заперечна форма** має властивості питальної (дієслово to be ставиться на перше місце) і заперечної форм (частка not ставиться після підмета).

He is not reading. Is he not reading?

Він не читає. Чи він читає.

Якщо питально-заперечна форма є скороченою, то частка not зливається з дієсловом to be:

Isn't he reading? Хіба він не читає?

Скорочена питально-заперечна форма у Present Continuous має такий вигляд:

Aren't I reading?

Isn't he reading?

Aren't we, you, they reading?

Present Continuous виражає дію, яка триває в момент мовлення про неї або тривала дія відбувається в певний період теперішнього часу: What are you doing here? – I am studying at the University.

На тривалість дії в Present Continuous вказують такі слова: now, at the moment або контекст.

Такі дієслова, як to love *любити*, to like *подобатися*, to want *хотіти*, to see *бачити*, to hear *чути*, to know *знати*, to understand *розуміти*, to remember *пам'ятати*, to forget *забувати*, to believe *вірити*, to be

бути, to have *мати*, котрі виражають почуття, сприйняття, розумові процеси і не виражають дію як процес, то у часах тривалої дії здебільшого не вживаються.

Примітка: Вираз to be going to що тільки за формою є дієсловом у часах тривалої дії, служить для вираження наміру щось виконати і вживається з наступним інфінітивом: He is going to do it. Він має намір (збирається) зробити це. Це так само стосується минулого і майбутнього часів.

The Past Continuous Tense **Минулий тривалий час**

Past Continuous утворюється за допомогою дієслова to be у Past Indefinite (was, were) та Participle I (інгової форми) повнозначного дієслова.

Стверджувальна форма:

I, he, she, it was reading – я читав

we, you, they were reading – ми читали

Питальна форма:

Was I, he, she, it reading? – Чи я читав?

Were we, you, they reading? – Чи ми читали?

Заперечна форма:

I, he, she, it was not reading. – Я не читав.

We, you, they were not reading. – Ми не читали.

Питально-заперечна форма:

Was I, he, she, it not reading? – Хіба він не читав?

Were we, you, they not reading? – Хіба вони не читали?

У скороченій питально-заперечній формі частка пот зливається з дієсловом was, were:

Wasn't he reading? – Хіба він не читав?

Weren't they reading? – Хіба вони не читали?

Past Continuous виражає дію, яка відбулася у певний момент часу в минулому. На цей момент дії у минулому вказують такі слова: at that time, at that moment, at five o'clock, at noon, from two to three:

The students were writing the test at 12 o'clock.

На момент дії в минулому може вказувати інша дія, що відбулася в минулому:

The students were writing the test when the Dean came.

The Future Continuous Tense

Майбутній тривалий час

Future Continuous утворюється за допомогою дієслова to be у Future Indefinite (shall be, will be) та Participle I (інгова форма) повнозначного дієслова:

Стверджувальна форма:

I, we shall be reading – я буду читати

he, she, it, you, they will be reading – він буде читати

Питальна форма:

Shall I, we be reading? – Чи я буду читати?

Will he, she, it, you, they be reading? – Чи він буде читати?

Заперечна форма:

I, we shall not be reading – я не буду читати

he, she, it, you, they will not be reading – він не буде читати

Питально-заперечна форма:

Shall I not be reading? – Хіба я не буду читати?

Will he, she, it, you, they not be reading? – Хіба він не буде читати?

У скороченій питально-заперечній формі частка not зливається з допоміжним дієсловом shall, will (shan't, won't):
Shan't I, we be reading? – Хіба я не буду читати?

Won't he, she, it, you, they be reading? – Хіба він не буде читати?

Future Continuous виражає дію, яка відбудеться в певний момент у майбутньому. На цей момент дії у

майбутньому вказують такі слова: at three o'clock, at that time, at noon, all the evening, from seven to eight.

We shall be working in the library from six to ten.

Таким чином, оскільки англійське дієслово у тривалих часах виражає незакінчену дію, тому українською мовою воно перекладається дієсловом у відповідному часі недоконаного виду:

I am writing now – я пишу зараз

I was writing at that time. – Я писав в той час (а не: я написав).

I shall be writing all the evening. – Я буду писати цілий вечір (а не: я напишу).

Часи доконаної дії

The Present Perfect Tense

Теперішній доконаний час

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Present Perfect утворюється з допоміжною дієсловом у Present Indefinite (have, has) та Participle II основного дієслова:

to write – писати

written – написаний

I have written – я написав

you have written – ти написав

he, she has written – він написав

we have written – ми написали

you have written – ви написали

they have written – вони написали

У розмовній мові вживаються скорочені форми особового займенника і допоміжного дієслова:

I've written we've written

you've written you've written

he's written they've written

she's written

it's written

2. У **питальній формі** допоміжне дієслово (have, has) ставиться перед підметом:

Have you seen it? – Чи ти бачив це?

У короткій відповіді повторюється форма have, has:

– Have you written a letter? Чи ти написав лист?

– Yes, I have. Так.

3. У **заперечній формі** частка not ставиться після дієслова have, has:

He has not lived in England. Він не жив в Англії.

Заперечна форма має два варіанти:

I haven't written = I've not written.

He hasn't written = He's not written.

I haven't done anything bad. Я не зробив нічого поганого.

4. **Упитально-заперечній формі** допоміжне дієслово have, has ставиться перед підметом, а частка not – після підмета:

Have you not seen him? Хіба ти не бачив його?

Скорочені форми:

Haven't you seen him? Хіба ти не бачив його?

Hasn't he seen me? Невже він не бачив мене?

Present Perfect виражає дію, яка відбулася до моменту мовлення про неї, і той, хто говорить, має результат цієї дії:

I have passed the examination. Я склав іспит.

Present Perfect вживається у реченнях зі словами: ever *коли-небудь*, never *ніколи*, often *часто*, seldom *рідко*, already *вже*, just *щойно*, up to now *до цього часу*, lately *нещодавно*, recently *останнім часом*, since *відтоді*, not yet *ще не*:

Up to now I have seen two English films. До цього часу я переглянув два англійські фільми.

Have you ever been to London? Чи ти був коли-небудь у Лондоні?

The Past Perfect Tense **Минулий доконаний час**

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Past Perfect утворюється з допоміжного дієслова to have у Past Indefinite (had) та Participle II основного дієслова:

I (he, she, it, we, you, they) had written – я написав
У скороченній формі дієслово had зливається з особовим займенником:

I'd (he'd, she'd, we'd, you'd, they'd) written.

2. **У питальній формі** дієслово had ставиться перед підметом:

Had you written? – Чи ти написав?

3. **У заперечній формі** частка not ставиться після дієслова had:

I (he, she, it, we, you, they) had not written – я не написав.

У скороченній формі вживається hadn't: I hadn't written.

Форма hadn't так само вживається у питально-заперечному реченні:

Hadn't you written? – Хіба ти не написав?

Past Perfect виражає дію, яка вже закінчується до певного моменту в минулому. На цей момент вказують такі сполучення слів: by three o'clock *до третьої години*, by that time *до того часу*, by the 1st of February *до першого лютого*:

We had done this work by 11 o'clock

The Future Perfect Tense **Майбутній доконаний час**

1. **Стверджувальна форма** Future Perfect утворюється з допоміжного дієслова to have у Future Indefinite (shall have, will have) та Participle II основного дієслова:

I (we) shall have written – я напишу

he (she, it, you, they) will have written – він напише.

У скороченній формі дієслово shall, will зливається з особовим займенником:

I'll (he'll, she'll, we'll, you'll, they'll) written.

2. У **питальній формі** дієслово shall, will ставиться перед підметом:

Will you have written? – Чи ти напишеш?

3. У **заперечній формі** частка not ставиться після дієслова shall, will:

I (we) shall not have written – я не напишу

he (she, it, you, they) will not have written – він не напише.

У скороченній формі вживаються форми:

I (we) shan't have written – я не напишу

he (she, it, you, they) won't have written – він не напише.

Форми shan't та won't так само вживається у питально-заперечному реченні:

Won't you have written? – Хіба ти не напишеш?

Future Perfect виражає дію, яка закінчиться до певного моменту або до початку іншої дії в майбутньому. На цей момент вказують такі сполучення слів: by three o'clock *до третьої години*, by the time поки, by the 1st of February *до першого лютого*:

They will have forgotten Вони до того часу нас
us by then. забудуть.

Modal Verbs

Модальні дієслова

Є три основні модальні дієслова: *can, must, may*.

Модальні дієслова мають такі особливості:

1. Модальні дієслова вживаються без частки *to*:

can – могли, вміти;

must – бути повинним, мусити, треба;

may – могли, мати змогу, мати право.

2. Після модальних дієслів наступні інфінітиви стоять без частки *to*:

He *can swim* very fast.

You *may come in*.

The students *must study* hard.

3. Модальні дієслова не мають закінчення у третій особі однини: He *can* speak English well.

4. Питальну і заперечну форми модальні дієслова утворюють без допоміжного дієслова:

Can you show me the way to the bank?

May I come in?

Must we do it?

I cannot sign this paper.

You must not speak while eating.

Past Indefinite модальних дієслів

Дієслова *can* і *may* мають форму минулого часу:

can – *could* [кʊδ] *may* – *might* [μ|στ]

Дієслово *must* вживається тільки у Present Indefinite, а в минулому часі вживається його замітник *had to*:

Peter *had to stop* smoking.

Злиті форми з модальними дієсловами

cannot = can't [к@vт] could not = couldn't [χυδvт]

may not = mayn't [μe|vт] might not = mightn't [μa|tvт]

must = mustn't [μ|σtvт] had not = hadn't [η{δvт].

Замінники модальних дієслів

Замість модальних дієслів *can*, *may*, *must* можуть вживатися також словосполучення:

can = to be able to – бути спроможним

We are able to finish our work in time.

Ми зможемо закінчити роботу вчасно.

may = to be allowed to – мати дозвіл, дозволяти

He was allowed to take part in the competition.

Йому дозволили брати участь у конкурсі.

must = to have to – мусити, бути повинним

A soldier has always to follow orders.

Солдати завжди повинні виконувати накази.

Дієслово **to be**

1. Дієслово **to be** має у Present Indefinite три особові форми – *am, is, are*, які перекладаються одним словом – є.

У Past Indefinite дієслово **to be** має дві особові форми – *was, were* – був, були.

Питальну і заперечну форми дієслово **to be** утворює без допоміжного дієслова: *Is he a doctor? He is not a doctor.*

2. Дієслово **to be** може мати чотири значення.

а) *Самостійне значення* і означає *бути, знаходиться*:

We are in the room.

Рідко це дієслово вживається у значенні *існувати*:

To be or not to be?

б) *Допоміжне значення*. Дієслово **to be** у цьому значенні не перекладається. Воно служить для утворення часів групи Continuous і всіх часів пасивного стану:

Bill is writing a novel now. Тепер Білл пише роман.

The novel was written last autumn. Роман був написаний минулої осені.

в) *Модальне значення*. Дієслово **to be** з наступним інфінітивом виражає дію, яку треба виконати відповідно до домовленості чи плану:

He is to complete this work by tomorrow.

Він повинен завершити цю роботу до завтра.

We were to arrive to the capital by 5 o'clock.

Ми повинні були прибути до столиці до 5 години.

г) Дієслово *to be* є дієсловом-зв'язкою (частиною іменного присудка): *We are first-year students. He will be a manager.*

Часові форми *to be* в **Indefinite**

Present Indefinite

а) стверджувальна форма

I am – я є

we are – ми є

you are – ти є

you are – ви є

he, she, it is – він є

they are – вони є

б) заперечна форма

I am not – я не є

we are not – ми не є

you are not – ти не є

you are not – ви не є

he, she, it is not – він не є

they are not – вони не є

в) питальна форма

am I? – чи я є?

are we? – чи ми є?

are you? – чи ти є?

are you? – чи ви є?

is he, she, it? – чи він є?

are they? – чи вони є?

Past Indefinite

I was – я був

we were – ми були

you were – ти був

you were – ви були

he, she, it was – він був

they were – вони були

he was not – він не був

they were not – вони не були

was he? – чи він був?

were they? – чи вони були?

Future Indefinite

I shall be – я буду

we shall be – ми будемо

you will be – ти будеш

you will be – ви будете

he, she, it will be – він буде

they will be – вони будуть

| | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| I shall not be – я не буду | we shall not be – ми не будемо |
| he, she, it will not be – | they will not be – вони не |
| він, вона, воно не буде | будуть |
| shall I be? – чи я буду? | shall we be? – чи ми будемо? |
| will he be? – чи він буде? | will they be? – чи вони будуть? |

Злиті форми з дієсловом to be

а) Злиття дієслівної форми з особовим займенником

| Повна форма | Злита форма | Вимова |
|-------------|-------------|--------|
| I am | I'm | [αΙμ] |
| he is | he's | [η√ζ] |
| she is | she's | [Σ√ζ] |
| it is | it's | [Ιτσ] |
| we are | we're | [ωI≡] |
| you are | you're | [φ√≡] |
| they are | they're | [Δε≡] |

б) Злиття дієслівної форми з часткою not

| Повна форма | Злита форма | Вимова |
|-------------|-------------|---------|
| is not | isn't | [Iζvτ] |
| are not | aren't | [©vτ] |
| was not | wasn't | [ωOζvτ] |
| were not | weren't | [ω√vτ] |

Дієслово to have

1. Дієслово to have має у Present Indefinite дві особові форми – *have* і *has*.

У Past Indefinite дієслово має одну особову форму – *had*.

Питальну і заперечну форми дієслово to have утворює без допоміжного дієслова: *Have you a new dictionary?*

2. Дієслово to have може вживатися як

а) самостійне дієслово, що означає *мати, володіти*:

Ukraine *has* its national emblem;

б) як допоміжне дієслово, що служить для утворення усіх часів групи Perfect:

My friend *has been* in London;

в) модальне дієслово, що виражає необхідність і є синонімом до дієслова must:

We *had to* do it immediately.

Часові форми to have в Indefinite Present Indefinite

а) стверджувальна форма

| | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| I have – я маю | we have – ми маємо |
| you have – ти маєш | you have – ви маєте |
| he, she, it has – він має | they have – вони мають |

б) заперечна форма

| | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| I have not – я не маю | we have not – ми не маємо |
| you have not – ти не маєш | you have not – ви не маєте |
| he has not – він не має | they have not – вони не мають |

в) питальна форма

| | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| have I? – чи я маю? | have we? – чи ми маємо? |
| have you? – чи ти маєш? | have you? – чи ви маєте? |
| has he, she, it? – чи він має? | have they? – чи вони мають? |

Past Indefinite

| | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| I had – я мав | we had – ми мали |
| you had – ти мав | you had – ви мали |
| he, she, it had – він мав | they had – вони мали |
| he had not – він не мав | they had not – вони не мали |
| had he? – чи він мав? | had they? – чи вони мали? |

Future Indefinite

| |
|---|
| I shall have – я буду мати |
| you will have – ти будеш мати (ви будете мати) |
| he, she, it will have – він, вона, воно буде мати |
| we shall have – ми будемо мати |

they will have – вони будуть мати
 I shall not have – я не буду мати
 he, she, it will not have – він, вона, воно не буде мати
 they will not have – вони не будуть мати
 shall we have? – чи ми будемо мати?
 will he have? – чи він буде мати?
 will they have? – чи вони будуть мати?

Злиті форми з дієсловом to have

а) Злиття дієслівної форми з особовим займенником.

| Повна форма | Злита форма | Вимова |
|-------------|-------------|--------|
| I have | I've | [αIϖ] |
| you have | you've | [φ] ϖ] |
| he has | he's | [η√ζ] |
| she has | she's | [Σ√ζ] |
| we have | we've | [ω√ϖ] |
| they have | they've | [ΔεIϖ] |
| I had | I'd | [αIδ] |
| you had | you'd | [φ] δ] |
| he had | he'd | [η√δ] |
| she had | she'd | [Σ√δ] |
| it had | it'd | [Iτ≅δ] |
| we had | we'd | [ω√δ] |
| they had | they'd | [ΔEIδ] |

б) Злиття дієслівної форми з часткою not.

| Повна форма | Злита форма | Вимова |
|-------------|-------------|---------|
| have not | haven't | [η{ϖντ] |
| has not | hasn't | [η{ζντ] |
| had not | hadn't | [η{δντ] |

The Passive Voice

Пасивний стан дієслова – це стан, коли підмет (особа або предмет) не виконує дії, а дія додатка (особи чи предмета) спрямована на підмет:

The students are asked by the teacher.

Студенти питані викладачем.

Тут дія додатка *by the teacher* спрямована (*are asked*) на підмет – *the students*.

Загальне правило: Пасивний стан в англійській мові утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у відповідному часі, числі, особі і *Participle II* основного дієслова.

У пасивному стані англійське дієслово утворює три часові форми – Present, Past, Future у групах Indefinite, Perfect і Continuous. У наукових текстах найчастіше вживаються часові форми групи Indefinite та Perfect.

Пасивний стан групи Indefinite

Пасивний стан часів групи Indefinite утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у відповідному часі, числі, особі активного стану групи Indefinite (Present, Past чи Future) і *Participle II* основного дієслова.

Present Indefinite Passive Voice (P.V.)

Стверджувальна форма утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у Present Indefinite активного стану і *Participle II* основного дієслова:

to ask – питати

I am asked – я питаний, мене питають

you are asked – ти питаний, тебе питають

he, she, it is asked – він питаний, його (її) питають

we are asked – ми питані, нас питають

you are asked – ви питані, вас питають

they are asked – вони питані, їх питають

Заперечну і питальну форми дієслово в пасивному стані утворює без допоміжного дієслова *do*:

He is not asked. Is he asked? Is he not asked?

Past Indefinite P.V.

Стверджувальна форма утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у Past Indefinite активного стану і *Participle II* основного дієслова:

to ask – питати

I was asked – я був питаний, мене питали

you were asked – ти був питаний, тебе питали

he, she, it is asked – він був питаний, його (її) питали

we were asked – ми були питані, нас питали

you were asked – ви були питані, вас питали

they were asked – вони були питані, їх питали

Питальна і заперечна форми:

He was asked. Was he asked?

Was he not asked?

Wasn't he asked?

Future Indefinite P.V.

Стверджувальна форма утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у Future Indefinite активного стану і *Participle II* основного дієслова:

to ask – питати

I shall be asked – я буду питаний, мене будуть питати

you will be asked – ти будеш питаний, тебе будуть питати

he, she will be asked – він буде питаний, його питатимуть

we shall be asked – ми будемо питані, нас будуть питати

you will be asked – ви будете питані, вас будуть питати

they will be asked – вони будуть питані, їх будуть питати

Заперечна та питальна форми:

He will not be asked. Will he be asked?
Will he not be asked?
Won't he be asked?

Переклад пасивного стану

Англійське дієслово у пасивному стані перекладається українською мовою трьома способами:

а) дієсловом з часткою *-ся*

Vitamin A *is found* in eggs, milk, and butter.
to find - found - found – знаходити

Вітамін А *знаходиться* у яйцях, молоці та маслі.

б) дієсловом “бути з дієприкметником пасивного стану на *-ний, -тий*”

Vitamin E *was discovered* in 1922.

to discover – відкривати

Вітамін Е *був відкритий* у 1922 році.

в) дієсловом активного стану як неозначено-особове речення (у третій особі множини)

Corn, rye, and wheat *are grown* in all parts of Europe.

to grow - grew - grown – вирощувати

Кукурудзу, жито і пшеницю *вирощують* в усіх частинах Європи.

Додаток у пасивному реченні

Додаток у пасивному реченні в англійській мові виражається іменником (чи займенником) з прийменником *by*, рідше *with*. Такий додаток перекладається по-українськи орудним відмінком (відповідає на питання *ким? чим?*):

by the students – студентами

by the dean – деканом

by him – ним

with a pencil – олівцем
Vitamin A is destroyed *by ultra-violet light*.
Вітамін А руйнується *ультрафіолетовим світлом*.

Пасивний стан групи Perfect

Пасивний стан часів групи Perfect утворюється від допоміжного дієслова *to be* у відповідному часі, числі, особі активного стану групи Perfect (Present, Past чи Future) і *Participle II* основного дієслова.

Приклади.

Present Perfect P.V.

а) стверджувальна форма:

I have been asked – я був питаний
he has been asked – він був питаний
they have been asked – вони були питані

б) заперечна форма:

I have not been asked – я не був питаний
he has not been asked – він не був питаний
they have not been asked – вони не були питані

в) питальна форма:

Has he been asked? – чи він був питаний?
Has he not been asked? – чи він не був питаний?
Hasn't he been asked? – чи він не був питаний?

Past Perfect P.V.

I had been asked – я був питаний
he had been asked – він був питаний
they had been asked – вони були питані
he had not been asked – він не був питаний
had he been asked? – чи він був питаний?

had he not been asked? – чи він не був питаний?
hadn't he been asked? – чи він не був питаний?

Future Perfect P.V.

he will have been asked – він буде питаний
he will not have been asked – він не буде питаний
will he have been asked? – чи він буде питаний?

Безособовий пасив

У науковій літературі часто вживається так званий безособовий пасив. Він виражається пасивною формою дієслова у третій особі однини з формальним підметом *it*, який українською мовою не перекладається:

it is said – кажуть

it is believed – вважають

it has been known – було відомо

it has been proved – було доведено

It has been found that the copper is not a part of the hemoglobin.

Було виявлено, що мідь не є частиною гемоглобіну.

It has been suggested that manganese is concerned in tissue respiration.

Було висловлено думку, що марганець бере участь у клітинному диханні.

Неозначена форма пасивного стану

У науковій літературі часто зустрічається сполучення модальних дієслів *can*, *must*, *may* з неозначеною формою дієслова пасивного стану. Переклад такої неозначеної форми треба проводити за загальним правилом перекладу англійських дієслів пасивного стану українською мовою (див. с. 114):

The amino acids which are required by the body and which *cannot be made* from other substances are called the

essential amino acids. Those which *can be made* from other substances are called the non-essential amino acids (*не можуть бути утворені*).

Most consumers demand lean meat, therefore all fat *must be removed* from meat (*треба забрати*).

Anemia *may be caused* by a lack of iron (може бути викликана).

Неособові форми дієслова

До неособових форм англійського дієслова належать інфінітив, або неозначена форма дієслова – *the infinitive*, дієприкметник – *the participle* і герундій – *the gerund*.

Неозначена форма дієслова

Неозначена форма дієслова, або інфінітив – це початкова форма дієслова, яка називає дію і відповідає на питання що робити?, наприклад, *to go йти, to study вчитися*.

Як бачимо, англійське дієслово вживається з часткою *to*, яка не перекладається. У словниках замість частки *to* ставиться знак *v – verb* (дієслово), який пишеться після дієслова: *to write* писати; у словнику: *write v – писати*.

На відміну від української мови англійський інфінітив має шість форм відповідно до групи часів і стану дієслова:

| Група часів | Активний стан | Пасивний стан |
|-----------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Неозначений час | <i>to write</i> | <i>(to) be written</i> |
| Тривалий час | <i>(to) be writing</i> | – |
| Доконаний час | <i>(to) have written</i> | <i>(to) have been written</i> |

| | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|---|
| Доконаний тривалий час | (to) have been writing | – |
|------------------------|------------------------|---|

В англійській мові найчастіше вживається інфінітив активного стану, далі йде інфінітив пасивного стану неозначеного часу (головним чином у науковій літературі).

Вживання інфінітива з часткою to

З часткою to інфінітив вживається у реченні після дієслів: to want *хотіти*, to wish *бажати*, to try *намагатися*, to hope *надіятися*, to begin *починати (ся)*, to continue *продовжувати (ся)*:

I *want to read* this book. Я хочу прочитати цю книжку.
He *began to dance*. Він почав танцювати.

Вживання інфінітива без частки to

Без частки to інфінітив вживається:

1. Після модальних дієслів can, may, must, shall, will –
We *can do* this work tomorrow. Ми можемо виконати цю роботу завтра.

May I ask you? Чи можна запитати вас?

May all your wishes come true. Хай здійсняться всі ваші бажання.

2. Після дієслів to see *бачити*, to hear *чути*, to feel *почувати*, to watch *спостерігати*, to make *примушувати*, to let *дозволяти*:

I *saw him read*. Я побачив, що (як) він читає (читав).

Інфінітивні звороти

Інфінітив (найчастіше з часткою to) разом із залежними словами може утворювати єдиний синтаксичний комплекс, так званий інфінітивний зворот. Розрізняють

два види таких зворотів: суб'єктний інфінітивний зворот і об'єктний інфінітивний зворот.

Суб'єктний інфінітивний зворот

Інфінітив із залежними словами, що в реченні виконує роль складного підмета, утворює суб'єктний інфінітивний зворот. Такий зворот складається з двох частин: перша частина – це іменник або особовий займенник у загальному відмінку і друга частина – інфінітив, що виражає дію, яку виконає підмет. Суб'єктний інфінітивний зворот перекладається підрядним реченням зі сполучником *що* або *як*:

The boy was seen to run there. Бачили, що (як) хлопець біг туди.

Треба завжди пам'ятати, що у даному звороті перша і друга частини звороту відокремлені між собою присудком (у реченні вище – *was seen*)

Суб'єктний інфінітивний зворот вживається:

1. З такими словами, які стоять у пасивній формі – *to say, to see, to hear, to know, to consider, to suppose, to believe, to think*, наприклад,

They are said to plant apple trees. Кажуть, що вони саджають яблуні.

2. З такими словами, які стоять в активній формі – *to see, to appear, to happen, to prove*, наприклад,

The rainbow seemed to end on the hillside.

Здавалося, що веселка закінчувалася на схилі гори. *I happened to see James in town.* Траплялося, що я зустрічав Джеймса у місті.

Об'єктний інфінітивний зворот

Інфінітив разом із залежними словами, що в реченні виконує роль складного додатка, утворює об'єктний

інфінітивний зворот. Такий зворот складається з двох частин: перша частина – це іменник або особовий займенник у непрямому відмінку і друга частина – інфінітив, що виражає дію, яку виконує підмет (стоїть перед інфінітивом). Українською мовою інфінітивний зворот перекладається підрядним реченням зі сполучником *що* або *як*:

I saw *him run*. Я бачив, що (як) він біг.

Як бачимо, в українському перекладі такий зворот творить підрядне речення, де підметом є англійський додаток – *him*, а присудком є англійський інфінітив – *run*. Об'єктний інфінітивний зворот вживається:

1. З дієсловами *to see*, *to hear*, *to watch*, *to make* *примушувати*, *to let* *дозволяти*, після яких інфінітив вживається без частки *to*:

My parents always *make me do* my homework before I go out.

Мої батьки спонукують мене завжди виконати домашнє завдання, перед тим яє йти на прогулянку.

2. З дієсловами *to want*, *to wish*, *to like*, *to hate*, *to consider*, *to believe* *вважати*, *to expect* *сподіватися*, після яких інфінітив вживається з часткою *to*:

We wanted him to take in song contest.

Ми хотіли, щоб він брав участь у пісенному конкурсі.

The Participle

В англійській мові є два дієприкметники – Present Participle, або Participle I (дієприкметник теперішнього часу) і Past Participle, або Participle II (дієприкметник минулого часу). Дієприкметник – це форма дієслова, яка має ознаки прикметника і дієслова.

The Participle II

Past Participle, або Participle II виконує в англійському реченні кілька функцій.

а) Participle II служить для утворення всіх часів пасивного стану і часів групи Perfect, тобто є частиною дієслівного присудка:

Vitamin B *is stored* in the liver of animals.

He *has written* a new book.

б) Participle II є означенням і стоїть *перед* іменником або *після* нього:

Sun-cured hay is the best source of vitamin D.

The substances, *known* as provitamins, can be converted into vitamin A in the intestinal wall.

Vaccination of animals in *infected* areas is the most useful measure *known*.

Інгові форми дієслова

В англійській мові є три форми дієслова, які звучать однаково, бо для їх утворення діють ті самі правила. Це так звані інгові форми (ing-forms) – герундій, дієприкметник теперішнього часу і віддієслівний іменник. Але оскільки у реченні вони мають різні синтаксичні функції і перекладаються по-різному, то вони створюють певні труднощі при їх розпізнаванні.

The Participle I

1. Participle I, як і дві інші інгові форми, утворюється додаванням суфікса *-ing* до неозначеної форми дієслова без частки *to*: to speak – **speaking**.

Якщо дієслово закінчується на німе *-e*, то у Participle I воно опускається: to take – **taking**.

2. Якщо односкладові дієслова або двоскладові дієслова з наголосом на останньому складі закінчуються на

приголосний з попереднім коротким голосним, то кінцевий приголосний подвоюється: to put – **putting**, to occur – **occurring**.

Дієслова з кінцевим приголосним *-l* завжди подвоюють його: to travel – **travelling**.

3. Дієслова типу *to die, to lie, to tie* мають у Participle I такі форми: **dying, lying, tying**.

Вживання Participle I

1. Participle I служить для утворення часів групи Continuous. Разом з дієсловом *to be* Participle I перекладається особовою формою дієслова:

I am reading now – я читаю зараз.

Scientists are trying to separate lignins and cellulose from the carbohydrates.

Вчені прагнуть відділити лігніни та целюлозу від вуглеводів.

2. Participle I є означенням і стоїть *перед* іменником або є частиною дієприкметникового звороту і стоїть *після* іменника:

The students are in the reading room.

Milk is rich in calcium and phosphorus, serving as a best source of these elements for human use.

Молоко є багате на кальцій та фосфор, *котрі служать* (або: *служачи*) найкращим джерелом цих елементів для людського споживання.

Як бачимо, Participle I у дієприкметниковому звороті перекладається або підрядним означальним реченням (*serving – котрі служать*), або дієприслівником (*serving – служачи*).

The gerund

Герундій

В українській мові немає прямого відповідника для форми герундій. В англійській мові – це форма дієслова,

котра закінчується на *-ing* і має властивості дієслова й іменника. Герундій перекладається неозначеною формою дієслова або іменником на *-ння* чи *-ття*: *reading* – *читати* і *читання*.

На противагу до віддієслівного іменника, герундій серед іншого не вживається з артиклем, не вживається у множині, приймає після себе прямий додаток:

Reading the history is pleasant for me. (герундій)

Читати історію приємно для мене.

Читання історії приємне для мене.

The reading of the history is pleasant for me.
(віддієслівний іменник)

Vitamin B can be destroyed by prolonged *heating*.
(герундій).

ПИТАЛЬНІ РЕЧЕННЯ

Без питання немає діалогу: запитують вас, питаєте і ви.

В англійській мові розрізняють такі типи питань: *загальні, спеціальні, альтернативні і розділові*.

В англійському питальному реченні є твердий порядок слів: на першому місці стоїть присудок або частина присудка, а підмет стоїть на другому місці, тобто у питальному реченні в англійській мові є зворотний порядок слів.

Загальні питання

Загальне питання – це питання до цілого речення, яке передбачає відповідь *так* або *ні*.

У загальних питаннях присудок завжди стоїть перед підметом, а друга частина присудка (одне чи два слова) стоять після підмета.

1. У реченнях, що містять слова *have, be, can, must, may, shall, will* чи похідні від них (*has, am, are, is, had, was, were, could, might, should, would*), загальні питання починаються з цих слів:

Has he a book?

Is he a student?

Has he written a book?

Is he reading a book?

Has the book been written yet? Is he asked by the teacher?

2. У реченнях, що містять як присудок смислові слова, перед підметом стоїть допоміжне дієслово *do (does, did)*, а смислове дієслово ставиться після підмета: *Does he want to make more money?* – Чи він хоче заробити більше грошей?

3. Відповідь на загальне питання може бути короткою або повною.

Коротка відповідь починається словом *yes* або *no*, і після коми ставиться підмет у формі особового займенника з допоміжним чи модальним дієсловом у стверджувальній або заперечній формах:

Has he a book?

Has he written a book?

– *Yes, he has.*

– *Yes, he has.*

– *No, he has not (hasn't).*

– *No, he has not (hasn't).*

Спеціальні питання

Спеціальні питання ставляться до якогось одного члена речення і завжди починаються з питального слова. У спеціальних питаннях до всіх членів речення, крім підмета, є зворотний порядок слів, а в питаннях до підмета та його означення є прямий порядок слів:

He studies Law at the University.

Where does he study? (до обставини)

What does he study? (до додатка)

What does he do? (до присудка)

Who studies – Law? (до підмета)

Примітка. Відповідь на питання до підмета дається звичайно у короткій формі. Така відповідь складається з підмета, що виражений іменником або особовим займенником, і присудка у формі допоміжного або модального дієслів:

Who studies Law?

– *My friend does.*

Who has written this book?

– *My friend has.*

Альтернативні питання

Альтернативні питання передбачають право вибору одного з двох, наприклад, осіб, предметів, дій. Альтернативне питання складається з двох частин, між якими стоїть сполучник **or** *чи*. У такому реченні частина питання до слова **or** вимовляється з підвищеною інтонацією, а після нього – зі спадною:

Do you work or do you study? – I study.

Відповіді на альтернативні питання, крім питань до підмета, завжди даються у повній формі: *Will you or will your friend answer this question? – My friend will.*

Розділові питання

Розділові питання – це ніби репліки до попереднього речення. Вони містять *допоміжні* чи *модальні* дієслова, або дієслово *to be*. Українською мовою ці репліки перекладаються або словами “*чи не так?*”, або словами “*не правда?*”. Якщо попереднє твердження містить повнозначне дієслово, то у розділовому питанні ставиться *do, does, did* чи форму дієслова *to be*. Якщо у головному реченні є ствердження, то розділове питання повинно містити заперечення, і навпаки: розділове питання буде стверджувальним, якщо у головному реченні є заперечення:

She likes ice cream, *doesn't she?* (чи не так?)

Those boys are our students, *aren't they?* (не правда?)

You have not a sister, *have you?* (чи не так?)

ІНТОНАЦІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОГО РЕЧЕННЯ

Хто чує англійську мову, той відразу сприймає характерну її особливість, що виявляється в голосі мовців, який то спадає, то підвищується. Таке пониження та підвищення голосу називається інтонацією. В англійській мові розрізняють два основні види інтонації: *спадну й висхідну*.

Зі спадною інтонацією вимовляються:

1. Стверджувальні речення: We are students of ↓the University.
2. Заперечні речення: I have never ↓seen it.
3. Спеціальні питання, що починаються з питальних слів:

What is your ↓name?

4. Друга частина альтернативного питання: Do you study English or ↓German?

З висхідною інтонацією вимовляються:

1. Загальні питання, що вимагають відповіді “так” чи “ні”: Can you speak ↑English?

2. Слова, що перелічуються, крім останнього:

We study Anatomy, ↑Chemistry, ↑Zoology, and ↓English.

3. Речення, що висловлюють здивування, з перепитуванням: Is he ↑ill? Are you ↑sure?

4. Уточнення, перепитування: ↑Sorry.

5. Вибачення: Excuse ↑me.

НАЙУЖИВАНІШІ НЕСТАНДАРТНІ ДІЄСЛОВА

| Infinitive | Past Indefinite | Participle II | Переклад |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| to be | was, were | been | бути |
| bear | bore | born | нести |
| beat | beat | beaten | бити |
| become | became | become | ставати |
| begin | began | begun | починати |
| bite | bit | bit(ten) | кусати |
| break | broke | broken | ламати |
| bring | brought | brought | приносити |
| build | built | built | будувати |
| buy | bought | bought | купувати |
| catch | caught | caught | ловити |
| choose | chose | chosen | вибирати |
| come | came | come | приходити |
| cost | cost | cost | коштувати |
| cut | cut | cut | різати |
| deal | dealt | dealt | мати справу |
| do | did | done | робити |
| draw | drew | drawn | тягти |
| drink | drank | drunk | пити |
| drive | drove | driven | їхати |
| eat | ate | eaten | їсти |
| fall | fell | fallen | падати |
| feed | fed | fed | годувати |
| fight | fought | fought | битися |
| find | found | found | знаходити |
| fly | flew | flown | літати |
| forget | forgot | forgotten | забувати |
| freeze | froze | frozen | заморожувати |
| get | got | got | діставати |
| give | gave | given | давати |
| go | went | gone | іти |
| grind | ground | ground | молоти |
| grow | grew | grown | рости |
| hang | hung | hung | висіти |
| have | had | had | мати |

| Infinitive | Past Indefinite | Participle II | Переклад |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| to hear | heard | heard | чути |
| hold | held | held | тримати |
| keep | kept | kept | тримати |
| know | knew | known | знати |
| lay | laid | laid | класти |
| lead | led | led | вести |
| learn | learnt | learnt | вчити |
| leave | left | left | залишати |
| let | let | let | дозволяти |
| lie | lay | lain | лежати |
| lose | lost | lost | губити |
| make | made | made | робити |
| mean | meant | meant | означати |
| meet | met | met | зустрічати |
| pay | paid | paid | платити |
| put | put | put | класти |
| read | read | read | читати |
| ride | rode | ridden | їздити верхи |
| rise | rose | risen | вставати |
| run | run | run | бігти |
| say | said | said | казати |
| see | saw | seen | бачити |
| seek | sought | sought | шукати |
| sell | sold | sold | продавати |
| send | sent | sent | посилати |
| show | showed | shown | показувати |
| sing | sang | sung | співати |
| sit | sat | sat | сидіти |
| sleep | slept | slept | спати |
| sow | sowed | sown | сіяти |
| speak | spoke | spoken | говорити |
| spend | spent | spent | витрачати |
| spoil | spoilt | spoilt | псувати (ся) |
| spread | spread | spread | поширювати |
| spring | sprang | sprung | стрибати |
| stand | stood | stood | стояти |
| strike | struck | struck | бити |
| swell | swelled | swollen | пухнути |

| Infinitive | Past Indefinite | Participle II | Переклад |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| to swim | swam | swum | плавати |
| swing | swung | swung | гойдати |
| take | took | taken | брати, взяти |
| teach | taught | taught | навчати |
| tear | tore | torn | рвати |
| tell | told | told | говорити |
| think | thought | thought | думати |
| throw | threw | thrown | кидати |
| understand | understood | understood | розуміти |
| undertake | undertook | undertaken | розпочинати |
| wake | woke | woken | прокидатися |
| wear | wore | worn | носити |
| weep | wept | wept | плакати |
| win | won | won | вигравати |
| wind | wound | wound | намотувати |
| withdraw | withdrew | withdrawn | брати назад |
| wring | wrung | wrung | скручувати |
| write | wrote | written | писати |

МОВНІ СИТУАЦІЇ

Getting Acquainted

Знайомство

Good morning!

Доброго ранку!

Good afternoon!

Доброго дня!

Good evening!

Добрий вечір!

How do you do?

Доброго дня!

Hello! Hi!

Вітаю! Честь!

Welcome!

Ласкаво просимо!

Pleased to meet you!

Радий (а) з вами познайомитися!

I would like you to meet ...

Дозвольте відрекомендувати вам

Mister ..., Mrs. ...,

пана ..., пані ...,

my wife, my husband

мою дружину, мого чоловіка

I am from Ukraine,

Я з України,

from Lviv, Kyiv

зі Львова, з Києва

Can you speak English?

Чи ви розмовляєте англійською?

– Yes, I can speak English.

Так, я розмовляю англійською.

– No, I don't speak English.

Ні, я не розмовляю англійською.

Do you understand me?

Ви мене розумієте?

How do you say it in English?

Як це сказати англійською?

What is your name?

Як вас звати?

My name is ...

Мене звать ...

Age. Family

How old are you?
I am twenty years old.
When were you born?
I was born in 1980.
Are you married?
I am married.
I am single.
I have one child,
one son, one daughter
How old is your son?

your daughter?
He (she) is two.
Have you got brothers?
I have no brothers,
no sisters.

Have you got grandparents?
My grandparents are dead.

Is your family large?
There are 6 of us in the family.

Вік. Сім'я

Скільки вам (тобі) років?
Мені двадцять років.
Коли ви народилися?
Я народився 1980 року.
Ви одружені (заміжня)?
Я одружений (заміжня).
Я не одружений (а).
Я маю одну дитину,
одного сина, одну доньку
Скільки років вашому
синові?

вашій доньці?
Йому (їй) два роки.
Чи ви маєте братів?

Я не маю братів,
сестер.

Ви маєте дідуся і бабусю?
Мій дідусь і бабуся не жи-
вуть уже.

Чи ваша сім'я велика?

Нас є шестеро в сім'ї.

Profession

What is your job?

Do you study (work)?

I study (work).

I don't study (work).

I am a student.

I am a farmer.

I am a doctor.

I am a veterinarian.

I am a zooengineer.

I am a businessman.

Where do you study?

I study at Lviv Veterinary University.

I study at a university.

I work at a plant (factory).

I am a housewife.

Are you a believer?

I am Greec-Catholic.

I am Orthodox.

Заняття

Чим ви займаєтесь?

Ви вчитеся (працюєте)?

Я вчуся (працюю).

Я не вчуся (працюю).

Я студент.

Я фермер.

Я лікар.

Я ветеринарний лікар.

Я зооінженер.

Я бізнесмен.

Де ви вчитеся?

Я вчуся у Львівському університеті ветеринарної медицини.

Я вчуся в університеті.

Я працюю на заводі.

Я домогосподарка.

Чи ви віруючий (а)?

Я греко-католик.

Я православний.

At the customs desk

Please, your passport.

How long are you planning to stay in our country?

Two weeks.

Can you put your bag on the table, and your customs form, please.

How much does it weigh?

15 kilos.

Have I to pay an excess luggage charge?

No, nothing. That's right.

Have you anything to declare?

Pardon?

Cigarettes, alcohol, fresh fruit ...?

Uh, no.

Open your suitcase, please.

Маєте

Have you any gifts?

Only one bottle of horilka .

Okay.

Here is your form.

Thank you very much.

Not at all. Next please.

Митний контроль

Прошу ваш паспорт.

Скільки ви плануєте бути в

нашій країні?

Два тижні.

Прошу покласти вашу сумку на стіл і подати вашу митну декларацію.

Скільки вона важить?

15 кілограмів.

Чия я маю ще доплатити за надлишкову вагу?

Ні, нічого. Все гаразд.

Чи ви щось декларуєте?

Прошу?

Цигарки, алкоголь, свіжі фрукти ...?

О, ні.

Прошу відкрити валізу.

якісь подарунки?

Тільки одна пляшка горілки.

Гаразд.

Ось ваша декларація.

Дуже дякую.

Нема за що. Прошу далі.

At the hotel

I need a ... room.
single
double
I have not much money, so I
would prefer a cheap room.
Please, help me fill in this
form.
How much is a room for a
night?
What floor is my room?
What is my room number?
Do I pay in advance or on
departure?
How long will you be staying
with us?
I plan to stay for ...
one day
a week
Please give me the key to
number ...
I am leaving today
(tomorrow)
at ... o'clock
Please, make up the bill.

Where can I change money?

У готелі

Мені потрібний ... номер.
одномісний
двомісний
Я маю мало грошей, і мені
потрібен недорогий номер.
Прошу допомогти мені
заповнити бланк.
Скільки коштує номер за
добу?
На якому поверсі мій номер?
Який номер?
Оплата наперед чи при
від'їзді?
На який час ви у нас
зупинитесь?
Я маю намір зупинитися на
один день
тиждень
Прошу дати ключ від
номера.
Я від'їжджаю сьогодні
(завтра)
о ... годині
Приготуйте, будь ласка,
рахунок.
Де можна обміняти гроші?

In the city

How can I get to the...?

theatre

museum

street вулиці

Where is the nearest... stop?

bus

tram

metro метро

Where is the crossing?

I have lost my way.

I am looking for ...

street number ...

Write down the address,
please.

What is the bus fare?

What's the next stop?

Where do I get off?

Please, let me by!

Please, take me to the hotel!

How much is it?

У місті

Як добратися до ...?

театру

музею

Де знаходиться найближча
зупинка ...?

автобуса

трамваю

Де перехід?

Я заблукав (ла).

Я розшукую вулицю ...

будинок № ...

Будь ласка, напишіть
адресу.

Яка вартість проїзду
автобусом?

Яка наступна зупинка?

Де мені слід виходити?

Дозвольте, будь ласка,
пройти!

Прошу відвезти мене до
готелю!

Скільки це коштує?

At the store

Where is the ...
department store?
book store
candy store
grocery store
Have you ...?
I want ...
I would like to buy ...
Give me, please ...
Will you please show me.
How much?
Where do I pay?
Thank you.
What size is this?
May I try this suit on?

I'm buying it.
Where can I buy flowers?
Please, give me seven.
Please, give me a pack of
cigarettes.
Where can I buy a newspaper?

У магазині

Де знаходиться
універсальний магазин?
книжковий магазин
кондитерський магазин
продуктовий магазин
Чи є у вас ...?
Мені потрібно ...
Я хотів би купити ...
Дайте, будь ласка, ...
Покажіть, будь ласка.
Скільки коштує ...?
Де можна заплатити?
Дякую.
Який це розмір?
Чи можна приміряти цей
костюм?
Я це купую.
Де можна купити квіти?
Прошу дати мені сім штук.
Дайте мені, будь ласка,
пачку сигарет.
Де я можу купити газету?

Information

bill
buy
cash register
cheap
cotton
dear
department, section
exchange
fashion
goods
go shopping
pack up
pay
quality
sale
salesperson
shop
silk
size
store
wool

Інформація

рахунок
купити
касовий апарат
дешевий
бавовна, бавовняний
дорогий
відділ
обмінювати
мода
товар(и)
робити закупи
запакувати
платити
якість, ґатунок
розпродаж
продавець
крамничка
шовк, шовковий
розмір
крамниця, магазин
вовна, вовняний

In a grocery store

apples
apricot
banana
beer
berries
bread
butter
cake
cheese
cherry
chewing gum
cocoa
coffee
cookies
cucumber
egg
frankfurters
fruit
grapefruit
grapes
ham
herring
lemon
melon
milk
nuts
oil
onions
orange
orange juice

У продовольчому магазині

яблука
абрикос
банан
пиво
ягоди
хліб
масло
тістечко
сир
вишня
жувальна гумка
какао
кава
печиво
огірок
яйце
сосиски
фрукти
грейпфрут
виноград
шинка
оселедець
лимон
диня
молоко
горіхи
олія
цибуля
апельсин
апельсиновий сік

| | |
|------------|----------|
| peach | персик |
| pear | груша |
| pepper | перець |
| pineapple | ананас |
| plum | слива |
| roll, bun | булочка |
| salmon | лосось |
| salt | сіль |
| sausage | ковбаса |
| sour cream | сметана |
| sugar | цукор |
| sweets | цукерки |
| tea | чай |
| tomatoes | помідори |
| vegetables | овочі |
| watermelon | кавун |
| wine | вино |

Travelling by car

How do I get to ...?
How many kilometres to ...?
Am I on the right road to ...?
Here is my driving licence.
Where is the nearest filling station?
How much is one litre petrol?
I need ... litres of petrol.

I would like to have my car washed.
Do you have lubricant?
antifreeze
Please, fill it up.
Where can I have this car fixed?
How much is it?

Подорож автомобілем

Як доїхати до ...?
Скільки кілометрів до ...?
Чи правильно я їду до ...?
Ось мої права.
Де найближча бензозаправна станція?
Скільки коштує один літр бензину?
Мені потрібно ... літрів бензину.
Мені потрібно помити машину.
Чи маєте моторну оливу?
антифриз
Прошу заправити машину.
Де можна відремонтувати машину?
Скільки я вам винен за послуги?

Addressing people

Dear friend!
Dear friends!
Honoured colleagues!
Mr ...
Mrs ...
Miss ...
Ladies and gentlemen!

Greetings

Hello! How do you do?
Good morning! Good
afternoon!
Good evening!
How are you?
Fine, thank you.
Not bad.
So-so.
Glad to meet you.
Good-bye!
See you soon!
Good luck!
Bon voyage!

Звертання

Дорогий друже!
Дорогі друзі!
Шановні колеги!
Пане ...
Пані ...
Панно ...
Пані і панове!

Привітання

Добридень!
Доброго ранку! Доброго
дня!
Добрий вечір!
Як вам ведеться? Як ви?
Дякую, добре.
Непогано.
Так собі.
Радий вас бачити.
До побачення!
До скорої зустрічі!
На все добре! Хай щастить!
Щаслива путь!

Invitations

I would like to invite you ...

to go for a walk

to the restaurant

to the theatre

Thank you.

With pleasure!

I will wait for you at six
o'clock.

Thank you very much.

Thank you.

Thanks so much.

I am very grateful to you.

You're welcome.

Thank you for your attention.

Thank you for your
hospitality.

You are very kind.

Don't mention it.

Could you help me?

Запрошення

Хотів би запросити вас ...

на прогулянку

до ресторану

до театру

Дякую (за запрошення).

Із задоволенням.

Чекатиму на вас о шостій
годині.

Дуже дякую вам.

Дякую.

Щиро дякую.

Я вам вельми вдячний.

Будь ласка.

Дякую за увагу.

Дякую за гостинність.

Ви дуже ласкаві.

Це дрібниця. Не варто й
згадувати.

Ви можете мені допомогти?

Requests

Could you help me, please?

May I?

Please, give me ...

May I come in?

Please, wait for me.

May I smoke?

May I sit here?

Apologies

I am sorry.

I very much regret what happened.

Pardon.

Excuse me, please.

Sorry, I am late.

Please, pardon the disturbance.

Sorry to keep you waiting.

That was my fault.

Please, don't be angry.

I didn't mean to offend you.

Прохання

Чи не змогли б ви мені допомогти?

Можна?

Дайте мені, будь ласка...

Дозвольте увійти?

Зачекайте мене, будь ласка.

Курити можна?

Дозвольте тут сісти?

Пробачення

Шкода. Мені жаль.

Я дуже шкодую, що так сталося.

Пробачте.

Вибачте, будь ласка.

Вибачте, що я запізнився.

Вибачте, що я вас турбую.

Пробачте, що я примусив вас чекати.

Це моя провина.

Не сердьтєся, будь ласка.

Я не хотів вас образити.

Yes. No

Good.
Fine.
Yes, of course.
I agree with you.
Yes, that's true.
Good idea!
You are right.
I think so.
Quite correct.
Yes, I can.
I like it.
No, thank you.
No, it is not so.
No, I cannot. I am sorry.
I don't agree.
Nothing of the kind!
On the contrary!
You are mistaken.
I don't want to ...
Too bad.
It is impossible.

Так. Ні

Добре, гаразд.
Чудово.
Так, звичайно.
Я з вами згоден.
Це справді так.
Чудова думка!
Ви маєте рацію.
Вважаю, що так.
Цілком правильно.
Так, можу.
Це мені подобається.
Ні, дякую.
Ні, це не так.
Ні, я не можу. На жаль.
Я не згоден.
Нічого подібного!
Навпаки!
Ви помиляєтеся.
Я відмовляюся.
Погано, зле.
Не можна, неможливо.

**Congratulations.
Wellwishing**

I (We) congratulate you!

Happy holiday!

Happy birthday!

Happy anniversary!

Happy New Year!

Merry Christmas!

I wish you every success!

I wish you happiness!

I wish you good luck!

Thank you for your congratulations.

Thank you for your attention.

All the best!

Have a nice time!

Best regards to everybody!

Don't forget us!

To friendship!

To co-operation!

**Поздоровлення.
Побажання**

Поздоровляю (Поздоровляємо) вас!

Із святом!

Вітаю із Днем народження!

Поздоровляю з ювілеєм!

З Новим роком!

Веселих Різдвяних свят!

Бажаю успіху!

Бажаю щастя!

Бажаю удачі!

Дякую за поздоровлення.

Дякую за увагу.

Всього найкращого!

Бажаю вам гарно провести час!

Передавайте всім мій щирий привіт.

Не забувайте нас!

За дружбу!

За співпрацю!

Weather

Погода

What is the weather like today? Яка сьогодні погода?

What will the weather be like tomorrow? Яка погода буде завтра?

Today it is

Сьогодні

warm

тепло

hot

спекотно

cold

холодно

It is raining.

Іде дощ.

It is snowing.

Іде сніг.

I am wet to the skin.

Я вимок до нитки.

The roads are icy today.

Сьогодні гололід.

It is very slippery today.

Сьогодні дуже слизько.

The weather is fine.

Погода чудова.

The weather is bad.

Погода погана.

It is windy today.

Сьогодні вітряно.

What is the temperature today?

Яка сьогодні температура повітря?

Plus one degree.

Плюс один градус.

Minus ten degrees.

Мінус десять градусів.

Have you heard the weather-forecast for tomorrow?

Ви не чули прогноз погоди на завтра?

They are expecting

Завтра очікують

rain tomorrow

дощ

snow

сніг

fog

туман

frost

мороз

heat

спеку

Dates. Time

second
minute
hour
day (24 hours)
week
month
year
What is the time?
It is seven o'clock.
Five minutes after nine.
Nine thirty (half past nine).
Five minutes to nine.
Quarter to nine.
Nine o'clock exactly.
About twelve.
Just a minute, please!
Don't be late!
Hurry up, please!
I have no time.
today
yesterday
tomorrow
day after tomorrow
day before yesterday
in the morning
during the day
in the evening
at night
at noon
at midnight

Дати. Час

секунда
хвилина
година
доба
тиждень
місяць
рік
Котра година?
Зараз сьома година.
П'ять хвилин на десяту.
Пів на десяту.
За п'ять дев'ята.
За чверть дев'ята.
Рівно дев'ята.
Близько дванадцятої.
Хвилинку!
Не запізнуйтеся!
Поспішайте!
Я не маю часу.
сьогодні
вчора
завтра
післязавтра
позавчора
вранці
удень
увечері
вночі
опівдні
опівночі

tonight
yesterday morning
last night
tomorrow night
this week
every day
in spring
in summer
in autumn
in winter
right now
long ago
not so long ago
now
in a day
in a few years
two days ago

сьогодні ввечері
вчора вранці
вчора ввечері
завтра вночі
на цьому тижні
кожного дня
навесні
влітку
восени
взимку
зараз же
давно
нещодавно
зараз
через день
через кілька років
дна дні тому

Days of the week

Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
Sunday
on Sunday
on Sundays

Дні тижня

понеділок
вівторок
середа
четвер
п'ятниця
субота
неділя
у неділю
по неділях

Months

January
February
March
April
May
June
July
August
September
October
November
December
in December

Місяці

січень
лютий
березень
квітень
травень
червень
липень
серпень
вересень
жовтень
листопад
грудень
у грудні

Colours

black
brown
blue
dark
darkblue
gold
green
grey
yellow
light
one-coloured
orange
pink
raspberry
red
silver
spotted
violet
white

Кольори

чорний
коричневий
блакитний
темний
синій
золотий
зелений
сірий
жовтий
світлий
однокольоровий
оранжевий
рожевий
малиновий
червоний
срібний
плямистий, в горошок
фіолетовий
білий

Signs

Entrance
Exit
Pull
Push
Closed
No entry
Service entrance
Road closed
Detour
Caution: automobile traffic
Caution
Danger
Parking
Bus (tram) stop
Stop! Don't walk!
Information
No smoking
Smoking section
Toilet
Ladies'
Gentlemen's
Hairdresser's (Barber's shop)
Drugstore
Hours: ... To ...
No swimming
Admission by ticket only
Admission free
Fasten safety belts!
Emergency exit!
Please Do not Disturb

Вивіски і написи

Вхід
Вихід
До себе
Від себе
Зачинено
Вхід (прохід) заборонено
Службовий вхід
Проїзд (прохід) закрито
Об'їзд
Бережись автомобіля
Обережно
Небезпечно
Стоянка
Зупинка автобуса (трамваю)
Стійте!
Довідкове бюро
Курити заборонено
Місце для куріння
Туалет
Для жінок (туалет)
Для чоловіків (туалет)
Перукарня
Аптека
Відчинено від ... до ...
Купатися заборонено
Вхід платний
Вхід безкоштовний (вільний)
Застібніть ремені!
Запасний вихід
Прошу не турбувати!

Question

Who?
What?
How?
Why?
Where?
When?
How much?
Where from?
Which?
In what way?
With whom?
Who is this?
Who's there?
What did you say?
What do you want?
What has happend?
What do you need?
What does this mean?
What time is it?
At what time?
What is your opinion?
Where can I find?
How much?
How many times?
May I?
What is the matter?
Is that right?
Is that really so?
May I ask you to...

Запитання

Хто?
Що?
Як?
Чому?
Де? Куди?
Коли?
Скільки?
Звідки?
Котрий?
Яким чнном?
З ким?
Хто це?
Хто там?
Що ви сказали?
Що ви хочете?
Що сталося?
Що вам потрібно?
Що це означає?
Котра година?
О котрій годині?
Яка ваша думка?
Де я можу знайти...?
Скільки коштує?
Скільки разів?
Дозвольте?
У чому справа?
Це правда?
Це справді так?
Можна попросити у вас...?

Your assistants

If you ask me
I suppose (think)
As far I know
As far as I am concerned
What is the matter?
It doesn't matter
On the whole
And now for
That's all
You are right
I fully agree
You are mistaken
You are wrong
Not at all
Certainly not
It is impossible
On the contrary
Really?
Are you sure?
I doubt it
You'd better
In other words
The point is
Look here
In my view
My goodness!
In my opinion
They say
I mean
It seems to me

Ваші помічники

Якщо ви хочете знати
Я вважаю (я думаю)
Наскільки мені відомо
Що стосується мене
У чому справа?
Це не важливо
У цілому
А зараз перейдемо до
Ось і все
Ви маєте рацію
Я згоден з вами
Ви помиляєтеся
Ви не маєте рації
Зовсім не так
Звичайно ні
Це неможливо
Навпаки
Насправді?
Ви впевнені?
Я сумніваюся
Вам би краще
Інакшу кажучи
Справа в тому
Послухайте
По моєму
Боже мій!
На мою думку
Кажуть
Я маю на увазі
Мені здається

In the Jury Room

- This young prisoner was convicted for the first time, wasn't he?

- Yes, he was.

- I'm not sure that it was he who had committed that crime.

- Do you want to make amendment to the sentence?

- Yes, I do.

- But the accused made a confession.

- I think somebody threatened him.

- I don't agree.

- Well, let's stop discussing. It's time to come to a decision.

- I don't mind.

В залі суду

- Цей молодий в'язень був засудженим вперше?

- Так.

- Я не впевнений, що це він скоїв злочин.

- Ви хочете змінити вирок?

- Так.

- Але ж обвинувачений зізнався.

- Я думаю, хтось йому погрожував.

- Я не згоден.

- Гаразд, не будемо дискутувати. Час приймати рішення.

- Я не заперечую.

Preparing for the Seminar

- Hello! Kate speaking!
- Hello, Kate! This is Jane.
- Jane! I'm glad to hear you!
- What are you doing now?
- I am reading about "Court Structure". Tomorrow we shall have a difficult seminar.

- Oh, that's nice. Come to my place, then. Let's have a good talk over a cup of tea or coffee. I'm not quite ready for the seminar too.

- Oh, no, Jane. I'm sorry, but I am very tired. I'm going to read some more articles and sleep the whole afternoon.

- Oh, I see. Have a good rest then, good-bye!

- Good-by!

Підготовка до семінару

- Привіт! Це Кейт!
- Привіт, Кейт! Це Джейн.
- Джейн! Рада тебе чути!
- Що ти зараз робиш?
- Читаю про "Структуру суду". Завтра у мене важкий семінар.

- О, це добре. Тоді приходь до мене, і ми обговоримо тему за горнятком кави чи чаю. Я ще також не зовсім готова до семінару.

- О ні, Джейн. Перепрошую, але я змучена. Я збираюсь прочитати ще декілька статей і добре поспати в обід.

- А, розумію. Хорошого відпочинку! До побачення!

- До побачення!

The Lecture on Human Rights Лекція з прав людини

- John promised he'd take me to a lecture devoted to Declaration of the human rights.
- When?
- Next week.
- I'm a little skeptical about John's promises.
- Are you? Why?
- Last month he promised he would take me to another lecture "The new ideas of the human rights" but he never did.
- I hope John will do what he promised. I'd like to ask you why you are so interested in human rights?
- I think the problem is important for all the law-governed countries. I have been studying the Universal Declaration for two years. But I think this is not the final word on human rights.
- Certainly. I agree with you.
- Джон обіцяв повести мене на лекцію, присвячену Декларації прав людини.
- Коли?
- Наступного тижня.
- Я дещо скептично ставлюсь до обіцянок Джона.
- Так? Чому?
- Минулого тижня він обіцяв що поведе мене на лекцію "Нові ідею з прав людини", але так і не зробив цього.
- Сподіваюсь, що Джон зробить, що обіцяв. Я би хотів спитати тебе, чому ти так цікавишся правами людини?
- Думаю, проблема є важливою для всіх правових держав. Я вивчаю Універсальну Декларацію прав людини 2 роки, але думаю, що питання ще не є вичерпаним.
- Звичайно, я згоден з тобою.

TEXTS FOR HOME READING Part One

COUNTRIES AND PEOPLE

Ukraine

The Long Road to Independence. Ukraine, the largest state in Europe, appeared on the map of the world in 1991. It was recognized by the international community and more than 100 countries established diplomatic relations with it.

Ukrainian independence is 14 years old, but it has an ancient history. The ancestors of Ukrainians chose this land to live during the Trypilsky period several thousand years ago.

In ancient times today's Ukrainian lands were inhabited by Antes and Rosses, the ancestors of Eastern Slavs.

And it was here, that in the 9th century one of the most powerful states of medieval Europe was founded. This was Kyivska Rus, which included Kyiv, Novgorod, Chernihiv, Halich, and other cities, which was founded by the Kyivites, a large territory from Baltica to the Black Sea and from Zakarpatya to Kuban. This was a period of power and glory. In 988 Prince Volodymyr introduced Christianity as the official state religion. The christening of Kyivska Rus took place in Kyiv on the Dnipro river. Two monks settled in the caves under Kyiv hills in the 11th century. Soon a cave monastery sprang up there. Now it is known in the whole world as Kyivo-Pecherska Lavra. At the time of Kyivska Rus Kyiv was one of the richest and most developed cities in Europe.

The high level of skills of Kyiv craftsmen can be proved by the number of buried treasures found on the territory of the ancient city and by its monuments of architecture and monumental art, such as St. Sophia Cathedral, the Golden Gate of Kyiv, Kyivo-Pecherska Lavra.

However, in 1240, the Tatar-Mongols captured Kyiv. Thousands of people were killed and much of the city was razed. Kyiv fell into a prolonged period of decline. The Tatar-Mongol ruled for almost 3 centuries thereafter. The Kyivska Rus state disintegrated and some of its territory came under the rule of Moscovia.

The world heard about Ukraine again during times of the Cossack Republic – Zaporizka Sich – at the end of the 15th century. The long road to independence by the Ukrainian people began with Cossack military campaigns. In 1648 – 1654, Cossack armies headed by Hetman Bohdan Khmelnytsky waged wars to liberate Ukraine. Faced with ravaging attacks by the armies of Polish and Lithuanian feudists, Bohdan Khmelnytsky sought the protection of the Russian Tzar.

Unfortunately, after this Ukraine plunged into a long period of domination by the Russian Empire.

Kyivo-Mohylyanska Academy founded by the Metropolitan Petro Mohyla in the 17th century, became the 1st East European University. In that period the Ukrainian people were one of the most educated in the world and almost totally literate. Books were printed, philosophy was studied, music, literature and painting flourished. The 1st Constitution appeared in Ukraine at the time of Cossacks (1711).

In January 1918 when the Russian Empire fell, the independence of Ukraine was proclaimed and the Ukrainian People's Republic was created. Mykhaylo Hrushevsky became the 1st President of Ukraine. But at that time Ukrainian statehood was not defended. It is only recently that this became possible.

The Constitution of Ukraine. The Constitution of Ukraine was proclaimed and confirmed on June 28, by Verkhovna Rada. According to it Ukraine is the sovereign, independent, democratic and legal state. Ukraine is a Unitarian state with single citizenship. The state language of Ukraine is Ukrainian. The state symbols of our country are the National Emblem, the National Flag and the National Anthem of Ukraine. The National Emblem is a golden Tryzub on a blue shield. The National Flag is a cloth with two

equal horizontal stripes, the upper coloured blue and the lower golden yellow.

The land, air space, mineral resources, water and other resources are objects of the property right of the Ukrainian people. Ukraine is the republic. The people are the only source of power which is exercised directly and through the bodies of state power and local self-governments. The Constitution of Ukraine establishes the country's political system, freedoms and duties of citizens and is the basis for its laws.

The Structure of Ukrainian Government. Ukrainian powers of government are divided into three branches: the legislative, which consists of the Verkhovna Rada, the executive, headed by the President, and the judicial, which is led by the Supreme Court. The President is the head of Ukraine. He is elected for a term of five years with no more than two full terms.

The Verkhovna Rada's main function is making laws. Law drafting work is performed by its Committees. The Verkhovna Rada adopts the State Budget for the period from January 1 till December 31 and controls the execution of it. The monetary unit of our country is the Hryvnia.

The Cabinet of Ministers is the highest body of the executive power. It carries out the fulfillment of the Constitution, as well as the acts of the President, develops and fulfills national programs on the economic, technological and cultural development of Ukraine. The only body of the legislative power in Ukraine is the Parliament. There are 450 people's deputies. They are elected for a term of four years on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot.

Rights and Duties of the Ukrainian Citizens. According to the Constitution itself every person has the right to the free development of his or her personality, and has obligations before society where free and full development of the personality is assured.

The Constitution guarantee the rights to life, non-interference in private and family life, personal inviolability and the inviolability

of dwelling, free choice of residence, work, rest, education, social security, housing, health protection, medical care and medical insurance, a safe and healthy environment. There are no privileges or restrictions based upon face, colour of skin, political and other beliefs, gender, ethnic and social origin, property, ownership, position, place of residence, language, religion.

Citizens have equal Constitutional rights and freedoms and are equal before law. Citizens of Ukraine perform military services in compliance with the law.

Defense to the Motherland of the independence and territorial integrity of Ukraine, and respect for the state symbols are the duties of citizens. Every person must pay taxes in the order and amount determined by law. No person may damage the environment, cultural heritage.

The Climate of Ukraine. The climate of Ukraine is moderate. Summer is hot and dry with occasional rains and thunderstorms. Winter is rather mild without severe frosts but with snowfalls everywhere. The rivers and lakes freeze in winter. Ukraine is rather a big country, that's why its climate is different in various, regions of it. Of course, the hottest region is in the South. In the central part of the country the climate is moderate and continental. The climate on the territory along the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov is warmer. The Crimean and the Carpathian mountains protect the country from winds. The coldest part is that in the North and in the North-east.

And now let's characterize every season of the year in our country in general. Autumn is warm at the beginning but later it gets colder, it often rains. Winter sets in December with its cold and heavy snowfalls and winds. The average temperature is about 15 – 20 degrees below zero. But it often happens that winters are mild and rainy and this is the most unpleasant time.

In spring the weather is changeable. It may be cold and windy, sunny and rainy on one and the same day. In summer the weather is usually warm, sometimes hot and dry. The temperature is about

25 – 30 degrees above zero. The warmest months are July and August.

They say the climate in Ukraine like anywhere else, is getting milder with every coming year. In the last few years all the scientists agree that something very serious is happening to the climate and weather of Ukraine and the whole world. It depends on many reasons.

The Cossacks. The word „Cossack” means a „free warrior”. Cossacks were a community of soldier-farmers. They used to live in the southern steppes of Ukraine, particularly near the great rivers Dnieper and Don. Usually the son of a Cossack became a Cossack too, but only if he was strong and willing to live the life of a Cossack.

The Dnieper Cossacks were particularly famous. Their main enemies were Tartars. When they were going to war, they would leave the women and children in the hidden villages. The warriors elected their own Ataman, or leader, and they followed and obeyed him so long as he remained a strong leader and led them to victory. He might not be able to read or write, but he must be a good fighter. The Cossacks, above all, were lovers of freedom. Within their own community they were democratic.

The Cossacks were brilliant horsemen as the Tartars were, and they learned many tricks of riding from their enemies. As the Russian Tsars began to get control of more and more of Russia, they were faced with the problem of how to control these wild, independent men, who would not give up any of their freedom. But in 1654 the Cossacks came to an agreement with the Tsar of Moscow. They were allowed to keep their villages and their freedom, but they had to fight whenever the Tsar needed them. After the Russian revolution 1917, many of the Cossacks fought against the Soviet government. But the Cossacks couldn't stand up against a big, modern army. Now, the Cossack regiments have been formed again, but they are no longer the free warrior of earlier times.

Great Britain

The Structure of Government in Great Britain. The Queen is officially head of all the branches of government, but she has little direct power in the country. The constitution has three branches: Parliament, which makes laws, the government, which „executes” laws (puts them into effect) and the courts, which interpret laws. Parliament has two parts: the House of Commons and the House of Lords. Members of the House of Commons are elected by the voters of 650 constituencies. They are known as Members of Parliament. The Prime Minister is advised by a Cabinet of about twenty other ministers.

The Prime Minister, or leader of the Government, is usually the leader of the political party. The Cabinet includes the ministers in charge of major government departments or ministries. Departments and ministries are run by civil servants, who are permanent officials. Even if the Government changes after an election, the same civil servants are employed. Members of the House of Lords are not elected. About 70 per cent of them are „hereditary peers” because their fathers were peers before them. The 30 per cent are officially appointed by the Queen, on the advice of the Government, for various services for people.

Forming a Government. The Cabinet. The party which wins the most seats in the General Election forms the government in Britain. The leader of the winning party becomes Prime Minister. As leaders of their political parties and leaders of the country, Prime Ministers are powerful because they have the majority support in Parliament and they can choose their own ministers and government. The PM chooses a committee of ministers called the Cabinet. This is made up of a selection of senior MPs from the House of Commons and some members of the House of Lords. Each member of the Cabinet is a minister responsible for a government department: for example, the Secretary of State for Education and Science is responsible for all the schools, universities and teachers in Britain. The Cabinet of ministers runs the country. The Cabinet meets at the Prime Minister’s house – 10 Downing Street. The

cabinet works as a team and all ministers must accept the decisions of the „group“. The team of ministers must always agree in public because they are collectively responsible for the decisions they make. If a minister cannot agree with all the others, he usually resigns from the cabinet. Cabinet meetings are held in private and the details must remain secret for at least 30 years.

Margaret Thatcher tried to change this style of the Cabinet and was forced to resign when the other ministers could not agree with her. Cabinet ministers cannot, however, do as they please! They are responsible to Parliament and must answer questions from backbenchers from the House of Commons. Even the Prime Minister must answer questions every Tuesday and Thursday in the Commons – this is called Prime Minister’s Question Time. Everyone wants to know what has been decided behind the closed doors of the Cabinet Room.

Parliament. The Palace of Westminster. Britain is administered from the Palace of Westminster in London. This is also known as the Houses of Parliament. Parliament is made up of two chambers – the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The members of the House of Lords are not elected: they qualify to sit in the House because they are bishops of the Church of England, aristocrats who have inherited their seats from their fathers, people with titles. There has been talk of reform in this century because many Britons think that this system is undemocratic. The House of Commons, by contrast, has 651 seats which are occupied by Members of Parliament (MPs) who are elected by the British public. The United Kingdom is divided into constituencies, each of which has an elected MP in the House of Commons.

Each of the major political parties appoints a representative (candidate) to compete for each seat. Smaller parties may have a candidate in only a few constituencies. There may be five or more parties, fighting for one seat, but only one person – the candidate who gets the greatest number of votes – can win. Some parties win a lot of seats and some win very few, or none at all.

The Queen, who is the Head of State, opens and closes Parliament. All new laws are debated (discussed) by MPs in the Commons, then debated in the Lords, and finally signed by the Queen. All three are part of Parliament in Britain.

British Institutions. Parliament is the most important authority in Britain. Parliament first met in the 13th century. Britain does not have a written constitution, but a set of laws. In 1689 Mary II and William III became the first constitutional monarchs. They could rule only with the support of the Parliament. Technically Parliament is made up of three parts: the Monarch, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The continuity of the English monarchy has been interrupted only once during the Cromwell republic. Succession to the throne is hereditary but only for Protestants in the direct line of descent. Formally the monarch has a number of roles. The monarch is expected to be politically neutral, and should not make political decisions. Nevertheless, the monarch still performs some important executive and legislative duties including opening and dissolving Parliament, signing bills passed by both Houses and fulfilling international duties as head of state. The present sovereign is Queen Elizabeth II who was crowned in Westminster Abbey in 1953.

The House of Lords comprises about 1200 peers. The house is presided over by the Lord Chancellor. The House of Lords has no real power but acts as an advisory council for the House of Commons. As well as having legislative functions, the Lords is the highest court of appeal.

The House of Commons consists of Members of Parliament who are elected by the adult suffrage of the British people in general elections which are held at least every five years. The country is divided into 650 constituencies each of which elects one Member of Parliament. The Commons, therefore, has 650 Members of Parliament. The party which wins the most seats forms the Government and its leader becomes the Prime Minister. The functions of Commons are legislation and security of government activities. The house is presided over by the Speaker. The

government party sits on the Speaker's right while on his left sit the members of the Opposition.

National Emblems of the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom (abbreviated from „The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland” is the political name of the country which consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (sometimes known as Ulster).

Great Britain is the name of the island which is made up of England, Scotland, Wales, whereas the British Isles is the geographical name of all the islands off the north-west coast of the European continent.

In everyday speech „Britain” is used to mean – the United Kingdom.

The flag of the United Kingdom, known as the Union Jack, is made up of three crosses. The upright red cross on a white background is the cross of the 1st George, the patron saint of England. The white diagonal cross on a blue background is the cross of St. Andrew, the patron saint of Scotland. The red diagonal cross on a white background is the cross of St. Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland.

The Welsh flag, called the Welsh dragon, represents a red dragon on a white and green background.

St. George's Day falls on 23 April and is regarded as England's national day. On this day some patriotic Englishmen wear a rose pinned to their jackets. A red rose is the national emblem of England from the time of the Wars of the Roses (15th century).

St. Andrew's Day (the 30th of November) is regarded as Scotland's national day. On this day some Scotsmen wear a thistle in their buttonhole. As a national emblem of Scotland, thistle apparently first used in the 15th century as a symbol of defence. The Order of the Thistle is one of the highest orders of knighthood. It was founded in 1687, and is mainly given to Scottish noblemen (limited to 16 in number).

St. Patrick's Day (the 17th of March) is considered as a national day in Northern Ireland and an official bank holiday there. The

national emblem of Ireland is shamrock. According to legend, it was the plant chosen by St. Patrick to illustrate the Christian doctrine of the Trinity to the Irish.

St. David's Day (the 1st of March) is the church festival of St. David, a 6th-century monk and bishop, the patron-saint of Wales. The day is regarded as the national holiday of Wales, although it is not an official bank holiday.

On this day, however, many Welshmen wear either a yellow daffodil or a leek pinned to their jackets, as both plants are traditionally regarded as national emblems of Wales.

In the Royal Arms three lions symbolize England, a lion rampant – Scotland, and a harp – Ireland. The whole is encircled and is supported by a lion and a unicorn. The lion has been used as a symbol of national strength and of the British monarchy for many centuries. The unicorn, a mythical animal that looks like a horse with a long straight horn, has appeared on the Scottish and British royal coats of arms for many centuries, and is a symbol of purity.

The Royal Family. At present the British royal family is headed by Queen Elizabeth. When the Queen was born on the 21st of April 1926, her grandfather, King George V, was on the throne and her uncle was his heir. The death of her grandfather and the abdication of her uncle brought her father to the throne as King George VI.

As a child she studied constitutional history and law as well as art *and* music. In addition she learned to ride and acquired her enthusiasm for horses. As she grew older she began to take part in public life, making her first broadcast at the age of 14. The marriage of the young Princess Elizabeth to Philip, Duke of Edinburgh took place in November 1947. She came to the throne after her father's death in 1952 and was crowned in Westminster Abbey in June 1953.

Among Queen Elizabeth's many duties are the regular visits she makes to foreign countries, and especially those of the Commonwealth, whose interests and welfare are very important to her. The Queen has allowed the BBC to make a documentary film

about the every day of the royal family. She also started the tradition of the „walkabout”, an informal feature of an otherwise formal royal visit, when she walks among the public crowds and stops to talk to some people.

The annual Christmas broadcast made by the Queen on radio and television has become a traditional and popular feature of the season, and there were widespread celebrations and special programs of events in 1977 to mark her Silver Jubilee.

The Queen’s husband, Duke of Edinburgh, was born in 1926 and served in the Royal Navy. He takes a great deal of interest in industry, in the achievements of young people (he founded Duke of Edinburgh’s Award Scheme in 1956) and in saving raise wild animals from extinction.

The Queen’s heir is Charles, Prince of Wales, who was born in 1948, married Lady Diana Spencer and has two children, Prince William and Prince Harry. The Prince of Wales is well-known as a keen promoter of British interests.

In recent years he has become outspoken on such controversial topics as modern architecture, violence in films and on television, and the standard of English teaching in schools. His wife Diana, Princess of Wales (often called in mass media Princess Di), won the affection of many people by her modesty, shyness and beauty. Unfortunately, she died in a car accident in August, 1997.

The Queen’s other children are Princess Anne (born in 1950), Prince Andrew (born in 1960) and Prince Edward (born in 1964). Anne, Princess Royal, has acquired a reputation for being arrogant, but in recent years has become quite popular with the general public.

The Queen is widely known for her interest in horses and horse-racing. She is now president of the Save the Children Fund, Chancellor of the University of London and carries out many public engagements.

Prince Andrew, Duke of York, served as a helicopter pilot in the Royal Navy. In 1986 he married Miss Sarah Ferguson (Fergie, for short) and has two daughters. Prince Edward is keen on the theatre.

This interest began while he was at university. He quit the Royal Marines, and is now pursuing a career with a theatrical company. The Queen Mother, the widow of the late King George VI, celebrated her one hundred birthday in 2000 and died in 2002. The Queen's only sister, Princess Margaret, Countess of Snowdon, is well-known for her charity work.

Diana — the People's Princess. Diana Spencer was born on the first of July 1961 in Sandringham in England. She had two older sisters and a younger brother. In childhood she liked games, swimming, running and dancing. She wanted to become a dancer. Besides she loved children very much and at the age of sixteen she worked in schools for very young children.

Diana became princess, when Prince Charles, the Queen's son, asked her to be his wife and they got married. They seemed to be a happy couple at first. They had two sons. They travelled a lot they worked a lot, they visited many countries together. But Diana was not quite happy because they did different things and Charles didn't understand her.

Why was Diana the most famous, the most beautiful, the most photographed woman in the world? Why did she win the hearts of millions and millions of people in many countries? Why did so many people come to London to remember her when she died? Why did the car accident which took her life become such a total shock to crowds of people? Why did people feel the need to be in London at the funeral? Why did the tears and love at the funeral move the world?

The answer is so simple. Matthew Wall, a student at St. Michael's College in Burlington said: „She was such a lovely lady. She did so much for those people less fortunate than herself”.

She was a kind woman. Hundreds of people talked about Diana's kindnesses. She liked ordinary people, though she was rich and had many rich friends. Wherever she was, she was always ready to lend a hand. She was devoted to the sick and the poor. She visited hospitals for people with AIDS and for lepers and wasn't afraid to touch them, talk to them, listen to them. She worked on children's

charities, and had teamed up with Hillary Clinton in an effort to ban landmines. And it's not only money that she wanted to give people. She wanted to give them a part of her soul, to make them happy because she was unhappy herself. She wanted to give them love, because she needed love herself.

Rock stars (Sting, Elton John), pop singer George Michael, film stars and producers (Tom Hanks, Steven Spielberg, Nicole Kidman, Tom Cruise) and other famous people were among her friends. But she had more friends among ordinary people.

Diana was seen many times in floods of tears, because of the pressures of her loveless 15-year marriage. It is not a secret that Diana was hounded and humiliated to the point of mental breakdown and was able to pull through only because she knew she had the love of the people to buoy her in her darkest hours.

She was, indeed, the People's Princess.

Margaret Thatcher. Margaret Thatcher (Margaret Robins) was born in 1925. Her father had a grocer's shop but he was also very interested in local politics. Margaret was a good student and won a scholarship to Oxford to study chemistry. Then she worked as a research chemist until she met and married Denis Thatcher, a successful businessman. Then she decided to study law. She was already involved in politics and gave up law when she was elected to the Parliament in 1959. From 1970 to 1974 she was Secretary of State for Education. In 1975 she became leader of the Conservative Party which was the Opposition. In 1979 she beat the Labour Party and took office as Prime Minister, Britain's first woman Prime Minister.

Thatcher privatized publicly-owned industries and made cuts in state education, hospitals and welfare benefits. In early 1980's, Britain was facing unemployment, inflation, problems of Northern Ireland. In 1982, Britain became involved in an undeclared war against Argentina in the Falkland Islands. After the victory in the Falklands, she had an image of a strong, authoritative leader. In the 1983 election campaign, she won with a large majority of votes. In 1987 she won her third term as Prime Minister defeating the

Labour Party which suffered from loss of votes due to the newly formed alliance with Liberal.

On November 22, 1990, Mrs. Thatcher resigned. The „Iron Lady” who believed it was her destiny to reshape the British nation shed tears as she made the historic announcement. Three men were candidates for the post of Prime Minister. John Major was to win.

Wigs and Lawyers. English legal dress has a long history. The introduction of wigs into polite society in the reign of Charles II (1660 – 1685) was an innovation which could not be resisted. After a period of disapproval, wigs were generally assumed by lawyers in 1680’s. Before the 17th century lawyers did not wear wigs. But professional discipline required that their hair and beards should be moderately short. By the middle of the 17th century wigs of powdered white or grey hair were the universal custom. But during George III’s reign (1760 – 1820) wigs went rapidly put of general use. Although bishops were given royal permission to abandon their wigs in 1830, this was not necessarily true of other officials. There is a story that one Lord was refused permission to leave off his wig at court. In 1860 the councils were permitted to remove their wigs during a heatwave. This attracted some comment in the press and it was suggested that wigs were abandoned altogether by the legal profession. However the proposal met with little support, though it has been a common occurrence ever since for judges to allow wigs to be left, off in very, hot weather, and sometimes turbans are allowed to be worn instead of wigs on religious grounds. Early wigs are difficult to identify in portraits of the period because, they were of a natural colour and were sometimes combined with a lock of growing hair at the forehead. However, wigs soon became large and increasingly stylized.

The United States of America

The Discovery of America. America was founded by Columbus in 1492. Columbus fled to this country because of persecution by Ferdinand and Isabella, who refused to believe the world was round. Before Columbus reached America he cried „Ceylon!

Ceylon!” because he wanted to see India. When he arrived, he cried again. This time he cried „I have found it”.

Columbus was mistaken in thinking he had reached India. There is still a great deal of confusion about the East and the West. As Columbus discovered, if you go west long enough you find yourself in the east and vice versa. In the New World most of the eastern half of the country is called the Middle West although it is known as the East by those who live in the Far West.

Columbus, who was as confused as anybody who has been at sea for a long time, called the first people he saw „Indians”.

The US Government. After its 200th birthday the United States of America still holds the leading position in the western world. A country that has inspired many names – „Land of Opportunity”, „Meeting Pot”, „God’s Country” is still referred to as land of superlatives – „the richest”, „the greatest”, „the most”.

In size the United States is not the biggest. What makes the USA the leader of the western world is its economic, political and military dominance over other countries.

The United States is a parliamentary republic. The Government is divided into 3 branches: legislative (the US Congress), executive (the President and his Administration) and judicial (the US Supreme Court).

There are two main political parties in the USA: the Democratic (symbolize by a „donkey”) and the Republican (symbolized by an „elephant”). The US president is both head of State and of government. He is elected for a 4-year term.

The Supreme Court consists of Chief Justice and 8 Associate Justices who are appointed for life. The Supreme Court is supposed to decide whether a law of the Congress or an executive order of the President is „Constitutional or not”.

The US Congress. The Congress of the United States is composed of two houses: the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate represents the states. Each state is guaranteed at least one representative in the House. The remainder are apportioned among the states according to their population. The Senate of US is

composed of one hundred members – two being elected from each state. Senators are chosen for six years, one-third retiring or seeking is re-elected every two years. Two senators from the same state never finish their terms at the same time, one of them is called „Senior Senator” and the other – „Junior Senator”.

The presiding officer of the Senate is the Vice-President of the United States. The Vice-President is not a member of the chamber over which he presides and he sometimes is not a member of the party in power.

The work of the US Congress is done mostly in different committees. The most important of the Senate committees are Appropriations Foreign Relations, Finance, Armed Services.

In the House of Representatives the most important are Rules, Appropriations, Ways and Means, Judiciary, Agriculture.

The chairmen of the standing committees are considered the real rulers of the Senate and the House of Representatives.

American Symbols. The American flag is often called „The Stars and Stripes”, it is also called „Old Glory”. It represents the growth of the nation. It has 13 horizontal stripes, 7 red and 6 white which stand for the original 13 states. In the top left hand corner there are 50 white stars on a blue background: one star for each state. The national anthem of the United States is „The Star Spangled Banner”. The words written during the Anglo-American war of 1812 – 1814 and set to the music of an old song. Every state has its own flag, its own emblem and its own anthem too.

The eagle became the national emblem of the country in 1782. It has an olive branch (a symbol of peace) and arrows (a symbol of strength). You can see the eagle on the back of a dollar bill.

The Statue of Liberty is the symbol of American democracy. It stands on Liberty Island in New York. It is one of the first thing’s people see when they arrive in New York by sea. This National Monument was a present from Prance to the USA. France gave the statue to America in 1884 as a symbol of friendship. Liberty carries the torch of freedom – in her right hand. In her left hand she is

holding a tablet with the inscription „July 4, 1776” – American Independence Day.

George Washington. George Washington (1732 – 1799) won a lasting place in American History as the „Father of our Country”. For nearly twenty years he guided his country much as a father cares for a growing child.

Washington lived an exciting life in exciting times. As a boy, he explored the wilderness. When he grew older, he helped the British fight the French and Indians. Many times he was nearly killed. As a general he suffered hardships with his troops in the cold winters. He lost many battles, but led the American Army to final victory. After he became President, he successfully solved many problems facing his country.

Washington belonged to an old colonial family that believed in hard work, in public service and in worshipping God. George Washington was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, on a farm, on February 22, 1732. His first American ancestor came to Virginia from England in 1657. Farming, land buying, trading, milling, and the iron industry were the means by which the family rose in the world. George’s father, Augustine, had four children by his first wife and six by his second wife, Mary Ball, George’s mother.

Of George’s early life little is known. His formal education was slight: no more than 7 or 8 years of school. Men, plantation life and the haunts of river, field and forest were his principal teachers. His favourite subject was arithmetic. He studied enough history and geography to know something of the outside world. But he never learned very much about literature, foreign languages and history.

At the age of 14 he began to work as a surveyor, making many trips into the wilderness areas of Virginia and Pennsylvania. His first military experience came in the French and Indian War (1754 – 1763), when he was sent on two missions deep into the Ohio county.

In 1759 Washington retired and married Martha Dandridge, a rich widow. He became a loving stepfather to Martha's two children. He was a progressive farmer of that time.

In 1760's the American colonists grew angrier and angrier at the taxes placed on them by Great Britain. In September 1771 the Continental Congress met, where Washington had his first chance to meet and talk with leaders of other colonies. The members were impressed with his judgement and military knowledge. He was sent to attend the Second Continental Congress (1775) where he was elected a commander-in-chief of the Continental Army. He proved himself a capable commander of the War of Independence.

In 1787 Washington was chosen president of the Continental Convention and later elected first president of the republic (1789), followed by reelection (1792).

George Washington died after an illness of two days on December 14, 1799.

No other American has been honored more than Washington. The nation's capital, Washington D. C., was named after him. There the giant Washington Monument stands. The state of Washington is the only state named after President. Many cities, parks, streets, bridges, lakes, and schools bear his name. Washington's portrait appears on postage stamps, on the \$1 bill, and on the quarter.

Abraham Lincoln. Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth President of the United States. He was born in Kentucky in 1809, in the family of a very poor farmer. When Lincoln was a boy, he worked on the farm all days long. He did not go to school. He taught himself to read and write. Later Lincoln studied law and became a lawyer. After that he became a politician.

Everybody liked Abraham Lincoln because he was intelligent and hardworking. Lincoln was very ambitious. He wanted to be good at everything he did. He said that he wanted to win the „race of life“. He was kind and honest. People called him „Honest Abe“.

Lincoln became President in 1860. In 1861 there was a war between the North and the South of the United States. The people of the South wanted a separate government from the United States.

The people of the North wanted the United States to stay together as one country. Lincoln was the leader of the North. In the war brother killed brother. The Civil War was four years long.

The North won the Civil War. The War ended on April 9, 1865. Six, days later President Lincoln and his wife went to the theatre. In the theatre a man went behind the President and shot him in the head. The man's name was John Wilkes Booth. He was a supporter of the South. Lincoln died the next morning.

Independence Day. On July 4 the Americans celebrate their national holiday – Independence Day. The United States gained independence as a result of gradual and painful process. By the mid 1700's, it became difficult for thirteen British colonies in the New World to be ruled by a king 3000 miles across the ocean. The British Empire imposed high taxes upon the colonies.

In 1774, the First Continental Congress drew up a list of grievances against the British crown. This document was the first draft of the document that would formally separate colonies from England. In 1775, the Revolutionary War began. On July 2, 1776, the Second Continental Congress presented a second draft of the list of grievances. On July 4 the Continental Congress approved the Declaration of independence. But the War of independence lasted until 1783. After the war Independence Day became an official holiday.

On July 4, Americans have holiday from work. People have day-long picnics with favorite foods like hot dogs, ham-burgers, potato salad, baked beans. Lively music is heard everywhere. People play baseball or compete at three-legged races or pie-eating or watermelon-eating contests. Some cities have parades with people dressed as the original founding fathers who march to the music of high school bands. In the evening people gather to watch firework displays. Wherever Americans are around the globe they will get together to celebrate Independence Day.

New York City. New York is the largest city in the United States. More than seven million people live there. New York has very tall buildings like the Empire State Building. New York is the biggest port in the world. Thousands of ships come to the port of New York

each year. It has *Macy's*, one of the biggest stores in the world. New York also has the largest lady in the world – the Statue of Liberty.

New York is a very cosmopolitan city. People from many countries came to live here. Three-quarters, or 75 per cent, of the people of New York City belong to each of the five groups: the Blacks, the Jews, the Italians, the Puerto Ricans, and the Irish. The other quarter, or 25 per cent, comes from other countries of the world.

New York City is the centre for culture in the United States. It has the finest museums and best art galleries in the country. If you want to see a play, there are many theatres you can go to on Broadway. The street called Broadway is the centre of theatre life in the United States.

People call New York City the „Big Apple”. Jazz musicians in the 1920's gave New York this name. Today New York is still the US centre of art and business.

San Francisco. San Francisco is a special place, very different from most American cities. It lies on a small finger of land with the Pacific Ocean on one side and a huge harbour on the other. San Francisco's population is only about 700 000 but it is the biggest business center in the west of the USA. It is also America's most international city with newspapers in thirty different languages. The city is known as „the Paris of the West”.

Most people enjoy the climate in San Francisco. It's never too hot and never really cold. The sea winds are healthy and they make you hungry. And it's good to be hungry in San Francisco because the food is fabulous with more than 2600 restaurants serving food from all over the world. There are at least three small cities in San Francisco: „Little Italy”, with its pizzerias and restaurants, „Chinatown” with wonderful shops and exciting food and „Japantown”. And everywhere you go you will see boats out on the sea, smell fresh and salt and feel the sea wind on your face.

If you live in San Francisco you get plenty of exercise, because it's a city of hills. Perhaps that's why the famous cable cars are so popular. And of course the views from the hills are spectacular.

TEXTS FOR HOME READING

Part Two

LAW

Law is the set of enforced rules under which a society is governed. Law is one of the most basic social institutions – and one of the most necessary. No society could exist if all people did just as they pleased, without regard for the rights of others. Nor could a society exist if its members did not recognize that they also have certain obligations toward one another. The law thus establishes the rules that define a person’s rights and obligations. The law also sets penalties for people who violate these rules, and it states how government shall enforce the rules and penalties. However, the laws enforced by government can be changed. In fact, laws frequently are changed to reflect changes in a society’s needs and attitudes.

In most societies, various government bodies, especially police agencies and courts, see that the laws are obeyed. Because a person can be penalized for disobeying the law, most people agree that laws should be just. Justice is a moral standard that applies to all human conduct. The laws enforced by government have usually had a strong moral element, and so justice has generally been one of the law’s guiding principles. But governments can, and sometimes do, enforce laws that many people believe to be unjust. If this belief becomes widespread, people may lose respect for the law and may even disobey it. However, in democratic societies, the law itself provides ways to amend or abolish these unjust laws.

This article discusses the main branches of law, the world’s major legal systems, and the methods that democracies use to change their laws. The article also traces the development of law, examines current issues in United States law, and discusses law as a career.

Branches of Law

Law can be divided into two main branches: (1) private law and (2) public law. Private law deals with the rights and obligations people have in their relations with one another. Public law concerns the rights and obligations people have as members of society and as citizens. Both private law and public law can be subdivided into several branches. However, the various branches of public and private law are closely related, and in many cases they overlap.

Private law is also called civil law. It determines a person's legal rights and obligations in many kinds of activities that involve other people. Such activities include everything from borrowing or lending money to buying a home or signing a job contract.

The great majority of lawyers and judges spend most of their time dealing with private-law matters. Lawyers handle most of these matters out of court. But numerous situations arise in which a judge or jury must decide if a person's private-law rights have been violated. More than 10 million such cases are filed in United States courts each year. These cases are called lawsuits or civil suits.

Private law can be divided into six major branches; according to the kinds of legal rights and obligations involved. These branches are (1) contract and commercial law, (2) tort law, (3) property law, (4) inheritance law, (5) family law, and (6) corporation law. The dividing line between the various branches is not always clear, however. For example, many cases of property law also involve contract law.

Contract and commercial law deals with the rights and obligations of people who make contracts. A contract is an agreement between two or more persons that can be enforced by law. A wide variety of business activities depend on the use of contracts. A business firm makes contracts both with other firms, such as suppliers and transporters, and with private persons, such as customers and employees.

Tort law. A tort is a wrong or injury that a person suffers because of someone else's action. The action may cause bodily harm;

damage a person's property, business, or reputation; or make unauthorized use of a person's property. The victim may sue the person or persons responsible. Tort law deals with the rights and obligations of the persons involved in such cases. Many torts are unintentional, such as damages in traffic accidents. But if a tort is deliberate and involves serious harm, it may be treated as a crime.

Property law governs the ownership and use of property. Property may be real, such as land and buildings or personal, such as an automobile and clothing. The law ensures a person's right to own property. However the owner must use the property lawfully. People also have the right to sell or lease their property and to buy or rent the property of others. Property law determines a person's rights and obligations involved in such dealings.

Inheritance law, or succession law, concerns the transfer of property upon the death of the owner. Nearly every country has basic inheritance laws, which list the relatives or other persons who have first rights of inheritance. But in most Western nations, people may will their property to persons other than those specified by law. In such cases, inheritance law also sets the rules for the making of wills.

Family law determines the legal rights and obligations of husbands and wives and of parents and children. It covers such matters as marriage, divorce, adoption, and child support.

Corporation law governs the formation and operation of business corporations. It deals mainly with the powers and obligations of management and the rights of stockholders. Corporation law is often classed together with contract and commercial law as business law.

Public law involves government directly. It defines a person's rights and obligations in relation to government. Public law also describes the various divisions of government and their powers.

Public law can be divided into four branches: (1) criminal law, (2) constitutional law, (3) administrative law, and (4) international law. In many cases, the branches of public law, like those of

private law, overlap. For example, violation of administrative law may also be a violation of criminal law.

Criminal law deals with crimes – that is, actions considered harmful to society. Crimes range in seriousness from disorderly conduct to murder. Criminal law defines these offenses and sets the rules for the arrest, the possible trial, and the punishment of offenders. Some crimes are also classed as torts because the victim may sue for damages under private law.

In the majority of countries, the central government makes most of the criminal laws. In the United States, each state, as well as the federal government, has its own set of criminal laws. However, the criminal laws of state must protect the rights and freedoms guaranteed by federal constitutional law.

Constitutional law. A constitution is a set of rules and principles that define the powers of a government and the rights of the people. The principles outlined in a constitution form the basis of constitutional law. The law also includes official rulings on how the principles of a nation's constitution are to be interpreted and carried out.

Most nations have a written constitution. A major exception is Great Britain. The British constitution is unwritten. It consists of all the documents and traditions that have contributed to Britain's form of government. In most democracies, the national constitution takes first place over all other laws. In the United States, the federal Constitution has force over all state constitutions as well as over all other national and state laws.

Conflict between a constitution and other laws are settled by constitutional law. In the United States, the courts have the power of judicial review, under which they may overturn any laws that are judged to be unconstitutional. A law is declared unconstitutional if the court determines that it violates the United States Constitution or a state constitution. The United States Supreme Court is the nation's highest court of judicial review.

Administrative law centers on the operations of government agencies. Administrative law ranks as one of the fastest growing and most complicated branches of the law.

National, state or provincial, and local governments set up many administrative agencies to do the work of government. Some of these agencies regulate such activities as banking, communications, trade, and transportation. Others deal with such matters as education, public health, and taxation. Still other agencies administer social welfare programs, such as old age and unemployment insurance. In most cases, the agencies are established in the executive branch of government under powers granted by the legislature.

Administrative law consists chiefly of (1) the legal powers that are granted to administrative agencies by the legislature and (2) the rules that the agencies make to carry out their powers. Administrative law also includes court rulings in cases between the agencies and private citizens.

International law deals with the relationships among nations both in war and in peace. It concerns trade, communications, boundary disputes, methods of warfare, the uses of the ocean, and many other matters, laws to regulate international relations have been developed over the centuries by customs and treaties. But international law, unlike other branches of law, is difficult to enforce.

Systems of Law

Every independent country has its own legal system. The systems vary according to each country's social traditions and form of government. But most systems can be classed as either (1) a common-law system or (2) a civil-law system. The United States, Canada, Great Britain, and other English-speaking countries have a common-law system. Most other countries have a civil law system. Many countries combine features of both systems.

Common-law systems are based largely on case law – that is, on court decisions. The common law system began in England many

hundreds of years ago. The English called their system the common law because it applied throughout the land.

English common law developed from the rules and principles that judges traditionally followed in deciding court cases. Judges based their decisions on legal precedents – that is, on earlier court rulings in similar cases. But judges could expand precedents to make them suit particular cases. They could also overrule (reject) any precedents that they considered to be in error or outdated. In this way, judges changed many laws over the years. The common law thus came to be law made by judges.

However, some common-law principles proved too precious to change. For example, a long line of hard-won precedents defended the rights and liberties of citizens against the unjust use of government power. England – and the other common-law countries – have kept these principles almost unchanged. The United States, Canada, and other countries that were colonized by England based their national legal systems on the common law. In addition, every state in the United States except Louisiana and every Canadian province except Quebec adopted a common-law system. Louisiana and Quebec were colonized by France, rather than England, and their legal systems are patterned after the French civil-law system.

Case law is still important in common law countries. However, the lawmaking role of legislatures in these countries has increased greatly during the 1900's. For example, the United States Congress has made major changes in American contract and property law. The changes have dealt, for example, with such matters as labor-management relations, workers' wages and hours, health, safety, and environmental protection. Nevertheless, common-law countries have kept the basic feature of the English legal system, which is the power of judges to make laws. In addition, constitutional law in these countries continues the common-law tradition of defending the people's rights and liberties.

Civil-law systems are based mainly on statutes (legislative acts). The majority of civil law countries have assembled their statutes into one or more carefully organized collections called codes.

Most modern law codes can be traced back to the famous code that was commissioned by the Roman Emperor Justinian I in the A.D. 500's. Justinian's code updated and summarized the whole of Roman law. It was called the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, meaning Body of Civil law. For this reason, legal systems that are based on the Roman system of statute and code law are known as civil law systems. This use of the term civil law should not be confused with its use as an alternate term for private law. Civil-law systems include both private law and public law.

In civil law countries, which include France and Mexico, the statutes, rather than the courts, provide the final answer to any question of law. Judges may refer to precedents in making their decisions. But they must base every decision on a particular statute and not on precedent alone.

Other systems. Many countries have patterned their legal system after both civil law and common law. For example, Japan and most Latin-American nations have assembled all their private law into a code. But public law in these countries has been greatly influenced by common-law principles, especially those that guarantee the rights and liberties of the people.

How Laws Are Changed

Social conditions continually change, and so the law must also change or become outdated. Every nation changes its laws in the manner that its political system prescribes. In a dictatorship, only the top government leaders can change the law. Democracies, however, have developed four main methods of changing the law: (1) by court decision, (2) by legislation, (3) by administrative action, and (4) by direct action of the people.

By court decision. Judges in common-law countries change many laws by expanding or overruling precedents. Especially in the United States, judges often overrule precedents to bring the law into line with changing social conditions. In 1896, for example, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld a law that provided for „separate but equal” public facilities for blacks and whites. But in 1954 the

Supreme Court ruled that racial segregation in public schools is unconstitutional.

By legislation. Legislatures may change laws as we as make them. A legislature can change a statute by amending it; by repealing (canceling) it; or by passing a new law on the same subject. In most countries with a written constitution, some form of legislative action is required to amend the constitution.

By administrative action. Government agencies may be authorized to amend, repeal, or replace the regulations they make. In addition, they may be authorized to interpret an old regulation to meet changing conditions.

By direct action of the people. Some national and many local governments give the people direct power to change the law by referendum and by initiative. In a referendum, a law or a proposed law is submitted to the voters for their approval or rejection. In an initiative, a group of citizens proposes a law, which is then approved or rejected by the legislature or by referendum. Many countries – and most states in the United States – have repealed their constitution one or more times and replaced it with a new one. In most such cases, the new constitution cannot take effect until it has been approved by referendum.

The Development of Law

Civilized societies are so complex that they could not exist without a well-developed system of law. Scholars therefore conclude that people began to formulate laws in prehistoric times, before the first civilizations arose. Prehistoric people had no system of writing, and so they left no record of their laws. The earliest laws were customary laws – that is, laws established by custom and handed down orally from one generation to the next.

The first civilizations and first systems of writing appeared between about 3500 and 3000 B.C. The invention of writing enabled people to assemble law codes. The development of written codes made the law a matter of public knowledge and so helped

advance the rule of law in society. The first law codes were produced by ancient civilizations in the Middle East.

Early developments in the East. The first known law codes appeared in the ancient Middle Eastern land of Babylonia. A Babylonian king named Ur-Nammu assembled the earliest known code about 2100 B.C. Other Babylonian rulers produced codes during the following centuries. A king named Hammurabi drew up the most complete and best known of these codes during the 1700's B.C. Hammurabi's code, like the earlier ones, consisted mainly of a long list of rules to settle specific types of cases. The code laid down the law for such matters as the unfaithfulness of a wife, the theft of a farm animal and the faulty work of a housebuilder. Many of the punishments were harsh by today's standards. For example, a son found guilty of striking his father had his hand cut off.

From about 1000 to 400 B.C., the Israelites of the Middle East assembled their religious and social laws into a code. The code reflected the teachings of Moses, a great Israelite leader of the 1200's B.C., and so it is often called the Mosaic Code or the Law of Moses. The Mosaic Code stressed moral principles. It became a key part of the first books of the Hebrew Bible and later of the Christian Bible. According to the Bible, the part of the code known as the Ten Commandments was given to Moses by God. The commandments therefore have had enormous influence on the moral content of the law in Western civilization.

By about 500 B.C., the civilizations of India and China had also produced codes of law. The codes in both countries stressed the moral obligations of the law. However, except for the religious laws of the Hebrew people, the legal traditions of Eastern civilizations have had little direct influence on today's major systems of law. Many Eastern peoples, even those influenced by Western traditions, still stress the moral obligations of the law. Accused persons have little opportunity to defend themselves. Concern for the rights of an accused person – and for the rights of all citizens – developed mainly in Western civilization. But this

development occurred slowly over many hundreds of years. Most scholars regard the ancient Greeks as the founders of both Western law and Western civilization.

The influence of ancient Greece. Unlike earlier civilizations, the civilization of ancient Greece made the law a clearly human institution. Before the Greeks, most people believed that only gods and goddesses had the power to make laws. The gods and goddesses gave the laws to certain chosen leaders. These leaders passed them on to the people. Like earlier peoples, the ancient Greeks believed that gods and goddesses required human beings to obey the law. But the Greeks also believed that human beings have the power to make laws – and to change them as the need arises. The Greek city-state of Athens became the chief center of this development. A politician named Draco drew up Athens' first law code in 621 B.C. It became famous mainly for its harsh penalties for lawbreakers. In the 590's B.C., the ruling council of Athens authorized a high-ranking official named Solon to reform the city's legal and political system. Solon repealed most of Draco's stern laws and drew up a much fairer code in their place. Solon also made the Athenian assembly more representative and increased its lawmaking powers. In time, elected assemblies of citizens gained more and more legislative power in Athens. The Greeks thus began another key development of Western civilization – the founding of democratic government. However, as many as a third of the people of Athens were slaves. The Athenians, like other ancient peoples, denied slaves the legal rights of citizens.

The Greeks believed strongly in the importance of law. They considered respect for the law to be the mark of the good citizen. The great Athenian philosopher and teacher Socrates became the supreme example of this belief. The court sentenced Socrates to death in 399 B.C. for teaching Athenian youths to question the authority of the law. Socrates knew that he was innocent. But he accepted his sentence in order to show his respect for the law.

Ancient Roman law. Ancient law reached its peak under the Romans. Roman law included all the main branches of public and

private law that exist today. In fact, the scientific classification of the law began with the Romans. The Romans designed their laws not only to govern the people of Rome but also to build and hold together a vast empire. By the early A.D. 100's, the Roman Empire included much of Europe and the Middle East and most of northern Africa.

Early Roman times. The first known Roman law code, called the Laws of the Twelve Tables, was written about 450 B.C. It set down the chief customary laws of the Roman people in a form that was easy to remember. For hundreds of years, Roman boys had to memorize the code as part of their schoolwork.

The principles expressed in the Twelve Tables long remained the basis of Roman law. But the Romans gradually amended these principles to meet changing social conditions. After 367 B.C., a high public official called a praetor made the chief amendments. Each year, the praetor issued an edict (public order) that made any necessary changes. After 27 B.C., the Roman emperor could make or change laws as he wished. Eventually, the whole body of Roman law became extremely complex. The task of interpreting this great mass of laws fell to a group of highly skilled lawyers called *juris prudentes*, a Latin term for experts in law. Since that time, the science of law has been known as jurisprudence.

For many years, Romans and non-Romans within the empire were governed under different sets of laws. Roman citizens were governed under the *jus civile* (civil law). The Romans developed a special set of laws, called the *jus gentium* (law of the nations), to rule the peoples they conquered. They based these laws on principles of justice that they believed applied to all people. Such principles are known as natural law.

However, neither the *jus civile* nor the *jus gentium* granted any legal rights to slaves. Under Roman law, only Roman citizens could own property, make contracts and wills, and sue for damages. Slaves were not citizens, and so they had none of these rights. As the Romans developed the idea of natural law, however, they recognized that slaves had human rights that should be

respected. Roman law thus began to require that slaves be treated fairly and decently.

Late Roman times. The belief in natural law also led to the idea that non-Romans within the empire should have the same rights as citizens. In A.D. 212, the Romans granted Roman citizenship to most of the peoples they had conquered, except slaves. The *jus civile* then became the law of the entire empire.

However, the principles of natural law set down in the *jus gentium* remained part of Roman law. These principles were important to future generations because they led to the belief in equal rights for all citizens. But hundreds of years passed before people fully developed the principles of equality that were outlined by the Romans. Once the principles had been developed, they contributed to the building of democratic governments in the United States, France, and many other countries.

Beginning with Julius Caesar, a long line of Roman rulers had tried to organize all the empire's laws into an orderly code. Emperor Justinian I finally completed this task. Justinian's code, the famous *Corpus Juris Civilis* (Body of Civil Law), went into effect in 529 and 534. It covered the whole field of law so completely and so skillfully that it later became the model for the first modern law codes. Even today, the codes of most civil-law countries are based on Roman law.

The Middle Ages. In 395, the Roman Empire split into two parts – the West Roman Empire and the East Roman, or Byzantine, Empire. The West Roman Empire which had its capital in Rome, fell to invading German tribes in the late 400s. The empire's fall marked the start of the 1,000-year period known as the Middle Ages. The East Roman Empire, which had its capital in Constantinople (now Istanbul), escaped the invasions. In 527, Justinian I became the ruler of the eastern empire, and his great code of Roman law was mainly enforced there. In Western Europe, most of the legal and cultural institutions developed by the Romans gradually died out.

However, Roman law survived in the West as the basis for canon law – the legal system developed by the Roman Catholic Church. Most Europeans during the Middle Ages were Catholics, and so canon law had a powerful influence on their lives.

The Germanic tribes that overthrew the West Roman Empire had their own law codes, which they introduced into the regions they conquered. But these codes were undeveloped compared with Roman law. They consisted chiefly of long lists of fines for specific offenses, such as stealing a neighbor's ox or dog.

By the 800's, Europeans had developed a political and military system known as feudalism. Under feudalism, people owed allegiance to individual lords rather than to a central government. A lord enforced the law in his territory and granted protection to the people who served in his armies and who lived and worked on his land. The legal system of the Middle Ages was largely based on this relationship between lords and the people who depended on them.

In particular, feudal law spelled out the duties that people owed to their lord. But a lord could not demand more than the law allowed. The people thus had a right to refuse any demands by their lord that went beyond the limits of the law. Europeans later used this principle to resist monarchs who claimed too much power. The principle thus played an important role in the struggle for democracy in Europe.

Feudal law remained the basic law in Western Europe until about 1300. By then, Western Europeans had begun to establish improved legal systems. However, this development differed greatly between the countries of mainland Europe and the island country of England.

Developments in mainland Europe. The economy of Western Europe began to grow rapidly during the 1000's. As commerce and industry increased, they created a need for a set of laws that was more complex and varied than feudal law. Scholars believed that ancient Roman law could meet this need. Beginning about 1100, the University of Bologna in northern Italy trained law students

from many parts of Europe in the principles of *Corpus Juris Civilis*. Interest in the code soon spread to other European universities. Roman law thus gradually began to replace feudal law throughout mainland Europe.

Developments in England. England already had a strong, unified legal system by the 1200's, when Roman law was beginning to spread across Europe. As a result, England did not adopt the Roman system.

England's legal system had grown out of the country's. English courts had long based their decisions on the customs of the English people. But customs varied from district to district. As a result, similar cases were often judged differently in different districts. In the early 1100's, however, strong English kings began to set up a nationwide system of royal courts. Judges in these courts applied the same rulings in all similar cases. In this way, the courts soon established a body of common law – that is, law which applied equally anywhere in England. Judges could change the law as the nation's needs and customs changed, but any change applied in all common-law courts.

As English common law developed over the years, it established many precedents that limited the powers of government and protected the rights of the people. These precedents made even the monarch subject to the law. The common law thus assisted the growth of democracy in England. The right known as *habeas corpus* was one of the chief common-law safeguards of personal freedom. *Habeas corpus* is a Latin term meaning you are ordered to have the body. As developed in English common law, *habeas corpus* means that a person cannot be held in prison without the consent of the courts. The Founding Fathers of the United States considered this right so essential to human liberty that they wrote it into the Constitution (Article I, Section 9).

The first modern law codes. Roman law had been adopted throughout most of Europe by the end of the 1500's. But only England had a monarchy strong enough to establish a unified legal system. In other countries, law codes were drawn up and enforced

mainly by local governments. These local codes differed greatly from one part of a country to another. Beginning in the 1500's, many European monarchs set out to form strong central governments. To help achieve this goal, they began to assemble the assorted local codes of their countries into national codes – a development called the codification movement.

The codification movement reached its peak under the French ruler Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1800, Napoleon appointed a committee of legal scholars to turn the whole of French private law into a compact, well-reasoned code. The new code, called the Code Civil or Code Napoleon, was a skillful blend of Roman law, French customs, and democratic philosophy. It went into effect in 1804, along with several other codes that covered other areas of law, and has remained France's basic code of private law over since. It has also been a model for the private law codes of most civil-law countries. Thus, Roman law, as contained in the Code Napoleon, still influences people's lives.

Beginnings of U.S. law. When the American colonists declared their independence from England in 1776, they based their claims partly on the ancient Greek and Roman ideas of natural law. These ideas had been developed in detail by various French philosophers of the 1700's, such as Claude Helvetius and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. The French had especially promoted the idea that the natural law gives all people equal rights. The U.S. Declaration of Independence echoed this idea in the famous phrase „ . . . all men are created equal [and] are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights.”

However, the American colonists based their claims for independence chiefly on common-law principles. The English settlers who established the American Colonies had brought these principles with them. Moreover, many of the leaders in the colonies' struggle for independence were lawyers who had been trained in the common law. These men were especially dedicated to the common-law principles that put the rights of the people above the will of a monarch. The common law thus became a

driving force behind the writing of the Declaration of Independence. Common-law principles also influenced the development of the U.S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

Constitutional law. American courts had the same power to make laws that English courts had. A series of U.S. Supreme Court decisions in the early 1800's strengthened this power. The court's decision in 1803 in the case of *Marbury v. Madison* was especially important. In this decision, the court declared a federal law unconstitutional for the first time. The principle of judicial review was thus firmly established, enabling U.S. courts to overturn laws they judged unconstitutional.

Other branches of law. The U.S. legal system adopted the basic ideas, not the whole body, of English common law. Many parts of the common law were impractical for the new, rapidly expanding nation of the United States. English property law was particularly unsuited. Land was scarce in England, and so the law heavily restricted the transfer of land from one owner to another. But much of the land in the United States was unsettled, and the nation was constantly expanding its frontiers. To ensure the nation's growth, people had to be free to buy and sell land. American property law therefore began to stress the rights and obligations involved in land transfers. The English laws that restricted such transfers were discarded.

Contract law became more important in the new nation than it had been in England. By the early 1800's, Americans had begun to develop a flourishing economy based almost entirely on free enterprise. In a free enterprise system, business people regulate their dealings largely by contract. The rapid growth of the U.S. economy in the 1800's therefore brought an enormous increase in contract law. The law especially emphasized freedom of contract, with no government interference. This emphasis lasted into the 1900's. In 1905, in the case of *Lochner v. New York*, the Supreme Court upheld the right of employer and employee to contract for working hours free from government control.

The development of Canadian law. Canada's legal history dates from the legal system established by the first French settlers in the 1600's. The French set up a civil-law system in the areas they colonized, including what is now the province of Quebec. They based their system on one of the major local law codes in France – a code known as the Custom of Paris.

Great Britain gained control of France's Canadian possessions in 1763 and introduced a common-law system. But French Canadians objected to giving up their legal traditions. In 1774, the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act, which allowed French Canadians to follow their traditional system in private-law matters. The common law, however, remained the basis of all other law in Canada. In 1866, Quebec adopted a private-law code based on the Code Napoleon.

The British North America Act, passed by the British Parliament in 1867, created the Dominion of Canada. The act gave Canada limited self-government and provided a constitutional framework for the new Canadian federal government. The federal legal system was based on the common law. Each province could keep its traditional legal system except in matters of public law. All the provinces except Quebec based their legal system on the common law. Quebec kept its civil-law system in matters of private law. Canada's Parliament was authorized to set up the nation's criminal-law system.

Law in the 1900's. During the 1800's, Western systems of law spread throughout the world. Many countries, for example, adopted private-law codes patterned after the Code Napoleon. The U.S. Constitution influenced the making of written constitutions in many countries. The main systems of law – that is, the civil- and common-law systems – have remained basically unchanged during the 1900's. However, the role of the law has undergone dramatic changes in nearly every country. This section discusses how these changes have affected private law and public law in the United States. But the changes have had a similar effect in many other countries.

Developments in private law. By 1900, U.S. private law dealt mainly with protecting the rights of property owners and businesses. Freedom of contract remained the laws key doctrine. Contracts were regarded strictly as private agreements. Judges paid little attention to their social effects.

Complete freedom of contract had served the needs of America's rapidly expanding economy during the 1800's. But by 1900, many businesses in the United States were using this freedom to increase their profits at the expense of their employees, stockholders, and customers. For example, factory owners claimed that efforts to protect the rights of workers interfered with the owners' rights to contract freely with their employees. Employees often had to accept unfavorable contracts or lose their jobs.

During the 1800's, most Americans accepted the idea that the law should interfere with private business as little as possible. But the public's attitude toward the law has changed greatly during the 1900's. Today, most people believe that the private interests of some members of society should not deprive other members of their rights. Legislation and court decisions during the 1900's have reflected this belief, especially by stressing the social aspects of contract law. For example, Congress and the state legislatures have passed many laws to help ensure the fairness of employment contracts. Some of these laws regulate working conditions and workers' wages and hours. Other laws guarantee the right of workers to organize and to strike.

Legislation and court decisions have also changed many features of property, tort, and family law during 1900's. The social obligations of property owners have been enforced by zoning laws and by laws prohibiting environmental pollution. During the 1800's, tort law held that a person could collect for an injury only if another person could be proved at fault. But the development of private and public insurance programs during the 1900's helped establish that a person should be paid for accidental injuries regardless of who was at fault.

This „no fault” principle has made it unnecessary to sue for damages in certain cases. Changes in family law during the 1900’s reduced the legal rights of husbands over their wives and of fathers over their children. The law thus placed increased emphasis on women’s and children’s rights.

Developments in public law. Since the early 1900’s, the executive branch of government has gained more and more lawmaking power in the United States. In addition, hundreds of agencies have been formed in the executive branch. The rules and regulations issued by these agencies have brought about a huge increase in administrative law.

During the mid-1900’s, the U.S. Supreme Court also became more active than it had ever been before. The court acted particularly in matters that it believed legislators had neglected. The great majority of these matters were in the field of civil rights. During the 1950’s and 1960’s, the court used the power of judicial review to strike down a variety of state and local laws that supported racial segregation. The court based these decisions on the 14th Amendment to the Constitution, which guarantees equal protection under the law. The court also used this amendment in the 1970’s and 1980’s to help ensure fair and equal treatment for women, aliens, poor people, and persons accused of crime.

Current Issues In the U.S.

The problem of too many laws. Congress and the state legislatures pass thousands of laws each year. These laws are added to the hundreds of volumes of federal and state statutes already in force. The regulations issued by federal and state agencies also accumulate at a rapid rate. By the early 1990’s, the federal regulations alone filled about 125,000 pages.

As the number of laws has grown, the whole body of law has become more and more difficult to administer. In addition, the law has become so complex that people cannot possibly know how it affects them in every case. A nation can make its laws simpler by organizing them into a uniform code. But common-law traditions

are so strong in the United States that all efforts to codify the nation's private laws have failed.

The enormous number of laws issued each year raises the question of whether society expects too much of the law. Many people believe that nearly every need and want of society can be met simply by „passing a law”. This belief has led legislatures and the courts to make more and more laws to satisfy not only society's demands but also the demands of small, special-interest groups. However, there are limits to what the law can do. If the law tries to satisfy every demand, it can easily fail. People may then begin to doubt that the law can do anything at all. In addition, people tend to resent laws that interfere in their private affairs. But as the number of laws grows, more and more aspects of life become regulated.

The question of who should make laws. The common law as developed in England enables the courts to make laws. However, American courts have expanded their powers far beyond the English idea to bring about revolutionary social changes, especially in the field of civil rights. Some of these changes have been extremely unpopular with many Americans. But through the power of judicial review, the courts can overrule the wishes of even the vast majority of the people.

Many experts believe that questions of great social importance should be settled by legislation rather than by decisions reached in courts. They point out that democratic government depends on the freedom of the legislature to reflect the will of the people. If the courts block this freedom, democracy is seriously weakened. Other experts believe the courts must defend the constitutional rights of every American regardless of popular support.

The right to legal assistance. As the law has grown more complex, the demand for professional legal services has increased. As a result, even the most routine services, such as drawing up contracts and wills, have become more and more costly. Large corporations and wealthy people generally can afford all the legal help they need.

Since the early 1960's, court decisions and legislation have ensured legal help for criminal defendants too poor to hire a lawyer. In addition, public and private legal aid services provide poor people with free counsel in private-law cases. However, many poor people do not know they have a right to these services, and so they do not benefit from them.

Millions of middle-income Americans have great difficulty getting professional legal help when they need it. These people cannot afford to hire a lawyer. Yet they do not qualify for the free legal services available to the poor. To help remedy this problem, some lawyers in large cities have set up legal clinics. The clinics provide middle-income families with routine legal services at reduced rates.

Social obligations and individual rights. As we have seen, court decisions and legislation have increasingly stressed the social aspects of the law in the United States. More and more laws have thus been made to ensure equality for all Americans and to protect the economic and environmental interests of society. To achieve these goals, the law has had to limit many of the rights traditionally granted to individuals under private law. Property rights and freedom of contract, in particular, have been heavily restricted – a matter of deep concern to many Americans.

Most experts believe, however, that the social trend of the law will continue. In that case, the rights and freedoms of individuals under private law will become even more restricted. Legislatures and courts therefore face an enormous challenge. On the one hand, they must formulate laws to meet the needs of a complex and rapidly changing society. On the other hand, they must also be careful that these laws do not so restrict property rights as to make free enterprise impossible.

A Career As a Lawyer

In most countries today, a person must be trained and licensed to practice law. However, the training and licensing of lawyers vary

greatly from country to country. This section deals with law as a career in the United States.

Law education. To practice law in most states of the United States, a person must first have a degree from a law school. The majority of law schools are a part of large universities. A few are independent institutions. Most U.S. law schools admit only four-year college graduates. During their college training, prelaw students do not have to take any particular courses. But the majority of students planning to go to law school specialize in the humanities or the social sciences.

Most law school programs require three years of study. During this time, students take courses in all the major branches of public and private law. Upon completing the required program, a student receives a J.D. (Doctor of Jurisprudence) degree. In general, law schools at state universities in the United States have the lowest tuition fees, and private institutions require the highest.

The first U.S. institution devoted entirely to the teaching of law operated in Litchfield, Conn., from 1774 to 1833. The first law professorship in the United States was established in 1779 at the College of William and Mary. Harvard University established the nation's first law school in 1817. Between 1830 and 1860, law schools were founded at other U.S. universities, including Columbia University, the University of Michigan, New York University, Northwestern University, the University of Pennsylvania, and Yale University.

All the early law schools used traditional teaching methods. Students attended lectures and studied stand- and textbooks. During the 1870's, a new method of teaching law, the case method, was developed at Harvard University. This method trained students in precise legal reasoning through the reading, analysis, and discussion of actual court cases. Today, almost all U.S. law schools use the case method.

Law school standards have been steadily raised in the United States since the mid-1800's, largely through the work of the American Bar Association (ABA) and the Association of American Law

Schools (AALS). The ABA is a private, nationwide organization of lawyers that was founded in 1878. The AALS was founded in 1900 by 35 of the about 100 U.S. law schools that were then in existence. Both organizations have continually raised the minimum educational standards that a law school must meet to gain their approval. Today, the United States has about 220 law schools. About 175 of them are approved by either the ABA or the AALS or by both organizations.

In the past, nearly all law students – and nearly all lawyers – were men. But the number of women law students has been steadily increasing. Today, women make up more than one-third of the total enrollment in the major U.S. law schools.

Licensing of lawyers. Each state has its own bar – that is, the body of lawyers who have a license to practice in the state. The word bar originally referred to the railing or partition that traditionally separates spectators from the proceedings in a courtroom. Lawyers represent their clients before the bar rather than from the spectator area in the back of the courtroom. Because of the lawyer's position in the courtroom, the whole body lawyers became known as the bar.

Most states issue a license to law school graduates who pass the state's bar examination. A few states automatically license graduates of approved law schools in the state, without a bar examination. In the early 1990's, the United States had more than 750,000 lawyers.

The highest court or the legislature in each state sets rules of conduct for lawyers. The court has the power to disbar (suspend from practice) any member of the state who violates these rules.

The practice of law. The majority of U.S. lawyers conduct most of their business out of court. But some lawyers, particularly those who specialize in criminal cases, do much trial work.

Many American lawyers have a general practice. They provide every kind of legal service, from drawing up wills and other legal papers to handling court cases. Many other lawyers – especially in big cities – concentrate on a particular branch of the law, such as

corporation law or administrative law. Some of these lawyers work for large law firms. Such firms provide clients with specialized services in one or more branches of the law. Most large business corporations employ experts in corporation law.

Because of the greatly increased demand for legal services, many lawyers have more work than they can handle. Some large law firms have therefore begun to employ specially trained persons called lawyer's assistants. A lawyer's assistant does paralegal work – that is, routine legal tasks under a lawyer's supervision. Lawyers who employ such assistants can devote more time to complex legal cases.

The law has long been one of the most common roads to public office. Congress, the state legislatures, and the administrative agencies have attracted more people from the law than from any other profession. Almost all judges have been lawyers, and such public officials as district attorneys and prosecutors must be lawyers. About two-thirds of all of the Presidents of the United States were lawyers.

PRIVATE LAW

Business Law

Contract is an agreement between two or more parties that is enforceable by law. A contract consists of voluntary promises to do or not do certain things. Promises in a contract are legal obligations. In the United States, Canada, and other countries that encourage private enterprise, much business activity depends on contracts. Contracts include promises to deliver or pay for goods, to perform or pay for labor or services, and to buy or rent land or other property.

In general, people or companies may include in their contracts any promises or terms they think fit. However, certain contracts are unenforceable. For example, the courts would not enforce an agreement to bribe a public official. They also may not require parties to obey a contract if one of the parties has clearly taken unfair advantage of another. The courts do not enforce contract

obligations undertaken by minors or people who are mentally incompetent.

Most contracts are formed by an offer followed by an acceptance of the offer. In most cases, the offer and acceptance may be communicated either orally or in writing. However, the law requires that some contracts be in writing. These contracts include agreements to sell real estate and agreements that are to be performed over an extended period of time. Such contracts must name all the contracting parties, specify the price and all important terms, and be signed by any party who is to be legally obligated to perform the contract.

Most contracts are enforceable only if each party gets consideration (something of value) from the agreement. Consideration can be money, property, a promise, or some right. For example, when an owner sells his or her house, the promised home is the consideration for the buyer. The seller's consideration is the money the buyer promises to pay for the house. Promises that do not involve consideration generally do not create a contract. The promise of the owner to give the house to a friend or for nothing cannot be enforced as a contract.

Before a contract is formed, the parties usually discuss or negotiate its terms. If the parties intend to draw up a written contract they may shake hands on a general deal before all the specific terms have been defined. In some cases, legal obligations are created by the handshake or by other actions performed prior to the signing of a formal document. After the contract has been formed, the parties may continue to negotiate the details of how it should be carried out, especially if the contract is complex. In many such cases, the parties prefer to work out disagreements on their own rather than ask a court to resolve them. In these cases, the contract may serve only as general guidelines governing the future relationship between the parties.

A contract is said to be discharged when the obligations in the agreement have been fulfilled. If either party violates the terms of the contract, a breach of contract occurs. A court may award

money damages to the other party, or order the breaching party to perform properly.

Copyright

Copyright refers to a body of exclusive rights that protect the works of authors and other creative people against copying or unauthorized public performance. Copyright generally extends to original works of literary, dramatic, musical, or artistic expression. The first modern copyright law was adopted in Great Britain in 1709. Today, most nations have copyright laws that cover works originally produced at home or abroad. In the United States, the Copyright Office of the Library of Congress is primarily responsible for administering copyright law.

Patents and trademarks are distinct from copyrights. A patent mainly prevents inventions and discoveries or improvements of useful processes from being copied. A trademark is a word, name, or symbol that is design to distinguish the products or services of one company from those of another.

Works protected. Copyright law covers numerous types of original work. Such work may be literary, musical, dramatic, pantomime, choreographic (dance), pictorial, graphic, or sculptural. Other categories are motion pictures and other audio-visual works, sound recordings, computer programs, and architectural works.

Literary works consist of novels, poems, and all works that do not fall into any other category. Such other works include computer programs, catalogs, directories, and collections of data.

Musical works include original compositions and arrangements, and any accompanying words. New versions of earlier compositions may also be copyrighted.

Dramatic works mainly include plays intended for live performance, and screenplays. The copyright covers music for dramatic productions, such as operas, comedies, and musical plays for television.

Pantomimes and choreographic works can be righted if they are filmed or taped, or are written. Choreographic works do not include social dance steps.

Pictorial, graphic, and sculptural works include photographs, holograms, greeting cards, picture postcards cartoons, comic strips, posters, ceramic figurines, glassware, and decals. Lithographs, etchings, and other art reproductions by the original author are also covered, as are maps, globes, charts, jewelry, toys, various designs and patterns, and other examples of visual arts.

Motion pictures include all works consisting of a series of related images, regardless of whether the images are displayed on film, tape, or disc. Audio-visual works include motion pictures, as well as filmstrips and other works that consist of sequences of images but do not give the impression of motion when shown. Sounds accompanying audio-visual works are also protected.

Two main elements in a sound recording are covered by copyright protection. These elements are the contribution of the performer and the contribution of the people responsible for capturing and processing the sounds in the final recording. Copyright laws also forbid the unauthorized commercial distribution and rental of sound recordings.

Architectural works include buildings and architectural plans and drawings. Copyright law covers the overall form of an architectural work and the unique arrangement of elements and spaces in its design.

Copyright protection applies only to the extent of a person's expression. No protection is available for ideas, concepts, names, titles, short phrases, general themes, familiar symbols, or diaries, bank checks, and other types of blank forms. Works of the United States government – that is, works authored by a federal employee within the scope of his or her employment – may be copyrighted.

Owners' rights. A copyright carries with it the exclusive right to reproduce and distribute copies or phonorecords of the copyrighted work. However, except for sound recordings and computer

programs, once a copy has been sold, the purchaser may resell or rent the copy without permission of the copyright owner.

A copyright also gives the owner the sole right to prepare works based upon the copyrighted work, such as translations, condensations, and motion-picture versions. In addition, the owner has the exclusive right to perform the work publicly if it is a literary, musical, dramatic, or choreographic work; a pantomime; or a motion picture or other audio-visual creation. The copyright owner has the sole right to display the work publicly if it is a pictorial, graphic, sculptural, literary, musical, dramatic, or choreographic work; a pantomime; or individual images from a motion picture or other audio-visual work. The creators of certain works of visual art have the rights to be identified as the work's creator and to protect the integrity of the work.

Owners of copyrighted material may transfer their copyright to someone else through a written contract. Under the „works made for hire” doctrine, people who create a copyrighted work within the scope of their employment relinquish the copyright to their employer.

Authors of copyrighted works may terminate a copyright transfer, but they must wait at least 35 years to do so. After 35 years from the date of the transfer, the author may serve a notice of termination and record the notice in the Copyright Office. If an author is dead, the beneficiaries named in the copyright statute may terminate the transfer.

Copyrights secured before 1978 are good for 28 years. During the 28th year, the copyright may be renewed for an additional 47 years. Works created before 1978 that were neither published nor registered with the Copyright Office before that year are protected until 50 years after the author's death, or until Dec. 31, 2002, whichever is longer. Copyrights secured after Jan. 1, 1978, are good until 50 years after the author's death.

The copyrights of anonymous works, pseudonymous works, and works created within the scope of employment are good for 75

years from publication or 100 years from creation, whichever is shorter.

A copyright owner whose copyright is violated may file a court injunction to stop further infringements. Copyright infringers may be liable for actual damages and profits or for statutory damages. Unintentional infringement is also illegal but may be treated less harshly by the court than intentional infringement. Willfully violating a copyright is a criminal offense.

Users' rights. Copyright law includes a section on „fair use” that allows limited reproduction of copyrighted material for such purposes as critical commentary, news reporting, and educational use. For example, teachers may make a limited number of copies of a copyrighted work for classroom use. Archives and libraries may make one copy of a copyrighted work, but they may not regularly reproduce single or multiple copies of such a work.

In some cases, copyrighted works may be used without permission if the user pays a set fee. Such use is covered in copyright law sections dealing with five types of licensing systems. These systems provide for (1) retransmission of broadcast signals by cable television companies, (2) use of musical compositions by record companies, (3) use of recorded music in jukeboxes, (4) noncommercial broadcasting of published musical, pictorial, graphic, and sculptural works, and (5) secondary transmissions of television superstations and network stations for home viewing.

How to obtain a copyright. The Copyright Office does not grant copyrights. It merely registers claims.

Registration is available for all forms of unpublished and published copyright claims. The Copyright Office recommends that registration be requested within three months after publication of the work.

Registration is obtained by sending the Copyright Office a completed application form, a fee of \$20, and one or two copies of the work to be registered. Upon registration, the Copyright Office will issue the applicant a certificate of registration, which may be submitted in federal court as evidence of copyright ownership.

Forms, instructions, and general information about copyright can be obtained from the United States Copyright Office, Library of Congress, Washington, DC 20559.

The Copyright Office recommends that a notice of copyright appear on each copy of any published work. This should consist of either the word „Copyright”, the abbreviation „Copr.”, or the symbol ©, accompanied by the name of the copyright owner or an abbreviation or other designation by which the owner can be recognized. If the work is a printed literary, musical, or dramatic work, the notice should include the year in which the work was first published. For example, „© Jane Doe 1994”. If the work is a sound recording, the notice should contain the symbol ®, the year of first publication of the recording, and the name of the copyright owner. For example, „® 1990XYZ Records”.

International copyright. The United States has participated in many international conventions and bilateral agreements covering copyright. These agreements provide U.S. citizens with copyright protection abroad.

The United States was a founder of the Universal Copyright Convention, signed in 1952. A person may obtain copyright protection in every country that has agreed to the convention by publishing his or her work first in one of the countries (or anywhere in the world if the person is a citizen of one of the countries) with the prescribed notice. Each country must then protect the work according to its own laws.

The Brussels Satellite Convention went into effect in the United States in 1985, and the Berne Convention did so in 1989. The Brussels Satellite Convention prohibits the unauthorized retransmission of satellite signals that carry TV programs. The Berne Convention establishes minimum standards of copyright protection that member states must give to literary and artistic works.

The United States has also joined with several American republics in copyright conventions to protect literary property in the Western Hemisphere. The most important of these conventions is the

Buenos Aires Convention, signed in 1910. In 1974, the United States joined the Geneva Phonogram Convention. This convention protects sound recordings.

History. The first modern copyright law was the Statute of Anne, passed by the British Parliament in 1709. This law made copyrights available to anyone for 14 years, Britain's Universities Copyright Act of 1775 helped explain the conditions under which an infringement suit could be brought.

The Constitution of the United States authorized Congress to establish copyright legislation. In 1790, Congress passed the first federal copyright act. In the landmark case of *Wheaton v. Peters* (1834), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that all published works had to comply with the federal statute to be protected. Unpublished works could be protected under state copyright law.

In 1909, Congress passed a copyright law that allowed copyright registration for certain unpublished works, such as dramas, lectures, musical works, and works of art. In 1978, the Copyright Revision Bill took effect. This law recognized federal copyright for all types of unpublished material. It also preempted state common law copyright, which meant that copyright protection of both published and unpublished material had to be secured under federal law. The Computer Software Act of 1980 confirmed the ability to copyright computer programs. In 1984, the Record Rental Amendment gave copyright owners of sound recordings the right to control commercial lending of sound recordings. In 1990, a similar right was extended to owners of computer programs. Also in 1990, architectural works became copyrightable after Congress passed amendments bringing the United States into conformity with the Berne Convention.

In 1992, Congress passed legislation requiring manufacturers of digital audio recording machines, blank compact discs, and blank digital tapes to pay royalties (shares of profit) to recording companies, music publishers, and song writers. The machines can be used to copy recordings onto the discs and tapes. Because the manufacturers pay royalties, the law allows buyers the machines,

discs, and tapes to use them in making copies. However, the law also requires that blank discs and tapes be manufactured in such a way that further copies cannot be made from them.

Check

Check is a written order directing a bank to pay money to a person or organization, or to the bearer. A check may be written by any person or organization with money in a checking account. The bank transfers the amount specified on the check from the payer's (check writer's) account to the payee, the designated person or organization. The word check is spelled cheque in Canada, the United Kingdom, and some other countries.

Checks are widely used because they are safer, more convenient than cash. For example, a person who has a checking account does not have to carry large sums of money, which could be lost or stolen. Checks can be sent safely through the mail because only the payees can legally cash them. Used checks, called canceled checks, serve as convenient records of payment.

How the checking system works. When a person or organization opens a checking account, the depositor receives a checkbook containing blank checks. The depositor issues a check by writing in the date, the name of the payee, and the amount of money involved. The depositor also signs the check. Every month, the bank sends the depositor a statement. This document lists the deposits made into the account, and the amounts of the checks written against it. The statement also shows the balance, the amount remaining in the account. Most banks enclose the canceled checks for the month. But some banks hold the checks and issue only a statement.

The payee may cash the check – that is, exchange it for cash – or deposit it in a bank account or transfer it to another person or organization. To cash, deposit, or transfer a check, the payee endorses it by signing it on the back. The endorser becomes responsible for the payment of the check if the issuer's checking account lacks enough money to cover it.

After a bank has received a check in a deposit, the bank collects its money by returning the check to the bank of the check writer. The check writer's bank then charges the writer's account for the amount involved. If the two banks are in the same community, the check is routed through a clearinghouse. The clearinghouse collects checks and determines how much money the banks owe each other. Most out-of-town checks are collected by a Federal Reserve Bank or other large bank.

Numbers printed on checks with magnetic ink identify the bank and the owner of the checking account. They make possible the electronic sorting of checks.

Special checking services. Some payments require the use of a certified check or a cashier's check. A certified check is an ordinary check made out by a person or organization and then stamped *Certified* by a bank. The bank sets aside sufficient funds from the check writer's account to pay for a check that it certifies. A cashier's check is the bank's own check, which the bank guarantees. The bank charges its customer's account for the amount. Cashier's checks may also be purchased with cash. Banks and travel agencies sell blank traveler's checks in denominations of \$10, \$20, \$50, and \$100. The person who buys the checks signs them immediately at the bank or agency. He or she signs them again to obtain cash or to make purchases. The second signature verifies the person's identity. Traveler's checks can be used throughout the world because the issuing bank or company guarantees payment. The bank or travel agency replaces lost or stolen traveler's checks.

Checks and the economy. Checks serve as the chief method of payment in many parts of the world. For this reason, economists consider checkbook money (funds in checking accounts) as part of a nation's money supply. Such funds make up about 75 per cent of the total account of money in circulation in the United States.

Federal law once prohibited U.S. banks from paying interest on money in checking accounts, unlike funds in saving accounts. In 1980, however, Congress lifted the ban on interest-paying checking

accounts. It authorized banks to offer negotiable order of withdrawal accounts, usually called *NOW accounts*. Like a savings account, a NOW account pays interest. But the depositor can transfer funds to someone else by writing a *negotiable order of withdrawal*, which is like a check.

For many years, checking accounts were offered only by commercial banks (banks that offer a full range of banking services). Since the 1970's, however, other institutions have provided accounts that compete with the checking accounts of commercial banks. For example, savings banks and savings and loan associations offer NOW accounts. Banks and other financial institutions also offer special interest-bearing accounts known as money market accounts, from which withdrawals may be made by check. Credit unions use share drafts, which also are similar to checks.

Stock, Capital

Stock, Capital, is a right of ownership in a corporation. The stock is divided into a certain number of *shares*, and the corporation issues stockholders one or more *stock certificates* to show how many shares they hold. The stockholders own the company and elect a board of directors to manage it for them.

Stockholders may sell their stock whenever they want to, unless the corporation has some special rule to prevent it. Prices of stock change according to general business conditions and the earnings and future prospects of the company. If the business is doing well, stockholders may be able to sell their stock for a profit. If it is not, they may have to take a loss. Large corporations may have many thousands of stockholders. Their stock is bought and sold in market places called *stock exchanges*. When a sale is made, the seller signs the certificate. The buyer turns this over to the corporation and gets a new certificate. When the corporation has made a profit, the directors may divide the profit among the stockholders as *dividends*, or they may decide to use it to expand the business. Dividends may be paid only out of the corporation's profits. When

profits are used to expand the business, the directors and stockholders may decide to use more stock to show that there is more money invested in the business. This new stock will be divided among the stockholders as a *stock dividend*.

Kinds of stock. The Articles of Incorporation – papers signed when the corporation is formed – may specify the different kinds of stock. *Par stock* must be issued for not less than a set price, called the *par value*, for each share. If the articles provide for *no-par* stock, the directors determine the issuing price of the stock and may change it whenever they wish. All shares of stock have equal dividend and voting rights unless the articles provide differently. There may be different classes of stock, such as *voting* and *nonvoting*. Many articles provide for *common* and *preferred* stock. Preferred stock is entitled to a preference on dividends. That is, the directors must pay a certain amount – usually a percentage of par value – to the holders of preferred stock before they pay anything to the holders of common stock. If the preferred-stock holders share with the common-stock holders in dividends beyond the percentage, the stock is called *participating preferred*.

Preferred stock may also be *cumulative*. That is, if there are no dividends given in a year, the preferred-stock holders must be given double their dividend the next year. This is paid before anything is paid to the common-stock holders. It will continue to multiply for as many years as dividends are not paid.

When a corporation goes out of business, it divides its property among the stockholders. This process is called *liquidation*. When a company liquidates, the preferred-stock holders may be given the par value of their stock before the common-stock holders are given anything. This preferred stock is said to be *preferred up par on liquidation*.

Trademark

Trademark is a word or words, a name, a design, a picture, a sound, or any other symbol that distinguishes the products of one company from those of another. A trademark also may consist of

any combination of these identifications. Most trademarks appear on the product, on its container, or in advertisements for the product. A *service mark* identifies the source of a service rather than a product. For example, an electric company may use a light bulb as a symbol of the service it offers.

A *strong trademark* consists of a word that has no recognizable meaning, such as Kodak. Strong trademarks receive broad protection from being used by other companies in a manner that is likely to cause confusion, mistake, or deception. *Weak trademarks* consist of a common word, such as Premier, or a word that suggests some characteristic of the product, such as Wet 'n Wash. They receive less protection, unless the public identifies them with a certain manufacturer as a result of wide advertising and long, continuous use.

Trademarks, also called *brand names*, provide an easy way to determine who makes a certain product. They help consumers identify brands they liked in the past so they can purchase them again. A trademark represents the manufacturer's reputation, called *good will*.

Most countries have laws that protect the rights of trademark owners. A firm must establish its rights in each country in which it seeks protection.

In the United States, the first company to use a trademark has certain rights to that trademark. The firm may prevent others in the same geographic area from using the same trademark or a similar one for related products. But unless the trademark is very strong, its owner cannot prevent other firms from using the trademark for unrelated products or in another area where it would not cause *confusion*.

Trademark rights are not limited in duration, and they are not dependent upon any registration. These rights, which form part of the broader law of unfair competition, protect the good will of the trademark owner. They also protect the public from fraud and deceit. Violation of trademark rights is called *infringement*. An

infringing trademark is one that is likely to confuse or deceive consumers because of its similarity to a trademark in use.

A company may register its trademark in each state in which it uses the trademark. A trademark owner does not have to register the mark to sue for infringement. But registration gives the owner much stronger rights if a suit is brought.

In other countries, trademark laws differ from those of the United States. Many governments allow a company to register a trademark before using it. Some require registration before any trademark rights can be enforced.

TORT LAW

Assult

Assault and battery is a legal term that involves a physical threat and act. An act of assault puts the victim in fear of bodily harm. Spoken threats are not assaults, because there must be some physical act. Raising a club or drawing back a fist is an assault, even if no actual blow follows. One who levels a gun at a crowd of people may be found guilty of assault against every person in the crowd. Battery pertains to the actual blow, or other physical injury. The two offenses usually occur together and are usually punished as one. No assault results if one has a right to threaten or inflict harm. People can legally remove intruders from their homes with whatever force is necessary.

Parents may use force in punishing children. But they become guilty of assault and battery if they punish too roughly. Assault and battery are crimes punishable by fine or imprisonment. The offender may also be sued for damages by the victim.

Damages

Damages, in law, mean money that a court orders one person to pay to another person for violating person's rights or for breaking a contract. To collect damages, a victim ordinarily must show that loss or injury has been suffered because of the other person's fault or carelessness or breach of contract.

The main types of damages include *compensatory*, *general*, *nominal*, and *punitive* damages. Compensatory damages are recovered only for actual damage, such as the cost of repairing an automobile damaged in an accident. Most damages are compensatory. General damages are based on indications of harm, including pain and suffering. They are awarded most often in *libel and slander* cases where it may be hard to show how one's reputation was harmed by a person making false statements. Nominal damages are small token awards given in cases where a person's rights have been violated, but where no harm has occurred. Suits fought on principle are often settled in this way. Punitive damages are in effect a fine levied against the wrongdoer. They are given in addition to other damages, when the wrongdoer has purposely harmed the other person.

There are few rules of law on how to measure damages. Damages may vary with each case, because the circumstances may be different. Also, many damage suits are tried before juries, and each jury may award different damages. Damages may include elements that are hard to measure in money, such as pain and suffering. Some damages may have to be measured for harm that will occur only in the future.

Libel

Libel is a written or printed statement that harms a person's reputation. Pictures, signs, and information broadcast on television or the radio may also be libelous. Individuals are most often the subject of libel, but businesses and groups may be libeled as well. *Slander* is similar to libel. However, slander involves spoken words that damage a person's reputation.

Libel does not consist of writing or developing damaging material, but in showing it. If a writer of harmful material shows it to a person other than the subject of the material, the writer *has published the libel*.

In the United States, a person who believes he or she has been libeled can file a lawsuit in civil court. The *plaintiff* (person filing the charges) must prove three main things: (1) that something was

published by the defendant, (2) that the published material was about him or her, and (3) that the material was *defamatory* (damaging) to his or her reputation. Possible defamatory statements include reporting that an individual committed a crime or that a person was repeatedly fired from jobs.

A number of rules in common law add to a plaintiff's burden in a libel suit. For example, defendants cannot be convicted of libel for statements that are true, even if the statements are defamatory. In addition, the legal doctrine of „fair comment“ protects defamatory matter that is clearly presented as opinion rather than as fact, as long as the writer is acting without malice and provides readers with the facts that lead to the opinion.

In 1964, the Supreme Court of the United States ruled that the First Amendment of the United States Constitution prevents public officials from winning a libel suit against the press unless the press is guilty of *actual malice*. The court defined actual malice as knowledge of falsity or reckless disregard for the truth. In 1967, the court ruled that *public figures* must also prove actual malice when suing newspapers or other media. The court defined public figures as private citizens who try to influence the outcome of important public issues or who otherwise thrust themselves into the public spotlight.

In 1974, the Supreme Court ruled that private individuals do not have to prove actual malice in a libel suit. But they must at least prove that the media acted negligently in its reporting. In 1990, the court ruled that the First Amendment does not automatically protect defamatory statements of opinion from being found libelous. It is said that the common law defense of „fair comment“ provides sufficient protection.

Libel laws have come under heavy criticism. Some journalists complain that the mere threat of a libel suit may discourage important in-depth reporting. Many legal scholars believe the actual-malice rule is too confusing for juries. Some attorneys believe that the legal standards for proving that a person's reputation has been damaged are too vague. Many attorneys also

believe that the actual malice rule makes it extremely difficult for a person to win a libel suit, even if his or her reputation has clearly been damaged.

Tort

Tort is a harmful act for which the injured person has the right to collect money for damages. A tort is a violation of *civil law*, which deals with the rights and obligations people have in their relations with one another. The branch of civil law that deals with torts is called *tort law*. Tort law is concerned mainly with injuries to a person's body, property, business, reputation, or privacy. For example, if someone injures you, you may have a right to sue for damages. If a person fails to keep a promise or follow the terms of a contract, another branch of law, called *contract law*, usually determines the right to damages.

Most torts are either *intentional* or *negligent*. An example of an intentional tort is an assault. A negligent tort involves an act of carelessness. For instance, a motorist who accidentally injures a person may be charged with *negligence*.

In many cases, an employer can be held responsible for a tort committed by an employee while working, even though the employer was free from fault. In such cases the employee is also personally liable. A tort may also be a violation of *criminal law*. For example, if someone strikes you, you may be able to recover damages for the torts of assault and battery. But the government may also punish the person for breaking a criminal law that forbids such an act.

PROPERTY LAW

Deed

Deed is a written document to transfer ownership of real estate. The deed must be signed by the *grantor*, the party transferring ownership. In many cases, it is also signed by the *grantee*, the party receiving ownership. The deed must describe the property transferred and show the intent to transfer ownership. The deed

takes effect only when it is delivered to the grantee or to the grantee's agent.

There are two main types of deeds – *warranty deeds* and *quitclaim deeds*. A warranty deed guarantees the grantee that the grantor owns all the rights described in the deed. If it turns out that the grantor does not own the rights, the grantor must pay the grantee's resulting damages. A quitclaim deed contains no such guarantee and therefore is used less often.

Unlike the title to an automobile, a deed does not have to be submitted to the government to become valid. However, deeds may be recorded in the office of the recorder of deeds for the county or district in which the land is located. Recording the deed gives public notice of the rights the grantee is receiving. It thus helps protect the grantee against later claims by others to rights in the property.

Many land buyers obtain title insurance to protect themselves against later claims. Before the insurance company insures the buyer, it researches the title to the property and reports its findings to the buyer. Some land buyers hire a lawyer or other specialist to research the title and prepare a brief history of the land's ownership. The history is called an *abstract of title*.

Lease

Lease is an agreement that gives one person or company the right to possess property owned by another person or company. The possession lasts for a fixed period of time, called a *term*. Terms range from a few hours to many years. Items commonly leased include real estate, automobiles, videotapes, and office equipment. The owner of the property is called the *lessor* or *landlord*. The person receiving the property is called the *lessee* or *tenant*. Most lessees promise to pay *rent* to the lessor.

Modern law often views a lease as a contract. If one party *breaches* (violates) a promise included in the lease, the other party may ask a court to force the breaching party to perform the promise, to pay money for damage caused by the breach, or to end the lease early.

Leases are either written or unwritten. Most states in the United States require that a lease be written if its term is longer than one year. The lease describes the property being leased, the term, the rent, and any other promises or conditions. The lessee and lessor each may agree to pay certain expenses, such as utility bills or maintenance costs. Also the lessor may agree to keep the property safe from intruders. In some cases, unwritten promises are implied by law. For example, courts and laws in many states assume that a landlord must ensure that residential property is fit to live in.

During the lease term, both the lessor and lessee own rights in the property. While the lessee has the right to possess and use the property, the lessor is entitled to protection of the property. If the lessee harms the property, a court may order the lessee to pay for repair and to refrain from further damage. The court may also permit the lessor to end the lease early.

Property

Property, in law, means the rights people have in things. Such rights are often called ownership. Property may refer to a car, a farm, a watch, or anything else that is owned. Property also may refer to interests in things that are owned by more than one person. Such interests include stock in a corporation. The corporation owns the machinery, the raw materials, and the finished products. But the stockholder is entitled to share in its profits as an owner of the corporation. Property may be classified in two ways. *Real property* includes interests in land and the things permanently attached to it, such as buildings and trees. All other things are *personal property*.

Various types of interests in property exist in American and English law. For example, an owner of land has an *absolute* property interest if the owner is the only person with an interest in the land. The owner may allow another person to occupy it as a farm for 10 years. During that time, the owner is entitled to be paid for the use of the land but cannot use it. In this case, the owner has a *qualified nonpossessory* property interest – that is, a right to regain full ownership and possession of the land in the future. The farmer is entitled to possess the land and can prevent anyone from

interfering with the use of the property. The farmer has a *qualified possessory* interest. During the 10 years, the farmer can provide for an *easement* (limited right of use) by permitting a neighbor to cross the land to reach a road or other piece of land. The easement gives the neighbor a *qualified nonpossessory* interest.

Property interests may be acquired in several ways. People may buy property, find it, or receive it as a gift. They also may get property by a court order, as in the distribution of the estate of a person who has died without leaving a will.

INHERITANCE LAW

Will

Will, in law, is a document that disposes of a person's property after the person's death. The person who makes the will is called the testator, if a man, and the testatrix, if a woman. Personal property left by will is called a *bequest*, or a *legacy*. Real estate left by will is called a *devise*.

Most wills are prepared by lawyers, who can make sure that the formal legal requirements for wills are satisfied. Wills must be in writing and signed by the testator or testatrix and, usually, two or three witnesses

Each state of the United States and each province of Canada has laws governing wills. Some laws require that a will be witnessed. Other laws do not. The number of witnesses required may also vary. Many states do not allow witnesses to get any benefits under a will. Some states accept a *holographic* will, or one prepared in a person's own handwriting and unwitnessed.

A person may die *intestate* (without a valid will). The person's property then descends, according to state law, to the individual's spouse and relatives. If the person is not survived by a spouse or relatives and leaves no valid will, the individual's property may *escheat* (transfer) to the state in which the person lived.

Administration. People may dispose of their property in any way they choose. But in most states, the spouse of the testator or testatrix cannot be completely disinherited. In Louisiana, the children of the testator or testatrix must also receive a share of the estate. The will usually names some person as an *executor*. The executor must see that the provisions of the will are carried out. If no executor has been named, the court that has jurisdiction over estates may appoint an *administrator*, whose duties are the same as those of an executor. For the faithful performance of their duties, executors must give a *bond* (written pledge to pay money) or provide for *surety* (a person who agrees to pay if the executor cannot). If an executor does not faithfully carry out the provisions of the will, the bond is forfeited. Usually, the giving of a bond may be waived if the will so provides.

Estate plan. It is desirable that people who own considerable property have an estate plan in which the will is only a part. If a person owns more than a certain amount of property upon death, both the government of the state where the person lives and the U.S. government will collect an estate tax. A properly drawn estate plan may save many thousands of dollars that otherwise would have to be paid in estate taxes.

Codicil is an addition made after a will has been prepared that changes the will in some way. People may alter or destroy their wills at any time. Such alteration will be legal provided that the will maker is of sound mind and the alteration was not caused by undue influence from parties interested in the change. The codicil must be made according to the formalities required by state law just as the will must be. If the will must be witnessed by two people, then the codicil must be witnessed by two people.

Legacy

Legacy, is a disposition of personal property made by the terms of a will. *Specific legacies* are gifts of particular pieces of property, such as jewelry, books, or clothing. *General legacies* are usually sums of money. *Residual legacies* are what remains of a person's estate after the specific and general legacies have been paid. For

example, a man leaves bequests to his friends and servants, and states that the residue of his estate is to be divided among his family.

Before any legacies are given out, the debts of the dead person must be paid. Next, the specific legacies are paid out, and then the general legacies. The residual legatees divide what remains. Sometimes a person's estate is exhausted in paying claims and the legatees named in the will receive nothing.

Heir

Heir. Technically, an heir is a person who receives money or property left by someone who died *intestate* (without making a will). *Legatee* or *devisee* is the legal term for the beneficiary of a will. But the word *heir* is commonly used for anyone awarded an estate, whether or not the deceased person left a will.

The word *heir* comes from a Latin term that means *one entitled to inherit*. Normally, heirs are the spouse and children or grandchildren of the deceased person. If there are no surviving descendants or spouse, then parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters, or other relatives inherit. State laws vary as to who inherits and in what proportions. If there are no surviving heirs, the property goes to the state. This condition is called escheat.

FAMILY LAW

Marriage

Marriage. Marriage is the relationship between a man and a woman who have made a legal agreement to live together. When a man and woman marry, they become husband and wife. Marriage is also an important religious ceremony in many of the world's religions.

Most couples decide to marry because they love each other and want to spend the rest of their lives together. A man and woman who marry usually hope to share a special relationship and a permanent romantic attraction. But each hopes the other will always be a close friend as well. Each also expects the other to help with many problems and to share certain responsibilities, these

responsibilities include earning a living, budgeting money, paying bills, preparing meals, and taking care of a home.

Most couples who marry plan to have children and to raise them together. A husband and wife are required by law to protect and care for their children. Marriage thus serves as the basis of family life.

In the United States, about 2.5 million couples marry each year. However, many people choose never to marry. Some people who remain single may not find a mate with whom they want to share their life. Others may not want the many responsibilities required of a successful marriage. Still others prefer to stay unmarried because they enjoy their independence.

Many married couples find they are not happy as husband and wife. Some marriages fail because the man and woman married when they were young and inexperienced in many ways. People who marry before they are 18 years old are much more likely to have unsuccessful marriages than if they had waited until they were older. A man and woman also have less of a chance of achieving a happy marriage if they marry primarily because the woman is pregnant. In addition, if a man and woman are of a different age, nationality, religion, or background, their chances of a successful marriage drop significantly.

In the United States, the rate of divorce among young couples has increased sharply since the mid 1960's. Statistics indicate that about half the marriages that took place during the 1970's will likely end in divorce. Most divorced people remarry, and many have a successful marriage with another partner.

Laws concerning marriage. A man and woman must follow certain laws when they marry. The United States and Canada have basically the same marriage laws. Neither nation has federal marriage laws, but each state and province has its own regulations.

In all except four states, both the man and woman must be at least 18 years old to marry without parental consent. Nebraska and Wyoming require a couple to be at least 19. Mississippi and Rhode Island have a minimum age of 21. Most states allow people to

marry as young as 16 with parental consent. In some states, a person under age 16 needs a judge's permission to marry.

According to law, both the man and woman must freely consent to marry. If a person is forced or tricked into marrying against his or her will, a judge will *annul* (cancel) the marriage.

State laws prohibit close relatives from marrying each other. Laws also forbid a person to marry if he or she is married to someone else. A person who marries a second time while a first marriage is still in effect commits the crime of *bigamy*.

Some states permit a couple to marry even if the bride or groom cannot be present at the wedding ceremony. However, another person must serve as a *proxy* (substitute) for the absent bride or groom. This type of marriage is called *marriage by proxy*.

In nearly all states, a couple must have a man license to marry. Some states require both the man and woman to have a blood test before they can obtain a marriage license. This test shows whether or not a person has syphilis, a sexually transmitted disease. Some states also require that the blood be tested for immunity to rubella. In some states, both the man and woman must also have a medical examination before they can get a marriage license.

Most states require a waiting period between the day a couple apply for a license and the day they marry. This period, which averages from three to five days, gives both people time to make sure they want to marry. The waiting period developed from a Roman Catholic custom that required a couple to announce their engagement publicly on each of the three Sundays before the wedding day. During the time between the first announcement and the wedding, anyone who believed that the couple should not marry was expected to say so. Today, some couples announce their engagement at church services or through church bulletins. Such announcements are called *banns*.

If an unmarried couple live together as husband and wife a court may declare them married after a certain period of time. The time period varies among the states that permit such *common-law*

marriages. It is usually several years. A couple do not have to have a license or wedding ceremony for a common-law marriage.

Divorce

Divorce. Divorce is the legal ending of a marriage. The laws of most nations, including the United States and Canada, permit divorce only under certain circumstances. Divorce is restricted chiefly because it breaks up a family, the basic unit of society. Some countries, including Ireland and the Philippines, prohibit divorce. Most men and women who seek a divorce do so because they cannot solve certain problems in their marriage. Such problems may include differences in goals, financial difficulties, or a poor sexual relationship.

In the United States, a person seeking a divorce generally must appear in court to explain why he or she wants to end the marriage. A judge then decides whether to grant a divorce. A few states prohibit remarriage for a certain period after a divorce. But in general, a man and woman may marry again – each other or someone else – after their divorce becomes final.

Divorce differs from *annulment* in which a court declares that a marriage has been invalid from its beginning. A person whose marriage has been annulled may remarry. Divorce also differs from *legal separation*, in which a court authorizes a husband and wife to live apart. *Spouses* (a husband and wife) who are legally separated may not remarry.

Divorce is a sizable problem in the United States and many other countries. Experts estimate that about 50 per cent of all U.S. marriages that took place in the 1980's are likely to end in divorce. In more than half these divorces, the couple has children under 18 years old. About a fourth of the children in the United States live with only one parent. Divorce affects many young children deeply. But many experts believe that living with one parent is less harmful to a child than living with both parents in an unhappy environment.

Most divorced men and women remarry, and many such marriages are successful. However, second marriages present special

problems of adjustment, especially for couples who have children from a former marriage. Families that include children from one or more previous marriages are called *stepfamilies* or *reconstituted families*. Such families have become more and more common as the divorce rate rises.

The first written divorce regulations were incorporated in the ancient Babylonian *Code of Hammurabi*. Many early societies permitted only the husband to get a divorce. The early Christians taught that marriage was permanent until death, and they abolished divorce in the areas they governed. They also established special church courts to deal with marriage matters. Beginning in the A.D. 1500's, Protestant reformers successfully worked to have matters of marriage and divorce placed under government jurisdiction.

Divorce rarely occurred in the American Colonies. Some colonies made no provision for divorce at all. But by the mid-1800's, almost every state had a divorce law. Today, the U.S. divorce rate is about 16 times as high as it was in 1867, the first year for which the Bureau of the Census published divorce figures.

Kinds of divorce. Each state of the United States has its own divorce laws. But all the states recognize a divorce granted by the state in which one or both of the spouses are legal residents. State laws set forth the *grounds for divorce* – that is, the reasons for which a divorce may be granted. Depending on the kind of grounds, a divorce can be classified as a *fault divorce* or a *no-fault divorce*.

Fault divorce. Courts traditionally have granted divorces chiefly on *fault grounds*. These grounds vary, but the most common ones are adultery, alcoholism, desertion, drug addiction, failure to support, imprisonment for felony, and mental or physical cruelty.

A person seeking a divorce on a fault ground must prove that his or her spouse committed the fault. For example, a woman seeking a divorce on the ground of desertion must prove that her husband deserted her. The husband may *contest* (argue against) the divorce action. Many divorces are uncontested. If the wife's proof is accepted, the judge grants her a divorce. But if the husband can prove

that his wife consented to or encouraged his action, the judge may refuse to grant a divorce. The judge also may rule against the wife if the husband can prove that she committed a legal fault.

No-fault divorce. A person seeking a divorce on a *no-fault ground* does not try to prove that the spouse committed a wrong. The person simply testifies that their marriage has failed. In many cases, the judge grants a divorce even if the person's spouse objects.

In 1969, California became the first state to enact a no-fault divorce law. The California law provides only two grounds for divorce. These grounds are (1) *irreconcilable differences* – that is, disagreements that cannot be settled and have led to the breakdown of the marriage; or (2) the incurable insanity of one spouse. Generally, a person may not tell the judge about any misconduct of the spouse.

Some states have replaced all traditional grounds for divorce with the single no-fault ground of marriage breakdown. Others have added this to their traditional grounds. Several states allow a couple to obtain a divorce on the ground that they have been separated for a certain period. Some states grant divorce on the ground of *incompatibility* (being unable to get along together).

Divorce provisions. A husband and wife planning a divorce must make arrangements for alimony, child custody and support, and division of their property. They may reach agreement on these arrangements through their lawyers. In some states, courts offer divorce counseling to *help* couples resolve disagreements. If the judge considers the agreement fair, the judge approves it. If the spouses cannot agree, the judge decides on the arrangements.

Financial arrangements. In the past, the judge ordered many divorced men to pay considerable alimony. They also had to give up some of their property and bear most of the responsibility for supporting their children. There were two chief reasons for this situation. First large numbers of divorced women had no job outside the home and needed money to support themselves and their children. Second, traditional fault laws provided that the

„guilty” spouse could not receive alimony. In many cases, the husband was the legally guilty spouse because his wife filed for the divorce, even though both might have wanted it.

Today, courts base their decisions on financial arrangements primarily on the financial condition of each spouse. Judges realize that many women have the qualifications to work outside the home and need not be fully supported by their former husband. Therefore, if both spouses can earn enough income to support themselves, the court may order that no alimony be paid. If the wife has a higher income than her husband, she may have to pay alimony to him. In addition, the parents may share responsibility for child support.

The court may also divide a couple’s property on the basis of financial circumstances. Under the *community property* laws of a few states, property acquired during a marriage belongs equally to both spouses. This property is divided equally in most cases.

Child custody arrangements. In the early and mid- 1900’s, judges granted custody of the children to the wife almost automatically in the majority of divorce cases. They believed that children should not be separated from the mother. But today, many judges realize that some children might be better off living with the father. Therefore, the court may grant custody to either parent. The judge also determines each parent’s rights to visit the children. The judge may ask the children with which parent they would prefer to live.

Some divorced parents return to court several times because one or both of them wants to challenge the child custody decision. If the court changes its decision, the children may have to leave the home of one parent and move in with the other. Such a move can harm children emotionally. As a result, some courts have become reluctant to move children unless they are in danger.

The U.S. divorce rate. The divorce rate is higher in the United States than in almost any other country. Experts have suggested many reasons for this high rate. (1) Divorce is more socially acceptable than ever before. (2) Many people expect more of

marriage than earlier generations did, and so they may be more easily disappointed. (3) More high-paying jobs are open to women. These opportunities have made wives less dependent economically on their husbands than women used to be. (4) Changes in divorce laws have made divorce easier to obtain.

In general, cities have a higher divorce rate than rural areas. The rate also varies among different states and religions, partly because divorce laws and court practices differ. But the rates probably also differ because of variances in the cultural, economic, racial, and religious composition of the population. In general, people with nonprofessional jobs and those with low incomes have a higher divorce rate than people with professional jobs and those with high incomes. But one nonprofessional group – farmers – has an extremely low divorce rate.

Most studies show that black couples have a higher divorce rate than white couples. Mixed marriages involving a black and a white apparently have about the same divorce rate as other marriages.

Of the three major religious groups in the United States, Roman Catholics have the lowest divorce rate and Protestants the highest. The Catholic Church holds that valid marriages cannot be dissolved. It allows its members to get a civil divorce to solve financial and child custody problems. But it does not believe such a divorce gives the right to remarry. If the church has annulled a marriage by declaring it invalid, the people involved are once again free to marry. Judaism and most Protestant groups permit divorce. Some surveys show that Catholic-Protestant couples and Christian-Jewish couples have a higher divorce rate than couples of the same religion. But one study showed no difference in the divorce rate of Catholic-Protestant couples.

CRIMINAL LAW

Crime

Crime. Crime is a term that refers to many types of misconduct forbidden by law. Murder – also called *homicide* – is a crime in all countries. In the United States, stealing a car is a crime. So is

resisting arrest, possessing or selling illegal drugs, and using the mails to cheat someone. Other crimes include appearing nude on a public street and driving while under the influence of alcohol. The list of acts considered crimes is constantly changing. For example, people in the United States no longer are charged with witchcraft, though many were accused of that crime in colonial Massachusetts. Today, it is becoming a serious crime to pollute the air and water. Pollution caused few problems and received little attention in colonial days. In England during the 1700's, it was not a crime for people to steal money entrusted to their care by an employer. Today, this type of theft, called embezzlement, is a crime.

From a legal standpoint, a crime is a violation of the *criminal law*. Such law deals with actions considered harmful to society. On the other hand, most harmful acts causing injury to another person are violations of the *civil law*. Some overlapping occurs in this classification. For example, murder and rape are committed against individuals, but the law considers them crimes because they threaten society. For this reason, a crime is regarded as an offense against the state.

An act is viewed as a crime if enough evidence exists to make a police officer, a prosecutor, or a judge believe that a violation of criminal law has taken place. However, the law does not consider accused people to be criminals unless a judge or jury finds them guilty. A criminal may be imprisoned or receive some other punishment, according to the laws of the community in which the crime was committed or the trial was held.

A person who commits any crime is called a criminal. But the term is sometimes used only for a person who commits such a serious crime as murder or robbery. At other times, the term refers only to habitual criminals.

The study of criminal behavior is called *criminology*, and experts in this field are called *criminologists*. Criminologists study crime and criminals for various reasons. They may try to determine where, when, and why different types of crime occur. They also

seek the relationships between criminals and the victims, as well as the most effective ways to prevent crime.

Types of crimes. Crimes may be classified in various ways. For example, they sometimes are grouped according to the seriousness of the offense. For statistical purposes, many governments divide crimes into offenses against people, against property, and against public order or public morality. Some social scientists classify crimes according to the motives of the offenders. Such crimes might include economic crimes, political crimes, and crimes of passion. Other important kinds of crime include organized crime and white-collar crime.

Crimes are often divided between acts that most people would consider evil and acts that lawmakers decide should be regulated in the interest of the community. The first group includes such major crimes as arson, assault, burglary, kidnapping, larceny, murder, rape, and robbery. The second group of crimes includes violations of income tax laws, liquor-control regulations, pure food and drug laws, and traffic laws. Crimes in the first group are called *substantive offenses* and usually involve severe punishments. Most of these crimes have long been forbidden by the English *common law*, the source of criminal law codes in all states in the United States except Louisiana. Offenses in the second group are called *regulatory offenses* and are generally punished by fines or notices to follow the court's orders.

Felonies and misdemeanors. Crimes are frequently classified according to their seriousness as *felonies* or *misdemeanors*. Generally, felonies are more serious than misdemeanors. Under federal and state criminal law systems, felonies are punishable by death, or by imprisonment for a year or more. A misdemeanor is punishable by a fine or by imprisonment for less than a year. Most people convicted of felonies serve their sentence in state or federal prisons. People convicted of misdemeanors serve their sentence in city or county jails or houses of correction.

The classification of crimes as felonies or misdemeanors is inexact. Not all courts draw the same distinction between felonies and

misdemeanors. A felony in one state may be a misdemeanor in another.

Crimes against people or property. Crimes against people include assault, kidnapping, murder, and sexual attacks. Such crimes usually bring severe punishment. Crimes against property include arson, motor vehicle theft, burglary, embezzlement, forgery, fraud, larceny, and vandalism. In most cases, these crimes carry lighter penalties than do crimes against people.

Robbery is the crime most difficult to classify. The law generally considers robbery a crime against the person. Robbery involves taking property from a person by using force, such as a mugging or other strong-arm tactics.

Crimes against public order or morality include disorderly conduct, gambling, prostitution, public drunkenness, and *vagrancy* (having no permanent residence or visible means of support). These offenses generally involve lighter penalties than do crimes against people or property.

Criminologists question whether some offenses against public order or morality should be considered crimes. For example, many experts believe that habitual drunkenness is a medical problem and that the offender should be given medical help instead of being put in jail. There is also wide disagreement about whether certain practices hurt society and should be considered crimes. Such acts include gambling, marijuana use, and homosexuality between consenting adults.

Organized crime consists of large-scale activities by groups of gangsters or racketeers. Such groups are often called the *crime syndicate* or the *underworld*. Organized crime specializes in providing illegal goods and services. Its activities include gambling, prostitution, the illegal sale of drugs, and *loan-sharking* (lending money at extremely high rates of interest). Many of these activities are often called *victimless crimes* because both the buyer and the seller take part in them willingly.

Most activities of the crime syndicate are not reported to the police. People who use the illegal services try to avoid the police. When

the crime syndicate invades a legitimate business or labor union, it uses terror, blackmail, and other methods to keep people from going to the police. Even when the illegal activities are discovered, prosecutors have difficulty convicting the gangsters because of the lack of reliable witnesses. In addition, the syndicate frequently tries to bribe witnesses or law officers and sometimes succeeds in doing so. The syndicate also furnishes bail money and lawyers for members who are arrested.

White-collar crime originally included only criminal acts committed by business and professional people while earning their living. The term referred to such crimes as stock market swindles and other kinds of fraud. Today, the term covers such acts as cheating in the payment of taxes—which may or may not be done in connection with one's business. It may apply to petty thefts by employees, as well as to million-dollar stock market swindles. It could also include a service station owner's charging for an automobile repair that was not made, or a physician's billing a patient for services that were not performed.

The increasing use of computers has created new opportunities for white-collar crime. Computer crimes are difficult to detect but easy to accomplish once a criminal learns the code or password to activate the system. Thus, automatic bank tellers increase the possibility of fraud or theft. Computer access by bank employees creates additional opportunities for embezzlement.

Many consumer protection laws are aimed at white-collar crime. These laws regulate business and professional activities to protect consumers. During the 1960's and early 1970's, consumer protection became one of the fastest growing fields of criminal law. In the United States, for example, the federal government developed new rules and penalties. The regulations were intended to control air and water pollution, to prevent fraudulent trade practices, and to alert people seeking loans about actual interest costs.

Political crime became an increasingly serious criminal activity during the 1970's. It includes acts of terrorism against innocent

people and assassinations of leading political figures throughout the world. Unlike many criminals who seek money or personal gain through crime, most terrorists and assassins commit crimes to show support for a political cause. Since the early 1970's, political crimes such as airplane hijackings, assassinations, bombings, and the taking of hostages have come more frequent. As a result, most governments have taken steps to guard against terrorists. For example, security at airports, embassies, and other potential targets has been increased, and specially trained law enforcement or military units have been formed.

The extent of crime. Crime is one of the world's oldest social problems. Almost every generation has felt itself threatened by increasing crime and violence. However, no country has yet developed completely reliable methods for measuring the volume and trend of crime.

Crime in the United States. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) serves as the main source of information about crime in the United States. The FBI has maintained national crime statistics only since 1930. Reporting procedures between 1930 and 1958 gave only a very inexact national estimate of crime. Since 1958, improved reporting methods have provided increasingly reliable figures. The FBI receives monthly and annual crime reports from law enforcement agencies throughout the country. It summarizes and publishes this information in semiannual reports and in its annual *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States*.

The FBI's Crime Index measures the amount and distribution of serious crime in the United States. The index covers seven crimes that the FBI considers serious offenses likely to be reported most accurately to the police. Four of these offenses are classified as violent crimes – aggravated assault, forcible rape, murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, and robbery. The other three are crimes against property – burglary, larceny-theft, and motor vehicle theft.

FBI reports show that the U.S. crime rate per 100,000 population has gone up sharply since 1960. From 1960 to 1990, the crime rate

for reported serious offenses rose more than 400 per cent. However, criminologists and police authorities find it difficult to determine how much of this increase actually occurred and how much resulted from improved crime-reporting procedures. In 1960, slightly more than 3.3 million serious crimes were reported in the United States. About 14.5 million serious crimes were reported in 1990. Crimes against property accounted for 87 per cent of the offenses reported in 1990. The remaining 13 per cent of the offenses reported in 1990 were for crimes of violence against the person.

Many people believe that most arrests are made for the same serious crimes covered by the FBI's crime index. But such crimes account for only about one-fifth of the arrests each year in the United States. Four offenses related to alcohol and drugs –driving under the influence, drug abuse, drunkenness, and liquor law violations –account for more than a third of all arrests.

Crime in other countries. Countries vary greatly in their definition of crime and in the reliability of their crime statistics. Conditions that affect the amount of crime also vary from one country to another. Such conditions include the proportion of people living in cities, the proportion of young and old people in the population, and the degree of conflict among various cultural, economic, and racial groups.

One basis of comparison is the homicide rate in various countries. Most murders are reported to the police, though their definition may vary. In 1988, the United States reported 8.3 homicides per 100,000 population. This rate was 1.5 times the rate of Canada, 4 times the rate of the United Kingdom, and 7 times the rate of Japan.

A comparison of the changing crime rates within a country proves more valuable than comparing the rates of two or more countries. Studies show that crime rates for both property crimes and violent crimes are rising in most countries. For example, from 1980 to 1988, the property crime rate in the United Kingdom increased about 30 per cent and the violent crime rate increased about 70 per

cent. During this same period, the property crime rate in the United States went up 3 per cent and the violent crime rate went up 20 per cent. In Canada, the property crime rate increased about 30 per cent, but the violent crime rate decreased 7 per cent.

Comparisons of the crime rates of various nations indicate that increases in crime accompany increases in the rate of social change. The crime rate stays relatively stable in traditional societies where people believe their way of life will continue. Crime rates tend to rise in societies where rapid changes take place in where people live and what they do for a living – and in their hopes for their future well-being. Crime rates are particularly high in industrial nations that have large cities.

Unreported crime. Statistics about crime are based on complaints to the police, offenses observed by the police, and arrests of suspects. Much crime goes unreported. One national survey of 10,000 U.S. families has shown that family members were victims of major crimes in more than twice as many offenses as those covered by police statistics that year. Many other types of crimes also remain unreported, including offenses against businesses, organizations, and public agencies and against public order and morality.

The U.S. Bureau of the Census and the Bureau of Justice Statistics of the U.S. Department of Justice produce an annual survey called *Criminal Victimization in the United States*. This survey reveals that in the early 1990's, 61 per cent of all violent crime and 46 per cent of personal theft went unreported to the police.

The cost of crime to its victims is impossible to determine accurately. Any estimate based on existing data will probably underestimate the cost considerably. For example, a dishonest business scheme may cost consumers or investors millions of dollars, but no records are kept of such losses. Similarly, there is no way to determine the profits to the crime syndicate of gambling, loan sharking, narcotics sales, and prostitution.

The cost of crime prevention and control measures is also difficult to determine. Expenditures for law enforcement and criminal

justice agencies in the United States total about \$30 billion annually. However, these agencies also deal with many noncriminal matters, such as traffic control. About 40 per cent of police costs can be directly charged to crime control. In addition, most courts handle both criminal and civil cases.

Causes of crime. People commit crimes for various reasons. For example, many people steal things they could not obtain otherwise. Others, such as drug addicts, steal to get money to buy narcotics or other things they need. Some shoplifters steal for excitement, but others do so because they are poor. Many automobile thieves take cars for joy-riding, but others strip down the stolen autos and sell them. Many embezzlers take money from their employers to meet a personal emergency, intending to turn the money.

The motives also vary in crimes of violence. A robber may kill the victim to avoid detection. Some gangsters torture people to obtain money. A man may beat his wife in a fit of rage during a quarrel.

Biological and psychological explanations. Many studies have sought to explain crime. Most of them compare habitual criminals with people who have not been convicted of crimes to try to find important differences between the two groups.

Since the late 1800's, for example, researchers trained in the biological sciences have searched for physical differences. Such studies involve differences in body type the pattern of brain waves, and the formation of genes. None of these studies has proved that criminals have any physical traits that make them different from other people.

Research by psychiatrists and psychologists stresses personality differences resulting from experiences in childhood or later. This research shows that many people who became criminals were neglected by their parents or were given harsh or uncertain discipline. Such treatment left them insecure and demanding in their relations with others. Their own wants made them ignore the needs or rights of others. But researchers have had difficulty making a direct connection between emotional needs and crime

because many people with emotional problems find acceptable ways of solving them.

Social conditions and crime. Sociologists have conducted crime studies that focus on the neighborhood and community rather than on the individual. Some of these studies deal with how a person becomes committed to a career of crime, and others try to explain differences in crime rates.

The highest crime rates occur in the most deprived sections of large cities. These are the areas where it is most difficult to train children to become law-abiding citizens. Such areas have the highest rate of broken homes. Even in many homes where both parents are present, emotional conflicts and health and financial problems affect family life. Slum areas usually have the poorest schools and the highest unemployment rates. These neighborhoods have much run-down, overcrowded housing and poor recreation facilities.

For many young people, the excitement of the streets provides the principal escape from boredom and seemingly unsolvable problems. These streets are also the scene of much vice and crime – gambling, prostitution, narcotics use and sale, public drunkenness, and acts of violence. Law enforcement in the inner city is difficult, partly because too few police officers patrol the neighborhoods. In addition, many of the people fear the police and refuse to cooperate with them.

Most residents of the high-crime slum areas of many large cities are blacks or members of other minority groups. As a result, the crime rate for such minorities is higher than that for the white majority. Nonwhites are also more likely to become the victims of crimes.

Most crimes in the United States are committed by boys and young men. People under 18 years of age account for 43 per cent of the arrests for motor vehicle theft, 33 per cent for burglary, 30 per cent for larceny-theft, and 24 per cent for robbery. This same group makes up about 15 per cent of all people arrested for murder, rape, and aggravated assault.

There are several reasons why young people commit most crimes. As people become older and settled in their jobs and families, they acquire a stake in society that they would not care to risk for momentary gain. On the other hand, young people have fewer job opportunities. The unskilled jobs available seem dull when compared to the quick and exciting returns from theft. Young people are also more willing to risk arrest because they have less stake in things as they are.

About 80 per cent of the people arrested for crimes are males. In 1989, men were arrested most often for driving under the influence of alcohol, which accounted for 13 per cent of all male arrests. Women were arrested most often for larceny-theft. This crime accounted for 19 per cent of all female arrests in 1989 and 77 per cent of female arrests for serious crimes reported in the FBI's Crime Index.

Many violent crimes are committed by people who are acquainted with their victims. In over half of all murders, for example, the killer and the victim knew each other. In fact, about a sixth of all murders are committed by a member of the victim's family. In numerous cases, because so many murderers know their victims, the police have a relatively easy time identifying the killer. As a result, the arrest and conviction rate for murders is high. Police have a much harder time identifying robbers and burglars, few of whom know the victims. Handguns were used in about 50 per cent of the murders reported during the early 1990's.

Crime prevention. For hundreds of years, the criminal law has been built around the idea that wrongdoers must be punished for their crimes. The most basic argument for punishment is that it preserves law and order and respect for authority. From this point of view, punishment does two things. It upholds the law, and it prevents others from thinking they can get away with doing the same thing without punishment. Punishment is based on the idea that many people have a barely controlled desire to act in forbidden ways.

Many criminologists stress the need for improving the performance of criminal justice agencies – the police, the courts, and correctional institutions. For example, they point out that better educated, equipped, and coordinated police forces are more effective in controlling crime.

One of the best ways to reduce crime is to reform or rehabilitate habitual criminals. The fundamental problem is not the first offender or the petty thief but the repeated offender who commits increasingly serious crimes. According to criminologists, crime would decrease greatly if all such offenders could be turned away from wrongdoing. But United States prisons have had little success in rehabilitating inmates. About two-thirds of the people arrested in any year have a previous criminal record.

Rehabilitation of criminals could probably be improved greatly if experts could provide the right kind of program for different types of offenders. Criminals vary widely in the kinds of crimes they commit, their emotional problems, and their social and economic backgrounds. Not all offenders can be helped by the same course of treatment. Many require the aid of physicians, psychiatrists, or psychologists. Others respond well to educational or vocational training. In the late 1980's, there were about 850,000 criminals in U.S. city, county, state, and federal correctional institutions, and about 300,000 more were out on parole. Society spent about \$6 billion to operate prisons and related institutions yearly, but only a small fraction of this sum goes to provide treatment. Nearly all the funds are used to feed and clothe prisoners and to keep them under control.

Since the late 1970's, however, there has been a trend toward punishment rather than rehabilitation of offenders. Prison sentences are longer. Capital punishments have been used more frequently since the U.S. Supreme Court lifted a death penalty ban in 1976. Nevertheless, crime prevention should aim to prevent people from becoming criminals in the first place. Such a goal probably would benefit from reform programs in urban slums. These programs

would include improved housing, schools, and recreation programs and increased job opportunities.

There are many other ways to reduce crime. People can be educated or persuaded to take greater precautions against crime. They can be taught, for example, how to protect their homes from burglary. Automobile thefts would drop sharply if drivers removed their keys and locked their cars when leaving them. Better lighting helps discourage purse-snatchings and other robberies on city streets and in parks. Many experts believe that strict gun-licensing laws would greatly reduce crime.

Bribery

Bribery. Bribery means giving or offering something of value to a public official or other person in a position of public trust, who in return violates his or her duty or the law in order to benefit the giver. Most authorities believe that many people guilty of bribery are not arrested. Legally, bribery of a public official is a crime for both the giver and receiver of the bribe. Bribery of a private person, while closely related, is not a crime.

A bribe need not consist of money, but may take the form of property, position, or undue influence. Special-interest groups sometimes try to bribe voters and lawmakers into voting a particular way, or into passing a particular law.

In most courts, bribery of court officers, jurors, and witnesses is punishable by law. Sentences vary for people found guilty. Imprisonment terms of 1 to 10 years or fines may be imposed.

Burglary

Burglary is a crime that is defined differently by the laws of various states in the United States. Usually, a crime is defined as a burglary when a person enters another person's house or place of business without permission, with the intention of committing a crime.

Many people confuse burglary with the crime of *robbery*, but the two are quite different. A criminal commits a robbery by taking something from a person by force or by threats of violence. A criminal commits a burglary by entering a house or building

illegally, even though the criminal makes no contact with any person inside. Thus, a criminal *robs* a person, but *burglarizes* a house.

Burglary is a *felony* (serious crime). It is punishable by imprisonment, usually for up to 20 years.

Forgery

Forgery is deliberately tampering with a written paper for the purpose of deceit or fraud. Common kinds of forgery include fraudulently signing other person's name to a check or document, changing the figures on a check to alter its amount, and making changes in a will or contract. The punishment for forgery is usually imprisonment. Intent to defraud must be proved before a person can be convicted of forgery. Literary forgers have tried to pass off forged documents as rare manuscripts.

Fraud

Fraud is an intentional untruth or a dishonest scheme used to take deliberate and unfair advantage of another person or group of persons. It includes any means, such as surprise, trickery, or cunning, by which one cheats another. *Actual fraud* includes cases of misrepresentation designed specifically to cheat others, as when a company sells lots in a subdivision that does not exist. Actual fraud includes something said, done, or omitted with the design of continuing what a person knows to be a cheat or a deception. *Constructive fraud* includes acts or words that tend to mislead others, as when a person sells an automobile without telling the purchaser that the car stalls often.

Usually, the victim of fraud may sue the wrongdoer and recover the amount of damages caused by the fraud or deceit. But the victim must be able to prove damages.

Statute of Frauds, enacted in England in 1677, required certain common types of contracts, such as those dealing with real estate, to be in writing. The states of the United States and the provinces of Canada have laws based on this statute.

Kidnapping

Kidnapping is the act of seizing and holding a person against his or her will. The word *kidnap* comes from the two slang words *kid*, or *child*, and *nab*, which means *to steal*. At one time kidnapping referred especially to stealing children. However, the word kidnapping has come to be used also in cases where adults are seized and held.

Slaves were often kidnapped and sold in the slave market. Sailors were *shanghaied*, or kidnapped, and forced to work on ships. During the early 1800's, ships were occasionally stopped and entire crews *impressed*, or forced to work on other ships. An illegal arrest is actually a form of kidnapping. Fleeing criminals often kidnap one or more persons and hold them as *hostages* to reduce the chance of being captured.

Kidnapping for *ransom*, or reward, became common in the United States during the 1920's and 1930's. After Charles A. Lindbergh's son was kidnapped and killed in 1932, Congress passed the „Lindbergh law”. This law makes kidnapping a federal crime if the victim is taken out of the state. In 1956, Congress changed the law to allow the Federal Bureau of Investigation to work on any kidnap case after 24 hours. Under federal law, the maximum punishment for kidnapping is life imprisonment.

Smuggling

Smuggling is the illegal transportation of people or goods into or out of a country or area. Most people who smuggle goods are trying to avoid the payment of *customs duties*, or taxes. But drug smugglers want big profits for illegal drugs – that is, drugs whose possession and sale are normally forbidden by law. Most countries put customs officers at seaports and along their borders. These officers may examine shipments of merchandise as well as the baggage of travelers to make sure customs duties are paid. Some countries ban the importation of a particular article. For example, the United States once prohibited the importing of alcoholic liquors. Violation of such laws also is called smuggling. Illegal drugs involved in smuggling include marijuana, cocaine, and heroin.

People guilty of smuggling may be punished by fines, imprisonment, or by having the goods taken, according to the seriousness of the offense. In the United States, no one is held guilty of smuggling unless he or she has acted intentionally.

Arson

Arson is the crime of willfully and maliciously damaging or destroying a building or other property by fire or explosion. In most states of the United States, arson includes burning one's own property to collect insurance payments on it. In some cases, arson is committed *for* revenge against a building owner or occupant. Other fires are set to destroy evidence of another crime, such as murder or burglary.

Still other arson cases result from vandalism or *pyromania*, an *uncontrollable* urge to set fires. Arson is difficult to prove in most cases because fire can destroy almost all evidence of the crime. Also, most cities lack enough trained arson investigators.

The police and fire departments of most major cities have formed arson squads and are training their members to investigate cases of suspected arson. Insurance companies have become increasingly unwilling to pay for losses resulting from fire unless a thorough investigation has been made. Many fire departments have called for the adoption of stronger laws against arson.

Murder

Murder. When one person intentionally kills another without legal justification or excuse, the crime is called *murder*. The clearest example of this is a case where one person deliberately kills another because of hatred, envy, or greed. But there are also situations where a killing is considered murder even when no specific intent to kill exists. For example, a person who accidentally kills someone while committing a robbery is guilty of murder. The fact that the person is committing a serious crime indicates that he or she has a reckless disregard for human life and safety. This takes the place of intent to kill. The penalty for murder is a long prison sentence or death. But many national, state, and provincial governments have done away with the death penalty.

A killing that has legal justification is called *justifiable homicide*. For example, a killing in self-defense would be a justifiable homicide. The law regards a purely accidental killing as an *excusable homicide*. For example, if a pedestrian steps in front of a carefully driven automobile and is killed, the accident would be considered an excusable homicide. When a person in a fit of anger intentionally kills another person after the victim has provoked the attack, the killing is called *voluntary manslaughter*. When a person's death results from reckless driving or other extreme negligence on the part of the killer, the offense is called *involuntary manslaughter*. The penalties in most cases of manslaughter are less severe than those for murder.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW

Bill of Rights

Bill of rights. Bill of rights is a document that describes the fundamental liberties of the people. It also forbids the government to violate these rights. The constitutions of many democratic countries have bills of rights that guarantee everyone the freedoms of speech, of religion, and of the press, and the right of assembly. Individuals are considered to be born with certain *inalienable rights* – that is, rights that governments may not take away from them. These rights are considered to be part of a „higher law”, a body of universal principles of right and justice that is superior to laws created by governments. Some of these rights, such as the freedoms of speech and of the press, support democracy. Others, such as the right to trial by jury, are essential to justice.

Many of these ideas were developed in ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. In modern history such individuals as the philosophers John Locke and John Stuart Mill, the writers John Milton and Thomas Paine, and the statesmen Thomas Jefferson and James Madison fought for the acceptance of these views.

The United States Constitution, adopted in 1788, contained few personal guarantees. James Madison led in the adoption of 10 amendments that became known as the *Bill of Rights*. The bill came into effect on Dec. 15, 1791. This day is celebrated as Bill of Rights Day.

The first 8 amendments contain the fundamental rights and freedoms of every citizen. The 9th Amendment forbids the government to limit freedoms and rights that are not listed in the Constitution. The 10th Amendment limits the powers of the federal government to those that are granted to it in the Constitution.

The U.S. Supreme Court decides if a law restricts any liberties listed in, or implied by, the Bill of Rights. However, it has not stated exactly which rights are implied. The Supreme Court has held that under the 14th Amendment most of the Bill of Rights also applies to state governments.

The freedoms and rights of individuals, however, are not without limits. For example, freedom of speech does not protect a person who shouts „Fire” in a crowded theater when there is no fire. The Supreme Court has held that freedom of speech may be limited only when its exercise creates a „clear and present danger” to society.

State constitutions. Each state constitution contains a bill of rights or a declaration of rights. Some state bills of rights are more extensive than the federal bill of rights. Virginia adopted the first state bill of rights in 1776.

Canada’s Constitution includes a bill of rights called the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. The charter took effect on April 17, 1982. Previously, Canada had a bill of rights that applied only to areas under federal jurisdiction and did not bind provincial governments.

The charter guarantees freedom of speech, religion, assembly, and other basic rights. It also guarantees democratic government and bans discrimination based on race, ethnic or national background, color, religion, age, sex, or mental or physical disability.

The charter establishes the right of every Canadian citizen to move freely from one province to another and guarantees other mobility rights. It declares that English and French are the official languages of Canada and have equal status in Parliament, the courts, and the government of Canada. All of the rights in the Canadian charter are guaranteed equally to men and women.

A key provision of the charter centers on minority language educational rights. Under this provision, English-and French-speaking parents can have their children educated, „where numbers warrant”, in their own language. Officials of the province of Quebec oppose the minority language provision. They argue that it restricts the province's power over education and its ability to preserve the French culture. The majority of Quebec's people by far are of French descent, and they prefer that most children there be educated in French.

The charter's protections extend to citizens in all of Canada's provinces and territories. A clause in the charter allows Parliament and the provincial legislatures to pass laws overriding certain rights that are guaranteed. But such laws have to be renewed every five years.

English bill of rights. In 1689, Parliament presented to King William III and Queen Mary a declaration that became known as the *Bill of Rights*. It stands with Magna Carta and the Petition of Right as the legal guarantees of English liberty. The Bill of Rights listed certain rights that were the „true, ancient, and indubitable rights and liberties of the people” of the English kingdom. It settled the succession to the throne, and limited the powers of the king in such matters as taxation and keeping up a standing army.

French bill of rights. The French adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen in 1789. This document attempted to define the revolutionary war cry of „Liberty, Equality, Fraternity”. It guarantees religious freedom, freedom of speech and of the press, and personal security. This bill of rights has been added to the French Constitution.

The United Nations General Assembly adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights on Dec. 10, 1948. The declaration asserts that all persons are equal in dignity and rights, and have the right to life, liberty, and security. It also lists certain social and cultural rights.

Citizenship

Citizenship. Citizenship is full membership in a nation or in some other unit of government. Citizenship is also called *nationality*. Almost all people have citizenship in at least one country. Citizens have certain rights, such as the right to vote and the right to hold public office. They also have certain duties, such as the duty to pay taxes and to serve on a jury.

Not all the people in a nation are citizens of that country. For example, many countries have noncitizen nationals. The word *national* is often used as another word for *citizen*. In some cases, however, *national* means *a person who owes loyalty to a country but lacks full membership in it*. Noncitizen nationals of the United States include the people of American Samoa, a group of Pacific islands controlled by the United States. The people of American Samoa have the protection of the U.S. government but lack some of the special rights of citizens.

People who are neither citizens nor noncitizen nationals of a country are *aliens* there. Most aliens are citizens or noncitizen nationals of one country who are traveling or living in another. Many aliens have a permit called a *visa* allowing them to visit or live where they do not hold citizenship. *Illegal aliens* are noncitizens living in a country without proper papers.

The laws or beliefs of a country might deny some rights to certain citizens. Such people are sometimes called *second-class citizens*. Many have a language, race, or religion different from that of the country's largest or most powerful group. For example, the South African government has made blacks second-class citizens. Under South African law, blacks lack the right to vote in national and provincial elections. In 1948, South Africa established a policy of rigid racial segregation called *apartheid*. Under apartheid, blacks

and other non-whites faced official discrimination in education, employment, and other areas. In 1991, the government repealed the last of the laws that had formed the legal basis of apartheid. But nonwhites in South Africa still face much unofficial segregation and discrimination.

Under the Constitution and other laws, no American may be made a second-class citizen. Citizens receive equal protection of the law, no matter what their race, color, or religion. But some Americans treat certain groups as second-class citizens despite the law.

The word *citizen* comes from the Latin word *civitas*, which in ancient times meant *membership in a city*. Today, citizenship refers mainly to membership in a nation.

What it means to be a citizen. The rights of citizens differ from nation to nation. The Constitution of the United States provides the basic rights of American citizens, and laws passed by Congress give additional rights. These rights are called *civil rights*. They include freedom of speech, freedom of religion, and *freedom of assembly* (the right to gather peacefully for political or other purposes). American citizens have the right to vote for the President and members of Congress and to run for government office themselves. U.S. citizens have the right to travel throughout the United States. American citizens, unlike those of some countries, cannot be forced to leave their homeland. American citizenship cannot be taken away, except for certain serious actions.

Aliens and non-citizen nationals share many of the rights of U.S. citizens. But they cannot vote, hold public office, or do certain other things that citizens can do.

The rights of citizens have certain limits. For example, U.S. citizens must be at least 18 years old to vote. States also can limit voting rights to people who have registered to vote. Freedom of speech does not allow a person to tell lies that damage someone's reputation. Many other civil rights also have limits.

The duties of citizens, like citizens' rights, differ from nation to nation. Most governments demand that citizens pay taxes, defend

their country, and obey its laws. Some governments require certain citizens to serve on juries.

Many people believe that citizens also have duties not demanded by law, such as voting, learning about public problems, and trying to help other people. Many of these duties go along with rights. For example, the duty to vote comes with the right to vote. The duty to learn about public problems comes with freedom of speech and of the press, which protect the open discussion of public events and the exchange of ideas.

Aliens must obey the laws of the country in which they are traveling or living, except for those that bind only citizens. In addition, aliens must obey some of the laws of their homeland. For example, some foreigners who work in the United States must pay taxes both to the U.S. government and to the government of their own country. Travelers who break the laws of a country they are visiting may be put on trial and fined or imprisoned. Many nations grant *diplomatic immunity* to aliens who represent foreign governments. Diplomatic immunity is a set of special rights granted to the representatives of foreign governments and to the representatives' families and staffs. In many countries, these rights include freedom from arrest search, and taxation.

Ways of becoming a citizen. Nations have various laws that govern the granting of citizenship. People become citizens in two ways; (1) by birth and (2) by naturalization.

Birth. Most people become citizens of a country simply by being born there. The right to citizenship in the country of one's birth is called *jus soli*, a Latin phrase that means *right of soil*. The laws of most nations, including Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, grant citizenship based on *jus soli*. Some nations limit *jus soli* to children whose parents already have citizenship in that nation. Some nations also deny *jus soli* to certain groups of persons. Such persons include children who are born in a country where their parents are serving as diplomatic representatives. Persons denied *jus soli* also include babies born to *refugees*

(persons who have been forced from their homeland by war or some other difficulty).

Some countries use another rule of citizenship instead of *jus soli* – or in addition to it. This rule provides that the citizenship of children is determined by the nationality of their parents, no matter where the children are born. The right to citizenship in the country of one's parents is called *jus sanguinis*. This phrase is a Latin term that means *right of blood*. Canada, France, the United States, and a number of other nations grant *jus sanguinis* to children born abroad if one or both parents are citizens.

Naturalization is the legal process by which foreigners become citizens of a country they have adopted. Each nation sets requirements that aliens must meet to become naturalized. For example, aliens cannot undergo naturalization in Canada or the United States unless they have lived in their new country for a number of years. On the other hand, Israel allows Jewish immigrants to become Israeli citizens the day they arrive under a rule called the Law of Return. Many nations naturalize only people who understand the rights and duties of citizenship and can use the national language. The United States and certain other countries require aliens to give up citizenship in their homelands to become naturalized.

Naturalization usually takes place in a ceremony in which qualified aliens promise loyalty to their new country. In the United States, many naturalization ceremonies take place on Citizenship Day, September 17.

Treaties or the passage of special laws may naturalize groups of people without the usual naturalization process. For example, an act of Congress naturalized the people of Puerto Rico in 1917. The United States had taken over Puerto Rico through the treaty that ended the Spanish-American War in 1898.

Dual citizenship. Some people hold citizenship in two nations. The condition of being a citizen of two nations is called *dual citizenship* or *dual nationality*,

Some people gain dual citizenship by birth. For example, a baby born to a French family visiting the United States would have U.S. citizenship by *jus soli*. The baby also would have French citizenship by *jus sanguinis*. People whose parents are citizens of two countries might have dual nationality by *jus sanguinis*.

Some people have dual citizenship as a result of naturalization. For example, a nation might allow its naturalized citizens to keep their original citizenship. Such persons could claim citizenship in two countries. Or, a nation might refuse to allow its people to give up their citizenship. People who declared that they no longer were citizens of such a country and became naturalized in another still would be claimed as citizens by the original nation.

The loss of citizenship. Expatriation is the act of giving up one's citizenship a country. Such countries as Canada and the United States allow citizens to expatriate themselves. The term *expatriation* also means the act of taking away a person's citizenship in a country.

United States law provides that citizens might be expatriated if they willingly commit certain acts. Such acts include becoming naturalized in another country, promising loyalty to another country, and serving in another country's armed forces or government. An American may also be expatriated for trying to overthrow the United States government by force. U.S. law provides a process by which expatriated Americans can become citizens again.

Statelessness is the lack of citizenship in any country. Children of alien parents are born stateless if the country of their birth does not grant *jus soli* and the parents' homeland does not grant *jus sanguinis*. People can become stateless by giving up citizenship in one country without gaining citizenship in another.

Some people become stateless as a result of government action. For example, a government might punish citizens by expatriating them, leaving them stateless. In 1935, the German government led by the Nazi dictator Adolf Hitler expatriated all Jews living in

Germany. Many other people become stateless when their homelands are destroyed by war.

In the United States, a stateless person is considered an alien. Unlike other aliens, however, stateless persons have no government from which to ask protection.

U.S. citizenship laws

The Constitution, as it was first written, did not clearly say how citizenship would be granted. The writers of the Constitution probably believed that citizens of the 13 original states would keep their state citizenship after they became citizens of the United States. Later, the United States followed the British practice of granting *jus soli*. In 1790, Congress adopted laws that provided *jus sanguinis* to children born to American parents abroad if the father had lived in the United States.

Today, the Constitution protects citizenship mainly through the 14th Amendment. This amendment establishes *jus soli* for nearly everyone born in the United States. It guarantees citizenship to „all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof“. Only children of foreign diplomats and other persons not *subject to the jurisdiction* (under the authority) of the United States lack *jus soli*. Under the 14th Amendment, United States citizens automatically become citizens of a state as well, simply by living in that state. A special law grants citizenship to Indians on reservations.

The Supreme Court of the United States has used the Eighth Amendment to limit Congress's powers of expatriation. The Eighth Amendment forbids cruel and unusual punishments. The court has ruled that citizens cannot be expatriated for deserting U.S. military forces during wartime or for avoiding military duty by living abroad during a war.

Other constitutional amendments protect the voting rights of certain groups of citizens. For example, the 15th Amendment states that citizens cannot be denied the right to vote because of their race. The 19th Amendment gives women the vote. The 26th

Amendment provides that citizens who are at least 18 years old cannot be denied voting rights because of their age.

The first 10 amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, protect the civil rights of citizens, noncitizen nationals, and aliens. The Bill of Rights provides freedom of speech, religion, and the press. In addition, it safeguards the rights of persons accused of crimes and promises fair treatment by the government in several other matters.

Laws passed by Congress regulate the granting of citizenship by birth and by naturalization. Under *jus sanguinis*, children born abroad have U.S. citizenship if one or both parents are citizens. If only one parent is a citizen, that parent must have lived in the United States or one of its possessions for 10 years, 5 of them after the age of 14.

Naturalization is limited to aliens who are at least 18 years old. Applicants for naturalization must have lived in the United States for a certain number of years. In addition, they must prove that they understand the U.S. political system, follow generally accepted moral standards, and can use the English language. They also must show that in the 10 years before naturalization, they have not supported any disloyal political belief or group. Congress often passes laws that excuse certain aliens from one or more of the requirements for naturalization. In many cases, alien children under the age of 18 automatically become U.S. citizens if one or both of their parents become naturalized. Naturalized citizens cannot serve as President or Vice President of the United States. However, naturalized citizens have all the other rights and duties that citizens by birth have.

The McCarran Walter Act establishes the basic laws of U.S. citizenship and immigration. This act, also known as the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, has undergone several changes since its adoption. Originally, the law admitted only a certain number of immigrants of each nationality. But a law passed by Congress in 1965 gave preference to immigrants with skills needed in the United States and to close relatives of U.S. citizens. A 1990 law continued these preferences. Aliens must be admitted

as legal immigrants to get U.S. citizenship. People who flee to the United States after being officially certified as refugees may receive immigrant status.

Canadian citizenship. Canada regulates citizenship through the Citizenship Act which took effect in 1977. Under this law, a person can become a citizen of Canada in any of three ways: 1) by being born in Canada, (2) by having at least one parent with Canadian citizenship, and (3) by being naturalized.

The right to acquire citizenship has certain limits. For example, children born in Canada to foreign diplomats do not automatically become Canadian citizens. Canadian citizens born abroad must fulfill certain requirements to keep their citizenship. To become naturalized in Canada, aliens must be at least 18 years old and must have lived in Canada for at least three years on a permanent basis. They also must know about Canadian history, geography, and government and be able to use French or English. Naturalized Canadian citizens have the same rights and duties as citizens by birth. The rights of Canadian citizens include voting and holding positions in the government.

Canada belongs to the Commonwealth of Nations, an association of independent countries and other political units formerly under British rule. Citizens of Commonwealth nations, including Australia, Great Britain, and New Zealand, have citizenship in the Commonwealth as well as in their own country.

History. The idea of citizenship developed in the cities of ancient Greece and Rome about 700 B.C. The early Greeks and Romans thought of cities mainly as communities, rather than as geographic places. These communities consisted of citizens linked by such ties as friendship, family relationships, and participation in government. Not all the people of cities had citizenship. For example, ancient Greek and Roman cities denied citizenship to slaves.

The rights of Greek citizens included owning land and taking part in government. Their duties included voting, attending the government assembly, sitting on juries, and giving military service.

The special rights of Roman citizens included owning property, making contracts and wills, and suing for damages. As the Roman government expanded its rule, Roman citizens traveled to other lands to fight wars, rule territories, and conduct business. They kept all their special rights when they traveled anywhere in the Roman Empire. The government also began to grant Roman citizenship to people who had never lived in Rome. In A.D. 212, the government granted Roman citizenship to most people throughout the empire, except for slaves.

During the Middle Ages, which lasted from about the late 400's to about 1500, citizenship remained connected with cities. By this time, people thought of cities mainly as geographic places where people lived. During the 1500's and 1600's, nations ruled by kings or queens developed. As a result, people began to think of citizenship as membership in a nation. The people of these nations gave their loyalty to their monarch and were often called *subjects*.

During the 1700's, democracies began to develop. People living in democracies gave their loyalty to the nation instead of to the nation's ruler. As a result the terms *citizen* and *national* began to replace *subject*.

Constitution. Constitution is a statement outlining the agreed basic principles of formal organizations ranging from national governments to private clubs. It establishes the structure and purposes of the organization and the rights of its citizens or members. It also defines the powers of officers, how they are selected, and how long they can stay in office. Constitutions may also be called *articles of union* or *charters*.

In Western political philosophy, the principles of constitutional government often have been based on a belief in a *higher law* – a body of universal principles of right and justice that is superior to detailed, everyday law. In modern democracies, a constitution's function is to put everyone – including the rulers – under law.

Government constitutions may be *written* or *unwritten*. United States has a written constitution. The British constitution is unwritten. It consists of tradition and customs concerning the

powers of the monarch, Parliament, and the courts. Many parts of the British constitution were taken from written documents such as the Magna Carta. However, the constitution itself has never been written out in a single document. The British constitution can be modified by Parliament.

Most modern governments have constitutions based on a single document. In most democracies, the written constitution can be changed only by a special process, such as a special election. Such amending procedures reflect the belief that a constitution should deal with principles, and that special deliberation should be required to modify or replace these principles.

Many countries now have nondemocratic or military governments. In these governments, a constitution can be changed by *fiat* (a command or decree) of the ruling group. In such countries, a constitution is more a statement of purpose than a statement defining powers.

In actual operation, constitutions in most democratic countries are unwritten in the sense that the formal document is not the only vital element. Custom and how various governmental bodies interpret the constitution are equally important and sometimes dominant. Under power called *judicial review*, U.S. courts may declare acts of government *unconstitutional* if the acts are considered to conflict with the basic law of the constitution. Most countries have important *nonlegal* rules which do not come from the written constitution or court interpretation. If these nonlegal rules are an essential part of the system of government, they are part of the „constitution” in the broad sense of the term. For example, most aspects of the political party system and the rules for nominating the President in the United States are not specified in the written constitution or subject to court action.

INTERNATIONAL LAW

International Law

International law is the body of rules and general principles that nations are expected to observe in their relations with one another.

Some international laws result from years of custom. Others originate in general principles of law recognized by civilized nations, others have been agreed to in treaties or determined by judicial decisions.

Many of the customs of international relations have existed for hundreds of years. For example, the ancient Greeks protected foreign ambassadors from mistreatment, even in wartime. For about 2,000 years, nations have given ambassadors similar protection.

Treaties or contracts between countries have been in use for thousands of years. Such treaties as the one that established the Pan American Union may be signed by aliens. Or they may be signed by only two or three nations, as in the case of trade treaties the United States signed with other countries.

Kinds of International Law. The rules of international law are generally divided into laws of peace, of war, and of neutrality. Peace is considered the normal relationship between nations,

The laws of peace define the rights and duties of nations at peace with one another. Each country has a right to existence, legal equality, jurisdiction over its territory, ownership of property, and diplomatic relations with other countries. Many of the laws of peace deal with recognizing countries as members of the family of nations and recognizing new governments in old nations. Most governments are recognized *de jure* – that is, as rightful governments. Under unsettled conditions, a government may be recognized *de facto* – that is, as actually controlling the country, whether or not by right. Rules dealing with territory include the rights and duties of aliens, the right of passage through territorial waters, and the extradition of criminals.

The laws of war. War is still recognized under traditional international law. Warring states are called *belligerents*. The laws of war provide definite restrictions on methods of warfare. For example, undefended towns, called *open cities*, must not be bombarded. Private property must not be seized by invaders

without compensation. Surrendering soldiers may not be killed or assaulted and must be treated as prisoners of war.

All the laws of war have been violated repeatedly. In wartime, nations fight for their existence, and it is not always possible to get them to follow rules. Each nation does its best to destroy its enemy, and it uses the most effective weapons it can find.

Even in war, however, many international rules are observed. During World War II (1939-1945), many of the belligerent nations followed the international rules for treatment of prisoners of war. Millions of former prisoners of war are alive today because these rules were followed more often than they were broken.

The laws of neutrality. Under international law, belligerents are forbidden to move troops across neutral territory. Neutral waters and ports must not be used for naval operations. Belligerent warships entering neutral ports must leave within 24 hours or be interned.

In the 1800's and 1900's, neutral nations claimed many rights for their ships on the high seas. But laws about neutrals, like laws about war, are often broken. Neutral countries have been invaded in many wars, and neutral rights on the high seas are often ignored.

Enforcement of international law. After a legislative body passes a law for a nation or a state, police enforce the laws, and people who break them are tried in courts. However, there is no international legislature to pass rules that all nations are required to observe. Neither is there an international police force to make countries obey international law. As a result, it is often difficult to enforce international law.

Consent of nations. International laws are often classified in three groups, according to how many nations accept them. (1) *Universal international law* includes the rules accepted by all nations as part of international law. These rules cover such items as the sanctity of treaties, the safety of foreign ambassadors, and each nation's jurisdiction over the air space above its territory. (2) *General international law* includes rules accepted by the majority of countries, especially those that are most powerful. One law of this

type is the rule that each nation has jurisdiction over its *territorial waters*, a water area typically claimed to extend 12 nautical miles (22 kilometers) from its shores. Many nations follow this rule, but some do not. Ecuador and Peru, for example, claim a limit of 200 nautical miles (370 kilometers). (3) *Particular international law* includes agreements between two or among a few nations, such as trade treaties.

Violations. Japan violated international law in 1941 by attacking Pearl Harbor without first declaring war. Germany broke international law during World War II when the German government killed millions of European Jews and forced slave laborers from other European countries to work in German war factories. The Soviet Union violated international law by refusing to repatriate many prisoners of war long after the end of World War II.

Reports were given to the United Nations (UN) about the cruel treatment of many UN prisoners of war by the Chinese Communists and North Koreans in the Korean War (1950-1953). Violations occurred in the Nigerian civil war (1967-1970), the Pakistani civil war (1971), and the Vietnam War (1957-1975). In 1990, during the crisis that resulted in the Persian Gulf War, Iraq broke international law by using foreign hostages as „human shields” to discourage attacks against military and industrial sites. The fact that laws are broken does not destroy them as laws. The laws of cities, states, and nations are often broken, but such laws remain an active force. No nation denies the existence of international law.

Courts and arbitration. In the belief that arbitration is a better method than war to settle disputes, the Permanent Court of Arbitration was established in 1899 at The Hague, the Netherlands. Members of the court serve as arbitrators, not as judges.

In 1920, the League of Nations set up the Permanent Court of International Justice. The United Nations took over the court in 1946 and renamed it the International Court of Justice. This court issues judgments on boundary disputes and other questions of

international law. Nations are not required to use the court, but they must accept its decisions if they do use it.

Punishment. There is no uniform way to enforce international laws. Laws within countries provide penalties for those who break them. But in the society of nations, no individual nation has the power to punish other nations or to force them to submit their disagreements to courts of arbitration. If an aggressor refuses to arbitrate, an injured nation may resort to self-help, which may mean war. But when the aggressor is strong and the injured nation is weak, such action is not practical. Treaties for united action, such as the North Atlantic Treaty, provide help for weaker nations in such cases. The UN Charter provides for collective defense.

The trials of German and Japanese leaders at Nuremberg and Tokyo after World War II were an important step in the development of international law. Some of the leaders were charged, not only with breaking the laws of war, but also with bringing about the war itself. The idea that international laws will be enforced by punishing those persons who break them represents an important addition to the theory of international law. The International Law Commission of the United Nations has given much study to improved ways of formulating and enforcing international law.

History. In early days. For thousands of years, international law consisted only of customs and treaties made by two or three nations. In the 1600's, Hugo Grotius, a Dutch statesman, expressed the idea that all nations should follow certain international rules of conduct. For this idea and his writings on the subject, Grotius is often called the father of international law.

In the 1800's, international conferences were held to try to set up rules nations would obey in time of war. The first important conference met at Geneva in 1864. It established the International Red Cross and made rules for the humane treatment of the wounded and the safeguarding of the noncombat personnel who cared for them. The Geneva Convention showed that rules could be written for nations to follow.

As a result of international conferences held at The Hague in 1899 and 1907, the laws of war, of peace, and of neutrality were collected and embodied in 14 conventions. They covered such subjects as the rights and duties of neutrals in case of war on land and in naval war, and the peaceful settlement of international disputes. Only 12 nations signed the first Geneva Convention. But 44 nations met at the Hague Peace Conference of 1907, and most signed many of the conventions.

After World War I, many persons hoped that the League of Nations, established in 1920, would be able to enforce international law and prevent a second world war. Under the Covenant of the League of Nations, members were not allowed to go to war until three months after an arbitration court or the Council of the League had tried to end a dispute. But after the Japanese invaded Manchuria in 1931, the League could only condemn the invasion as a breach of international law. Japan then withdrew from the League and continued to attack China. Italy followed Japan's example in 1935, when Italian troops invaded Ethiopia.

Between 1928 and 1934, more than 60 nations signed the Kellogg-Briand Peace Pact under which they agreed not to use war to gain their aims. But the pact did nothing about the causes of war. Its failure led many people to believe that nothing could stop wars and that international law should only try to make war less brutal.

After World War II, the United Nations was formed as an organization to preserve the peace. Many people hoped the UN General Assembly might in time become a world legislature that could pass international laws. They believed the UN could profit from the mistakes of the League of Nations and succeed where the League had failed. Most of the nations that signed the UN Charter at San Francisco in 1945 believed the UN should be given the power to enforce its decisions – by force of arms if necessary. The United Nations Security Council was given the authority to determine whether nations were endangering world peace by their actions.

In 1949, UN arbitration succeeded in stopping a war in Israel. In 1950, the UN became the first world organization to use force to stop aggression. Communist forces from North Korea invaded the Republic of Korea in June 1950, and the UN Security Council agreed on „police action”. Sixteen UN countries sent armed forces to aid South Korea, with the United States and South Korea providing most of the troops and supplies. After the UN forces drove the Communists back into North Korea, a truce was signed in July 1953.

The UN has continued its efforts to resolve conflict in disturbed regions, such as the Near East and Southeast Asia. But many nations have tended to favor direct negotiations with one another instead of discussion through the UN. In 1969, for example, the United States and the Soviet Union began the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks. In 1972, those talks led to major agreements that limited each nation’s defensive and offensive nuclear missiles.

Efforts by the UN and direct negotiations among nations have helped lessen the danger of war. But governments have failed to create a system of international law that prevents nations from using force to achieve their aims. Many countries have used such force. For example, the Soviet Union sent troops into Hungary in 1956 and into Czechoslovakia in 1968 to ensure that both nations would remain Communist. During the Vietnam War (1957-1975), the United States fought in an unsuccessful attempt to prevent the Communist take-over of South Vietnam. In the Persian Gulf War (1991), a U.S.-led coalition of nations drove Iraqi troops from Kuwait after Iraq had invaded that country in 1990. The coalition’s actions were based on a number of UN Security Council resolutions.

Red Cross. Red Cross is an organization that works to relieve human suffering. More than 135 nations have Red Cross societies. Each national Red Cross society carries on its own program. However, Red Cross workers in all parts of the world are united in their aims. They try to prevent misery in time of war or peace, and serve all peoples, regardless of race, nationality, or religion.

The name *Red Cross* comes from the organization's flag, a red cross on a white background. The flag honors Switzerland, where the Red Cross was founded in 1863. The Swiss flag is a white cross on a red field. Societies in most Muslim countries use a red crescent on a white field, and call themselves Red Crescent societies.

History. Beginnings. Jean Henri Dunant, a Swiss philanthropist founded the international Red Cross. He was touring Italy in 1859 during the Austro-Sardinian War. Dunant saw the field at Solferino the day after 40,000 had been killed or wounded in a battle. Horrified at the suffering of the wounded, he formed a group of volunteers to help them.

In 1862, Dunant published a pamphlet called *Un Souvenir de Solferino (Recollections of Solferrino)*. It ended with the plea, „Would it not be possible to found and organize in all civilized countries permanent societies of volunteers who in time of war would give help to the wounded without regard for their nationality?“ The appeal won favorable response. On Oct. 26, 1863, delegates from 16 nations and several charitable organizations met in Geneva to discuss Dunant's idea. This conference laid the groundwork for the Red Cross movement and chose the organization's symbol.

Delegates from 12 European nations met in Geneva in August 1864, on invitation from the Swiss Federal Council. Two U.S. observers attended. Out of this meeting came the *First Geneva* (or Red Cross) *Convention*. Later treaties amended and improved it.

United Nations

United Nations. United Nations (UN) is an organization of nations that works for world peace and security and the betterment of humanity. Almost all of the world's independent countries belong to the UN. Each member nation sends representatives to UN headquarters in New York City, where they discuss and try to solve problems.

The United Nations has two main goals: peace and human dignity. If fighting between two or more countries breaks out anywhere, the

UN may be asked to try to stop it. After the fighting stops, the UN may help work out ways to keep it from starting again. But the UN tries above all to deal with problems and disputes before they lead to fighting. It seeks the causes of war and tries to find ways to eliminate them.

The United Nations has met with both success and failure in its work. It has been able to keep some disputes from developing into major wars. The organization has also helped people in numerous parts of the world gain their freedom and better their way of life. For many years, however, disagreements among UN member nations prevented the organization from operating effectively. Since the mid-1980's, greater cooperation among members has enabled the UN to carry out successful missions in more and more countries. But these missions have added to the serious financial troubles that have long plagued the UN.

The United Nations was established on Oct. 24, 1945, shortly after World War II. As the war drew to an end, the nations that opposed Germany, Italy, and Japan decided that such a war must never happen again. Representatives of these nations met in San Francisco in April 1945 and worked out a plan for an organization to help keep peace in the world. This plan was described in a document called the *Charter of the United Nations*. In June 1945, 50 nations signed the UN Charter. They were the first UN members. Since then, more than 100 other nations have joined.

In some ways, the UN resembles the League of Nations, which was organized after World War I. Many of the nations that founded the UN had also founded the League. Like the League, the UN was established to help keep peace between nations. The main organs of the UN are much like those of the League. But the UN differs from the League in two main ways. First, all the great military powers except Communist China were UN members from the beginning, and Communist China gained membership in 1971. By contrast, several powerful countries, including the United States, either did not join the League or withdrew from it. Second, the UN's concern with economic and social problems gives it broader

responsibilities than the League had. The six major organs of the United Nations carry on the work of the organization. These organs are (1) General Assembly, (2) Security Council, (3) Secretariat, (4) Economic and Social Council, (5) International Court of Justice, and (6) Trusteeship Council. A variety of specialized agencies related to the UN deal with such problems as communications, food and agriculture, health, and labor.

UN headquarters consist of several buildings along the East River in New York City. The three main buildings are the General Assembly Building, the Secretariat Building, and the Conference Building. The flags of all the members fly in front of UN headquarters.

The Charter. The Charter of the United Nations is the constitution of the UN. It includes the plan used for organizing the UN, and the rules by which the UN is governed. UN members agree to carry out the requirements of the charter. The charter has 19 chapters divided into 111 articles that explain the *purposes* (goals), *principles* (basic beliefs), and operating methods of the UN.

Purposes and principles. The charter lists four purposes and seven principles of the United Nations. The first purpose is to preserve world peace and security. The second purpose is to encourage nations to be just in their actions toward each other. The third is to help nations cooperate in trying to solve their problems. The fourth purpose is to serve as an agency through which nations can work toward these goals.

The first principle of the United Nations is that all members have equal rights. Second, all members are expected to carry out their duties under the charter. Third, they agree to the principle of settling their disputes peacefully. Fourth, they agree not to use force or the threat of force against other nations, except in self-defense. Fifth, members agree to help the UN in every action it takes to carry out the purposes of the charter. Sixth, the UN agrees to act on the principle that non-member states have the same duties as member states to preserve world peace and security. And seventh, the UN accepts the principle of not interfering in the

actions of a member nation within its own borders. But these actions must not hurt other nations.

Membership requirements. The first members of the United Nations were the nations that signed the charter in 1945. Since then, many other nations have requested to join the organization. The charter states that membership in the UN is open to all „peace-loving states” that are „able and willing” to carry out the duties required by the charter. Both the Security Council and the General Assembly must approve applications for membership. A member nation that violates the charter may be suspended or even expelled from the UN.

The six major UN organs. The charter sets up the six main organs of the UN and explains the duties, powers, and operating methods of each. The *General Assembly* is the only major organ in which all UN members are represented. The charter permits the Assembly to discuss any question of importance to the UN and to recommend action to be taken by the members or by other UN organs. The *Security Council* has the major responsibility in the UN for keeping the peace. The charter gives the Council special powers to carry out this responsibility. The *Secretariat* has the job of helping all the other organs do their work as efficiently as possible. The charter gives the *Economic and Social Council* several duties, such as advancing human rights and helping people to better their way of life. The *International Court of Justice* handles international legal disputes. The charter established the *Trusteeship Council* to watch over and assist a number of small territories that were not self-governing at the time that the UN was founded.

The United Nations has established many other agencies, committees, and commissions since the charter was written. But the six main organs are the only UN bodies that operate under rules included in the charter.

Amending the charter. The UN charter sets forth the rules for changing the charter. Amendments may be proposed in either of two ways. The General Assembly may propose an amendment if two-thirds of all its members agree to do so. Or two-thirds of the

General Assembly members and any nine members of the Security Council may call a *General Conference* to discuss making changes in the charter. As in the General Assembly, a two-thirds vote of a General Conference is required to propose an amendment. A proposed amendment does not go into effect until it has been approved by two-thirds of all members of the United Nations, including the five permanent members of the Security Council.

The charter called for the 10th yearly session of the General Assembly to make plans for a General Conference if one had not already taken place. In 1955, the Assembly took up the question and appointed a planning committee. The committee has met from time to time and has reported to the General Assembly. But the Assembly has taken no further action.

The General Assembly. The General Assembly is the only major organ of the United Nations in which all members are represented. Each member may send five delegates, five alternate delegates, and as many advisers as it wishes. However, each member nation has only one vote.

The General Assembly elects a new president and a number of vice presidents at the beginning of each annual session. The president's main duty is to lead the Assembly's discussions and direct its work.

Powers. The Assembly is responsible in some way for every other UN organ. It elects or takes part in electing the members of the other major organs, and it directs the operations of some UN bodies. The Assembly also controls the UN's budget. It decides how much money each member should contribute and how much of the UN's funds each UN body should receive.

The General Assembly may discuss any question that concerns the work of the UN. It reaches decisions through a vote of its members. As a result of such a vote, the Assembly may suggest actions to be taken by other UN bodies or by member nations. According to the charter, the only decisions of the General Assembly that UN members must obey are votes on the UN

budget. All other decisions made by the General Assembly are simply recommendations.

The General Assembly's responsibility for keeping the peace is second only to the similar responsibility of the Security Council. The kind of peacekeeping action that the Assembly can take has been strengthened since the charter was written. In the early years of the UN, sharp disagreements in the Security Council prevented the Council from acting in many cases. In 1950, the General Assembly approved a *resolution* (formal statement) called „Uniting for Peace”. This resolution gave the Assembly the power to step in whenever peace is threatened and the Security Council has failed to act. In such an emergency, the Assembly can recommend actions for the UN, including the use of armed force.

Meetings and voting. The General Assembly holds one *regular session* each year, beginning on the third Tuesday in September and lasting about three months. A *special session* may be called if either the Security Council or a majority of member states requests it. Several special sessions have been called to discuss such matters as peacekeeping and finances. The „Uniting for Peace” resolution in 1950 set up a system for calling an *emergency special session* of the General Assembly. Such a meeting can be called on 24 hours' notice if peace is threatened and the Security Council has not acted. Any nine members of the Security Council or a majority of UN members may call an emergency special session. Such sessions have been held for situations in the Middle East, Hungary, and other parts of the world.

Most questions that are voted on in the General Assembly are decided by a simple majority vote. Some subjects that the charter calls „important questions” need a two-thirds majority vote. These topics include peace and security and the election of new UN members. A simple majority vote of the Assembly may also make any other question an „important” one.

The Security Council. The UN Charter makes the Security Council responsible for keeping the peace. Until 1965, the Council had 11 members. Since then, it has had 15 members, of which 5 are

permanent. The permanent members are China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Russia's seat on the Council was held by the Soviet Union until 1991, when the Soviet Union broke apart. The 10 nonpermanent members of the Council are elected to two-year terms by the General Assembly. Each member of the Security Council has one delegate on the Council. Some nations have called for expanding the number of permanent Security Council members to include such countries as Germany and Japan.

Powers. The Security Council has the power to decide what action the UN should take to settle international disputes. The charter states that the Council's decisions are made in the name of all UN members, who must accept them and carry them out. The Council encourages the peaceful settlement of disputes by calling on the opposing sides to work out a solution. Or the Council may ask the sides to accept a settlement worked out by other nations, individuals, or groups.

The Council itself may investigate a dispute and suggest ways of settling it. For example, the Council may call on UN members to stop trading with a country that is endangering peace and security. It may also ask the members to cut off communications with such a state, or to end contacts with its government. If such actions are not effective, the Security Council may ask UN members to furnish military forces to settle the dispute.

The Security Council also has several other important powers. It must approve all applications for membership in the UN. It selects a candidate for secretary-general. And it can recommend plans for arms control.

Meetings and committees. Security Council meetings may be called to consider any situation serious enough to lead to war. Such a situation can be brought to the Council's attention by any UN member – and in certain cases by nonmembers – by the secretary-general or by any major UN organ. The delegates must be able to attend a meeting as soon as it is called.

The Council makes its own rules for conducting its meetings. In the early years of the UN, it became a custom for the representative of a different nation to serve as president each month. The representatives take turns, in the order that their country's name appears in the English alphabet. UN members that are not members of the Council – and even nations that are not UN members – may be invited to take part in debates that affect them. But these nations have no vote.

The Council may set up as many committees as it needs. The charter calls only for a Military Staff Committee, which is made up of military representatives of the five permanent members. Other committees have been appointed from time to time, especially to help the Council organize its work and to consider applications for UN membership.

The founding of the UN. Early in World War II, the representatives of nine European governments fled to London. Nazi Germany had conquered much of Europe and had driven these leaders from their homelands. Representatives of Britain and the Commonwealth nations met in London with leaders of Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Yugoslavia. On June 12, 1941, all these nations signed a declaration pledging to work for a free world, where people could live in peace and security. This pledge, usually called the *Inter-Allied Declaration*, was the first step toward building the UN.

The Atlantic Charter followed the Inter-Allied Declaration by two months. It was signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt of the United States and Prime Minister Winston Churchill of Britain. The Atlantic Charter expressed their hope for a world where all people could live free from fear and need. It also expressed their intention to seek eventual disarmament and economic cooperation. On Jan. 1, 1942, representatives of 26 nations signed the *Declaration by United Nations*. This was the first official use of the words *United Nations*. The declaration approved the aims of the Atlantic Charter and was later signed by 21 other nations.

On Oct. 30, 1943, representatives of Britain, China, the Soviet Union, and the United States signed the *Moscow Declaration on General Security*. This declaration approved the idea of an international organization for preserving world peace. A month later, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Premier Joseph Stalin of the Soviet Union met at Teheran, Iran. The three men declared that they recognized the responsibility of all the United Nations to achieve lasting peace.

In February 1945, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin met at Yalta in the Crimea. At this meeting, they agreed that some minor actions of the Security Council could not be vetoed by the permanent members. The three leaders announced that a conference of United Nations would open in San Francisco on April 25, 1945. This conference would use the plan worked out at the Dumbarton Oaks conference to help prepare a charter for the UN.

The San Francisco Conference. Delegates from 50 nations met in San Francisco for the United Nations conference on International Organization. The conference opened on April 25, 1945, 13 days after the death of Roosevelt and 12 days before the surrender of Germany. Victory over Japan was still four months away. At the conference, some major disagreements arose between the Big Three (Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States) and the smaller, less powerful nations. The Big Three believed they could guarantee future peace only if they continued to cooperate as they had during the war. They insisted that the Charter of the United Nations should give them the power to veto actions of the Security Council. The smaller nations opposed the veto power but could not defeat it. They did succeed in adding to the importance of such UN organs as the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council. In these bodies, responsibilities could be shared more equally than in the Security Council. Such efforts by smaller nations helped create an organization that had far-reaching powers and responsibilities.

On June 26, 1945, all 50 nations present at the conference voted to accept the charter. Poland had been unable to attend but later

signed the charter as an original member. The charter then had to be approved by the governments of the five permanent members of the Security Council and of a majority of the other nations that signed it. It went into effect on Oct. 24, 1945, a date celebrated every year as United Nations Day.

Asylum

Asylum, in international law, is shelter and protection given by a nation to a person fleeing another nation. The granting of asylum is guided by national laws and international laws and treaties. According to the United Nations, refugees may seek asylum if they fear persecution based on race, religion, nationality, or social or political beliefs. But no person has a right to asylum. Political persecution is the main reason nations grant asylum.

The two main types of asylum are *territorial and non-territorial*. Territorial asylum is granted within a nation's boundaries. Nonterritorial asylum, commonly called *diplomatic asylum*, is given in foreign diplomatic missions – such as embassies – and on ships. Under international law, no nation may grant diplomatic asylum unless a treaty with the host nation allows for it. But even then, the practice is rare.

Asylum is an ancient practice. Early Israelite and Greek societies offered it for certain crimes. The Romans recognized a more limited form of asylum. Political asylum began to flourish during the 1900's.

The United States bases its asylum policy on international law and the federal Refugee Act of 1980. In Canada, a federal agency dealing with refugees handles all requests for political asylum.

Extradiction

Extradition, is the handing over by one state or country to another of people accused of crimes. The word *extradition* comes from two Latin words meaning *out of* and *delivering up*.

In early times, people who committed crimes were able to escape punishment by fleeing to another country. But in the late 1700's, nations began to arrange extradition treaties among themselves. Such treaties provide that proper authorities must return people

accused of certain crimes to the country in which they committed the crimes at the demand of that country.

Ordinarily, people cannot be extradited for political crimes. The United States holds extradition treaties with more than 80 countries. The United States Constitution provides that any state shall, on demand of another state, extradite a person accused of a crime.

Embargo

Embargo is an order designed to stop the movement of goods. An embargo, issued by the government of one country, may restrict or suspend trade between that country and another nation.

A government may impose an embargo to hamper the military efforts of another government. For example, the United States prohibits the export of weapons to Communist countries. Sometimes a government imposes an embargo to express its disapproval of actions taken by another government. The embargo is intended to pressure the offending government to change its actions. For example, the most significant embargo in U.S. history was the one authorized by Congress in 1807 to stop British and French vessels from interfering with U.S. trade.

In 1990, the United States and many other countries imposed an embargo against Iraq soon after Iraq had invaded Kuwait. As a result of the embargo, trade with Iraq fell sharply. However, Iraq held Kuwait until U.S. and other forces defeated Iraq in the Persian Gulf War in 1991.

Embargo Act was a law passed by Congress in 1807 that began the most famous embargo in United States history. The act prohibited all ships from entering or leaving American ports.

Congress passed the Embargo Act to put pressure mainly on Great Britain and France, which were fighting a war that also involved most other European nations. The act kept the United States out of the war, but it reduced the large profits American merchants had been making by trading with both sides.

Before 1807, Britain and France had been seizing U.S. merchant ships to prevent each other from obtaining American goods. The

British also searched these ships for deserters from the British navy and forced them to return. But the British seized Americans as well and made them serve in the British navy.

In 1807, a British ship attacked the *Chesapeake*, an American naval vessel, after it refused the British ship's request to search for deserters. This act of war greatly angered the American public. But instead of asking Congress to declare war, President Thomas Jefferson recommended a general embargo. Congress enacted the measure in December 1807.

The embargo lasted 14 months. It was unpopular in many parts of the nation because it hurt the economy badly. Merchants began smuggling goods and thus weakened the effectiveness of the embargo. In 1809, Congress passed the Non-Intercourse Act. This act canceled the embargo for all nations except Britain and France. Three years later, the United States went to war against Great Britain.

ADMINISTRATIVE LAW

Local government

Local government generally refers to the government of an area smaller than a country, state, or province. Such areas include counties, cities, towns, and villages. Each unit of local government has some important responsibility for the welfare of its citizens and provides certain services. Most local governments are run by elected officials and have some power of taxation. In the United States, each state government creates and has legal control over all local governments in the state. Traditionally, Americans have strongly supported the principle of local self-government. Some scholars argue that small local governments are more responsive to citizens' wishes than are large units of government. They also feel that local governments encourage people to become involved in the life of their community. Other scholars believe that local governments have certain weaknesses. For example, they claim that an individual local unit often cannot deal effectively with such

problems as transportation and pollution when they require the cooperation of other local units in the area.

This article deals mainly with local governments in the United States. The last section discusses local governments in other countries.

Units of local government. The United States has about 83,000 units of local government. There are four types of local governments: (1) *counties*, (2) *municipalities*, (3) *school districts*, and (4) *special districts*.

The county is the largest unit of local government in most states. The United States has about 3,000 counties. In Louisiana, these units are called *parishes*.

There are about 19,000 municipalities in the United States, including cities, villages, and townlike units called *boroughs*. They lie within each county or extend into two or more counties. Municipalities, often called *city governments*, are chartered by state governments to provide such services as police and fire protection. School districts are responsible for running public school systems. There are about 15,000 school districts in the United States. Most school districts operate independently of city governments. The city governments of New York City and a few other communities in the Northeast operate their own public school systems.

Special districts are organized to provide one or more public services, such as mosquito control or transportation. There are about 30,000 special districts in the United States. The governing boards of these districts have the authority to levy taxes and to spend public money.

Functions of local government. Most of the activities of local government in the United States can be classified into three main groups: (1) health and safety functions, (2) welfare functions, and (3) housekeeping functions.

Health and safety functions of local government in the United States began with law enforcement by local police forces and through local courts. Today, most local governments also have responsibility for fighting fires, immunizing people against

contagious diseases, and providing and maintaining hospital services, local roads, garbage collection, and safe drinking water. In addition, they conduct inspections and educational campaigns in the areas of health, housing, traffic safety, sanitation, and fire prevention. They are also concerned with reducing air pollution and water pollution.

Welfare functions. Early in U.S. history, local governments began to provide public education. Today, they spend more money on education than on any other function. Local governments also provide libraries, museums, parks and other recreational and athletic facilities, and buses and subways for mass transportation. They cooperate with other levels of government in providing public housing for low-income families. Many local governments have zoning restrictions to protect and promote the beauty and land values in their area. Many also try to stimulate economic growth by attracting business and industry to their area.

Providing health, safety, and welfare services is an important part of the American political process. Such questions as how much to spend for schools or whether to allow a factory to be built in a certain part of the city often cause conflicts among citizens and groups.

Housekeeping functions are administrative activities. They are essential to the function of a governmental unit but are not part of its main activities. One housekeeping function is keeping official records of births, deaths, marriages, and property transfers and assessments. Local governments also collect taxes, hire public agency workers, and administer elections.

Relations with higher levels of government. Government in the United States operates on three levels – national, state, and local. The U.S. Constitution grants certain powers to the federal and state governments, but it does not mention local governments. State legislatures, unless restricted by their state constitutions, have complete control over local governments. The states may specify what activities local governments can undertake, as well as the kinds of taxes and tax rates they can levy. Most of the states allow

local governments to decide their own form of organization and to have considerable freedom in local matters. Such self-government is called *home rule*.

All three levels of government have increased their activities to deal with the growing problems of society. As a result, they share authority and responsibility in such matters as finance, education, and welfare. Many local governments receive a type of financial assistance called *grants-in-aid* from state governments to help pay for specific projects. Local governments – especially those of big cities – have also become increasingly dependent on federal aid. They receive federal grants directly or through payments transferred from their state government. In most cases, federal aid is provided only if local governments agree to follow state or federal requirements.

Issues confronting local governments. Local governments in the United States face many problems in trying to provide services for their residents. Many of these problems stem from population changes, financial difficulties, and conflicts in authority.

Population changes have affected local governments in the United States throughout its history. The movement of people from rural to urban areas is called *urbanization*. When the first census of the United States was taken in 1790, only 5 percent of Americans lived in cities. In 1920, about 50 percent of Americans dwelled in cities. The 1990 census showed that about 75 percent of Americans live in urban areas. As populations have grown, demands for services have increased. However, urbanization seems to have slowed, and rural areas and small towns have begun to grow again.

Especially during the 1900's, American cities were confronted with *suburbanization*, the movement of people from the city to areas outside it. Many more white families than black families moved to the suburbs. Central city governments were typically poorer than suburban ones. Businesses also moved from cities to suburbs, which reduced jobs and economic opportunities in the cities.

Financial difficulties. Traditionally, the major source of revenue for local governments has been property taxes. Local governments collect these taxes from homeowners, businesses, and other owners of taxable property. The amount of tax is based on the property's estimated value. Many object to property taxes. They point out that standards for *assessing* (determining the value of) property vary from city to city and from one assessor to another. Many also believe that property ownership is a poor measure of the ability to pay taxes.

All municipalities have become more dependent on grants-in-aid from the state and federal governments. Some local governments have financial troubles despite aid from the higher levels of government. A few cities, including Cleveland and New York City, have come close to bankruptcy. Such financial problems are more severe in Northern cities that have lost many people and businesses.

Local government in other countries. Local government takes various forms in different countries. The degree of local authority and independence also varies from nation to nation. In some countries, governmental authority has been decentralized so that many important decisions are made at the local level. In other countries, authority is centralized in the national government. Most countries have either a *federal* or a *unitary* system of government.

Federal systems divide the powers of government between the national government and the state or provincial governments. In most cases, the powers are set forth in a constitution. Although the state and provincial governments have legal control over local governments, they may give some authority to local units. Australia, Canada, Switzerland, and the United States have federal systems of government. Local governments usually have more authority under federal systems than they have under unitary systems.

Unitary systems give most of the chief powers to the central government. All local, state, and provincial governments are subject to control by the central government. They have only those

powers that the central government gives them. France, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom have unitary systems. In these countries, local areas have a considerable amount of self-government, though they are under the central government's control. Local areas have broad taxing powers and much authority for providing education, housing, and transportation.

Japan also has a unitary system of government. Tokyo, its capital, is one of the largest cities in the world. Local government in Japan is responsible for the same range of services – including police protection, transportation, and sanitation – that local governments in the United States are. But, as in most unitary systems, the central government of Japan exercises much tighter control over the activities of local governments. Tokyo's local government faces many huge problems. For example, city needs a vast public transportation system to move millions of commuters to and from work.

Local governments in developing countries face especially severe problems. In most poor countries, rapidly increasing populations and limited economic opportunities in rural areas drive people to cities. Thus, urban populations swell rapidly. This condition is sometimes called *hyperurbanization*.

In the United States, the poorest ghettos are usually in the center of the city. But in most developing countries, the poorest areas are on the edges of the city. These vast areas of poverty present special problems for all governments. Sanitation is often nonexistent, schooling is limited, transportation is poor, and such services as police and fire protection are scarce. Even so, people from rural areas continue to come to the city, believing that economic opportunities are better there.

State Government

State government. State government provides many services and regulates many activities for the people of a state. In the United States, a state government maintains law and order and enforces criminal law. It protects property rights and regulates business. It supervises public education, including schools and state

universities. It provides public welfare programs, builds and maintains highways, operates state parks and forests, and regulates the use of state-owned land. It has direct authority over local governments – counties, cities, towns, townships, villages, and school districts.

The government in some countries, such as France and Great Britain, operates under the *unitary system*. Under this system, the national government defines and establishes the powers of local governments. The United States has a *federal system*, which divides power between the national and state governments. However, the division of power is subject to dispute. In general, the states reserve the power to take any action that does not conflict with the Constitution of the United States, acts of Congress, or treaties entered into by the national government.

The independent powers of state governments arose during the colonial period. After the Declaration of Independence in 1776, each former British colony called itself a state to indicate its *sovereign* (independent) position. The term *state* generally means an area of land whose people are organized under a sovereign government. Each state gave up some of its powers when it approved the federal Constitution.

Since the founding of the United States, the powers and activities of the national government have greatly expanded. The federal government has become involved in many matters, such as education and housing, that once were handled only by state and local governments. Many of these matters required national action or more financial resources than state or local governments could provide. State and local governments, however, are involved in more areas than ever before. Since the 1960's, state and local governments have increased their expenditures and the number of their employees at a greater rate than the national government. Cooperation among all levels of government has become increasingly important.

State constitutions. Each state has a constitution that sets forth the principles and framework of its government. Every state

constitution includes a bill of rights. Many have provisions on finance, education, and other matters.

The original 13 states had constitutions before the United States Constitution was adopted. Those of Massachusetts and New Hampshire are still in use, though they have been amended often. Constitutional conventions prepared most constitutions now in use. A state constitution may be amended in several ways. The state legislature may submit a proposed amendment to the people for approval. The Delaware legislature may ratify such an amendment without a popular vote, but only by a two-thirds majority in each of two sessions. In 17 states, the people may suggest an amendment and vote on it in a state election. In some states, constitutional conventions may adopt amendments, subject to ratification by the people. In other states, a constitutional commission may propose; amendment, which must receive legislative approval before being submitted to the people.

Executive branch. The governor elected by the people heads the executive branch in each state. The governor has the power to appoint, direct, and remove from office a large number of state officials. The state constitution authorizes this official to see that the laws are faithfully executed. The governor commands the state militia, grant pardons, and may call the state legislature into special session. He or she directs the preparation of the state budget. In almost all states, the governor may veto bills, and, in some states, may even veto parts of a bill. The governor is also the state leader of his or her political party.

Most state governors serve four-year terms. In three states, the governor holds office for two years. In five states, the governor cannot serve two terms in a row. In approximately 20 states, the governor cannot serve more than two terms in succession. In all states Oregon, the governor may be removed from office by impeachment and conviction. In most states, a *lieutenant* governor succeeds a governor who dies in office.

The office of governor has grown in stature since 1776. Some governors have more power than others. That is, they have more authority to appoint and control subordinate officials.

Other officers. In most states, the people elect several other executive officials. These officers usually include a lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, and attorney general. In some states, the governor or legislature appoints one or more of these officials.

Legislative branch. The legislature of a state passes laws, levies taxes, and appropriates money to be spent by the state government. It takes part in amending the state constitution and has the power to impeach officials.

Organization. Every state except Nebraska has a *bicameral* (two-house) legislature. Nebraska adopted *unicameral* (one-house) legislature in 1934. Nineteen states call their legislature the *general assembly*, Dakota and Oregon call it the *legislative assembly*, Massachusetts and New Hampshire call it the *court*. Every upper house is known as the *senate*. Most states call the lower house the *house of representatives*. But four states use the term *assembly*, and three call it the *house of delegates*. A Speaker presides over the lower house. The lieutenant governor presides over the senate in about 30 states. In the others, the majority party selects a senate president.

Senators in most states serve four-year terms. They hold office for two years in the other states. In almost all states, members of the lower house serve two-year terms. In four states, they serve four-year terms.

State senates range in size from as few as about 20 members in some states to over 60 in other states. The lower houses range from as few as about 40 members in some states to more than 100 in several others.

Salaries of legislators vary widely from state to state. Legislators in some states receive daily payments while the legislature is in session, rather than yearly salaries. Most states give legislators travel allowances, and many give other allowances.

Judicial branch. State courts settle disputes that come before them under various laws. They handle about nine-tenths of the criminal and civil cases in the United States.

A supreme court heads the judicial system of each state. In a few states, the supreme court is called by other name, such as *court of appeals*. The memberships of state supreme courts range from three to nine judges. About half of the states have supreme courts that have seven judges.

In more than half the states, the voters elect supreme court judges. In several states, the governor or legislature appoints them. In others, such as California, and Iowa, the governor appoints the judges, who must later be approved by the voters.

State services. Education. The states, rather than the federal government, have had the main responsibility for public education. State governments support public schools through taxes, and administer them through local school districts. Every state has at least one state university. The state also maintains such institutions as agricultural colleges, teacher training schools, junior colleges, and vocational schools.

Public safety. The state legislatures enact most criminal laws that protect people and property. State police promote highway safety, preserve the peace, and enforce criminal laws. Each state maintains prisons, reformatories, or prison camps. The governor commands the state militia, or national guard.

Public works. Each state has a highway, public works, or transportation department that builds and maintains highways. This department may also supervise the construction of bridges, grade separations, canals, and waterways, and take care of beach protection, flood control, and buildings and grounds.

Recreation. Departments or agencies in the various states manage more than 3,300 state parks and recreation areas. Many parks and recreation areas have been established in state-owned forests. Other areas have been set up as historical monuments.

Health. State departments of health, or boards of health, were first set up in the late 1800's. They supervise and assist local public

health agencies. They have general control over hospitals, nursing, research, and laboratory facilities.

Welfare. Aid from the federal government has stimulated state government activities in welfare programs. Each state operates programs that help the poor, aged, delinquent, and unemployed, and mentally and physically disabled people.

Conservation activities include protection of water resources through special drainage, irrigation, water supply, and sanitation districts, and soil and forest conation.

Agriculture. The states aid agriculture through county agents, soil conservation districts, agriculture extension services, and agricultural colleges. Most states have a department or board of agriculture.

Business and labor. Each state government grants corporations the charters that allow them to do business. It regulates banks, insurance companies, and savings and loan associations.

State finances. The government of a state must have money to pay for the various services the state provides. Most of the money in a state's budget goes into payments for education, highways, public welfare, health and hospitals, insurance trusts for the retirement of employees, and unemployment insurance.

LAWMAKING

House of Commons

House of Commons is one of the two houses of Parliament, the lawmaking body of the United Kingdom. The House of Lords is the other. The House of Commons is the more powerful house. A majority of its members must approve all bills before they can become law. Money bills passed by the House of Commons become law one month after being sent to the House of Lords, whether that House approves them or not. Nonmoney bills passed by the House of Commons in two consecutive sessions automatically become law, regardless of the vote in the House of Lords.

Members of the House of Commons are elected from each of the four political divisions of the United Kingdom. The House has 651

members – 524 from England, 72 from Scotland, 38 from Wales, and 17 from Northern Ireland. Each member represents a voting district called a *constituency*. The members do not have to live in the constituency they represent. Officials of the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland and the Roman Catholic Church cannot be elected to the House of Commons. Members of the nobility – ex peers of Ireland – and certain government employees are also ineligible for election.

Members of the House of Commons do not serve a fixed term. They are chosen in a *general election*, in which the entire nation votes. General elections must be held at least every five years. If a member dies or resigns, a *by-election* is held in the constituency.

House of Lords

House of Lords is one of the two houses of Parliament, the lawmaking body of the United Kingdom. The House of Lords is less powerful than the House of Commons, the other house. The main function of the House of Lords is to examine bills passed by the House of Commons. The House of Lords often amends bills but rarely challenges their basic principles. After the House of Commons has approved a bill, the House of L may delay the measure but cannot defeat it.

The House of Lords has about 1,170 members. About 800 members are *hereditary peers*, nobles who inherit their titles. About 320 members are *life peers*, persons given the rank of baron or baroness to honor their achievements in business, civil service, or other fields. Twenty *law lords* are selected from the nation's highest ranking judges. These members hear final legal appeals. The *lords spiritual* are 26 senior officials of the Church of England. Only about 20 per cent of the members attend most debates.

Parliament was divided into the House of Lords and the House of Commons during the 1300's. The houses I had nearly equal power until 1832, when a reform act took away much of the power of the House of Lords. The Parliamentary Acts of 1911 and 1949 further limited the actions of the House of Lords.

House of Representatives

House of Representatives is one of the two law making bodies of many legislatures. In many of these legislatures, the other chamber is called a *senate*, and the house of representatives is the larger of the two.

The national legislatures of such countries as the United States, Australia, Colombia, and Japan have a house of representatives. Most of the 49 two-chamber state legislatures in the United States also have a house of representatives. Nebraska has a one-house legislature. A number of states and many nations use a different name for a lower chamber. This article deals primarily with the U.S. House of Representatives.

The U.S. House of Representatives, usually called simply the *House*, is one of the two chambers of Congress. The other chamber is the Senate. The two houses of Congress have about the same amount of power. However, the Senate is frequently called the *upper house*, and the House is known as the *lower house*. Members of the House are generally called *representatives*. The House and Senate must approve identical versions of any legislation before it can become law.

The Constitutional Convention established the form of national government in 1787. But it reached a standstill on the problem of representation in Congress. Delegates from states with large populations favored representation according to population. Those from states that had small populations argued for equal representation for every state. Under a compromise, representation in the House was based on population. Each state was given two senators, regardless of population.

Membership of the U.S. House of Representatives. Size. The Constitution gives Congress the power to determine the size of the House and to distribute representatives among the states. According to the Constitution, each member of the House must represent at least 30,000 persons, but every state must have at least one representative. The Constitution also requires a census of the nation every 10 years to determine how many representatives each state should have.

The first House, which was formed before the initial census had been taken, had 59 members when it originally met and 65 members by the end of the first Congress. The House grew as new states joined the Union and as the nation's population increased. In 1929, Congress passed legislation that limited the House to 435 members. In 1959, when Alaska and Hawaii became states, the House gained two additional members. However, reapportionment took place after the 1960 census, and the House was again limited to 435 members in 1962. Today, the House has one member per about 572,000 people.

Qualifications and election. The Constitution requires a representative to be at least 25 years old and to have been a U.S. citizen for at least seven years. Members of the House must be legal residents of the state from which they are elected. They are not legally required to live in the district they represent, but nearly all voters insist that they do so. Representatives serve two-year terms and are elected in the even-numbered years. Until 1991, the representatives of all states could be reelected to any number of terms in a row. But that year Colorado became the first state to limit the number of consecutive terms its representatives could serve. It forbade them to stay in office for over six full terms in a row. In 1992, many other states adopted term limits.

Salary and privileges. The basic annual salary of House members is \$133,600. The Speaker, who is the leader of the House, receives \$171,500. Each representative also gets about \$557,400 in allowances to pay assistants. In addition, each representative receives an allowance for office and travel expenses, including rental of office space at the home district. Such factors as distance from the home district and local rent rates determine the exact sum of this allowance. Representatives are also provided with office space in Washington, D.C.

Representatives are given legal *immunity* (protection) for anything they write or say when conducting official business in the House chamber or in committee meetings. With this immunity, a

representative can criticize policies or people without fear of being sued.

Organization of the U.S. House. In January after a congressional election, House members meet to choose their party leaders for the next two years. The meeting of the House Democrats is called the Democratic *caucus*, and that of the Republicans is the Republican *conference*. The representatives deal mainly with organizational matters at these meetings, but they also may adopt party positions on bills.

The Speaker and other leaders. The Speaker of the House presides over House sessions and gives representatives permission to debate. The Speaker also appoints most House members of *joint committees*, which consist of members of both houses of Congress. The Speaker is officially elected by the full House but actually has already been chosen at the meeting of the majority party. The House election simply confirms the majority party's choice because representatives support their party's candidates for leadership positions.

The members of the majority party also select the *majority leader* of the House at their meeting. The candidate for Speaker chosen by the minority party becomes the *minority leader*. Each party also elects an assistant leader called *a whip*. The whips work to persuade representatives of their party to support party policies.

Committees do most of the actual work of the House. Each party has members on these committees. Representatives may serve on four types of committees: (1) *standing* (permanent), (2) select, (3) conference, and (4) joint.

Standing committees are the most important type. They consider bills that have been introduced in the House. The House has 22 standing committees, each of which handles a particular field of legislation. The most powerful of these committees include Appropriations; Judiciary; Rules; and Ways and Means, which deals with tax bills. Each standing committee is divided into several subcommittees. The House has about 140 subcommittees. The heads of committees and subcommittees are members of the

majority party. They are elected at the party conference or caucus by secret ballot. In many cases, the person elected is the majority party representative who has the longest continuous service with the committee or subcommittee.

The work of the House. Considering legislation is the principal activity of the House. Representatives introduce thousands of bills during each session of Congress, and the House passes hundreds of them. All legislation that deals with taxes or spending must originate in the House.

After a bill has been introduced in the House of Representatives, the Speaker assigns it to a standing committee. Most bills die because the committee *tables* them – that is, lays them aside. Other bills are studied, released by the standing committee, and placed on a *legislative calendar* for consideration by the entire House. House leaders and the Rules Committee bring some bills out of calendar order to give them immediate consideration. A bill dies if Congress does not pass it before adjourning.

Most bills approved by the House are passed without debate. The House approves them under a *unanimous consent agreement*, a method of speeding legislative action. A bill that arouses disagreement among many representatives is likely to be debated. Under House rules, a representative may speak about a bill for one hour. However, representatives seldom get that much time. In most cases, the Rules Committee sets the amount of time for debate and divides it between the supporters and opponents of the legislation.

Both houses of Congress must pass a bill in identical form for it to become law. A conference committee works out any differences between the House and Senate versions of many major bills. This committee then submits its version to each house for approval.

Bills passed by Congress are sent to the President. The President may sign a bill – and thus make it law – or veto it. If the President fails to act on a bill for 10 days – not including Sundays – while Congress is in session, it becomes law. A bill that reaches the President fewer than 10 days – not including Sundays – before Congress adjourns must be signed to become law. A vetoed bill is

returned to Congress. If at least two-thirds of the members present in each house vote to *override* (reverse) the veto, the bill becomes law.

Other powers and duties of the House of Representatives include *impeaching* United States government officials and, under extraordinary conditions, electing the President of the United States. Impeachment is a charge of misconduct in office. The Senate conducts a trial to decide if the impeached official is guilty. The House elects the President if no candidate receives a majority of the votes in the *Electoral College*. The electoral College is a group of officials chosen by the voters to elect the President and Vice President.

Lobbying

Lobbying is an attempt to influence the decisions of government officials. People who try to persuade legislators to vote in a particular way are known as *lobbyists*. The words refer to the lobby or anteroom outside the room where legislators vote on public bills. Lobbyists also frequently try to influence the decisions of officials in the executive branch. The lobbyist may belong to a group interested in a particular law or be a paid agent of a group that wants certain bills passed or defeated.

Properly used, lobbying can serve a useful purpose. It may be the best organized way in which groups can make their wishes known to legislators. Much government policymaking involves a two-way flow of information between private groups and public officials. But all lobbying is conducted along these lines. Sometimes the lobbyist may try to persuade a legislator or other government official by offering favors or money. At this point, lobbying becomes bribery.

Federal and state laws seek to prevent corruption in lobbying. The basic idea of these laws is to make lobbying practices public so that corrupt influences will be uncovered. The Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act of 1946 requires individuals and groups trying to influence legislation to register and submit quarterly reports to

Congress. They must report receipts and expenditures, and the bills in which they are interested.

Some constitutional questions may arise whenever laws limit or otherwise regulate lobbying. Such questions arise because the Constitution guarantees citizens the right of free speech and the right to petition legislators.

Veto

Veto is a Latin word which means / *forbid*. In American government, the word *veto* usually refers to the President's power to kill a law that the legislative branch has already passed.

The President of the United States has a *limited* power. It is not absolute. A vote of a two-thirds majority of the members present in both houses of Congress can override it. The sovereign of the United Kingdom still holds the power of *absolute* veto. But no British king or queen has used this power since 1707.

When the two houses of Congress pass a bill or joint resolution, it is presented to the President of the United States. Then one of four things must happen:

The President may approve the bill. If so, the President signs it and it becomes law.

The President may allow the bill to become law without signing it. This can take place under the clause in the Constitution which provides that „if any bill shall not be returned by the President within 10 days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law”.

The President may retain the bill, in the expectation that Congress will adjourn within 10 days – not including Sundays – and thus the bill will be defeated. This method is called the *pocket veto*. It is used by Presidents who find certain bills unsatisfactory but do not want to veto them openly. Vetoing a congressional bill defeats all parts of it. All provisions and „riders” attached to the bill are vetoed with it.

The President may veto the bill. In that case, the President must send a message to Congress stating the reasons.

Presidents' use of the veto. When the Constitution was adopted, Alexander Hamilton declared that Presidents would use the veto power with great caution. Seven Presidents did not veto any bills. Franklin D. Roosevelt, who served as President longer than any other person, vetoed the most bills. Roosevelt used 372 regular vetoes and 263 pocket vetoes. Grover Cleveland ranks second, with 346 regular vetoes and 238 pocket vetoes.

Congress has overridden only about 5 per cent of all presidential vetoes. For example, 11 of the Presidents who vetoed bills had no vetoes overridden by Congress. Congress reversed only 9 of Roosevelt's 372 regular vetoes and only 2 of the 36 issued by Dwight D. Eisenhower. But it overrode 15 of Andrew Johnson's 21 regular vetoes. Presidential veto power serves as a major check on Congress.

Governors' veto power. Most state governors also have a veto power. But in some states, the governor's veto may be overridden by a simple majority of the members present in the houses of the legislature, rather than by a required two thirds majority. Most governors can veto parts of appropriation bills.

LEGAL PROCEDURES AND TERMS

Oath

Oath is a pledge or promise. The *judicial oath* is probably the most common form of pledge. It is used in a court of law, at a deposition, or before a notary public or judicial officer. A witness taking a judicial oath swears that all of his or her statements are true. Frequently the person must lay one hand on the Bible while taking the oath. This means that the person is making a declaration through God. A person swearing to the truth of an affidavit might be given the following oath:

„You do solemnly swear that the contents of this affidavit by you subscribed are true, so help you Cod”.

A person who takes an oath in court and then makes a dishonest statement while under oath is guilty of perjury, which is a crime punishable by a fine or a jail sentence.

All of us are familiar with oaths in everyday life. For example, a person who promises to give up a bad habit is said to „take an oath”. This kind of oath is called *extra-judicial* because it has no force in a court of law. Oaths taken to show good faith are also extrajudicial.

Affirmation. Some religious groups, such as the Quakers, do not approve of swearing by an oath. They believe in the Bible’s command „Swear not at all”. When members of such groups testify in court, they take an *affirmation* instead of an oath. The affirmation binds them to the truth just as strongly as an oath would. If a person knowingly violates an affirmation, he or she becomes guilty of perjury.

Oath of office. Many important officials take a pledge when they enter a public office. This *oath of office* is a promise to carry on the duties of the office honestly and faithfully. According to the Constitution, the President of the United States must take the following oath at the inauguration:

„I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of the President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States”.

All United States officers lower in rank than the President take oaths much like the one above. An officer taking over a state public office promises to protect the state constitution as well as the U.S. Constitution.

In Canada, many government officials take a pledge of faithfulness upon entering public office. But officials appointed to the federal Senate or elected to the House of Commons, and members of the legislative bodies of the 10 provinces, must take the following oath of allegiance:

„I do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His (or Her) Majesty. . .”

Military oaths are taken by people who enter the armed forces. Before a man or woman enters the service, he or she must take the following oath:

„I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the United States of America; that I will serve them honestly and faithfully against all their enemies whomsoever; and that I will obey the orders of the President of the United States and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to the regulations and the Uniform Code of Military Justice”.

Members of the armed forces of Canada, the United Kingdom, and other countries take a similar oath. In Germany, whole regiments were formerly sworn into the service together in a single ceremony. During conscription for World War II, the United States also had large groups of men and women sworn in together.

Trial

Trial is a method of settling disputes verbally in a court of law. In most cases, the people on each side of the dispute use a lawyer to represent their views, present evidence, and question witnesses. About half the trials held in the United States are jury trials. In the other trials, the defendant chooses to be tried by a judge or a panel of judges instead of a jury.

There are two types of trials, *civil trials* and *criminal trials*. Civil trials settle noncriminal matters, such as contracts, ownership of property, and payment for personal injury. The jury decides who is at fault and how much money must be paid in damages. In a criminal trial, the jury decides the legal guilt or innocence of a person accused of a crime.

A jury trial begins with the selection of the jurors. Then the *prosecutor*, who argues the state’s case against the defendant in a criminal trial, and the *defense attorney* make their opening statements to the jury. In a civil trial, one side is represented by the attorney for the *plaintiff* (*person* who began the lawsuit). The other side is represented by the defense attorney. In their opening statements, the lawyers for both sides declare what they intend to prove during the trial.

Presenting evidence. Each lawyer presents evidence to support his or her side of the case. The evidence may include documents, such as letters or receipts; or objects, such as weapons or clothing. In

most cases, the evidence consists of testimony given by witnesses who are sworn to tell the truth. Witnesses generally give their testimony in response to questions asked by an attorney. Then the opposing attorney cross-examines the witnesses and attempts to find mistakes in their testimony. A witness who is suspected of deliberately lying may be accused of *perjury*.

The admission of evidence in a trial is governed by certain rules. In general, information is admitted as evidence only if it is relevant and firsthand. Relevant information is related to a significant question in the case and helps answer the question. Firsthand information comes from the witness's personal knowledge, not from hearsay.

Following the testimony and cross-examination, the lawyers for each side summarize the case. Then, in a *charge to the jury*, the judge gives instructions concerning the laws that apply to the case.

The judge in each trial decides what evidence will be admitted. He or she may declare a *mistrial* if improper evidence is heard by a jury or if the fairness of a trial is jeopardized in some other way. A mistrial results in a new trial with new jurors. The judge may also hold in *contempt of court* any person who shows disrespect for the court by disrupting a trial. Such a person may be fined or imprisoned, or both.

Reaching a verdict. The jury is taken to a private room to discuss the case, think about it carefully, and reach a verdict. In cases that have received much publicity, the jurors may be *sequestered* (isolated) from other people, including their families, throughout the trial. Sequestered jurors may read newspapers and magazines only if articles about the trial have been cut out. In some cases, the judge orders that the jurors not be allowed to watch television. These restrictions prevent jurors from reading or hearing anything that could influence their opinions about the trial.

In a criminal trial, the prosecutor tries to prove the defendant's guilt „beyond a reasonable doubt”, which is the standard required by law. If the jurors do not feel the prosecutor has done so, they must *acquit* the defendant – that is, find him or her not guilty. If the

jury finds the defendant guilty, the judge sets a date for sentencing. In a civil trial, the attorney for the plaintiff must prove the plaintiff's claim by a „fair *preponderance* (greater weight) of the evidence”.

A *hung jury* is one in which the required number of jurors cannot agree on a verdict. A new trial – with new jurors – is then held.

In some trials, the evidence points without question to a particular verdict. In such cases, the judge may order the jury to return that verdict. A verdict so returned is called a *directed verdict*. The jury does not discuss a directed verdict. A judge cannot order a guilty verdict.

The criminal defendant's rights. The Constitution of the United States guarantees accused people many rights concerning a fair trial. For example, it specifies the right to a jury trial. Other guarantees are included in the Bill of Rights, the first 10 amendments to the Constitution. The first guarantee is in the Fifth Amendment. It ensures by the right of *due process* that each trial will be conducted according to the law.

The Sixth Amendment sets forth the most important rights of a defendant in a criminal trial. These include the right to „a speedy and public trial”. The right to a speedy trial means that a person must be tried as soon as possible after being accused. But the large number of cases awaiting trial may prevent the courts from trying every defendant promptly. The right to a public trial means a defendant cannot be tried in secret. Each trial must be open to public observation.

The Constitution states that a criminal trial must be held in the community in which the crime occurred. The Sixth Amendment requires that the jurors be chosen from that community. In some situations, many local residents have formed an opinion about a case, and so the defendant cannot receive a fair trial there. The defense may then request a *change of venue* – that is, a change in the locality of the trial.

The Supreme Court of the United States has issued many decisions that provide additional rights for accused persons. In 1963, for

example, the court guaranteed the right to free legal counsel in all felony cases. In 1972, the court extended that right to people accused of any offense involving a jail sentence.

A defendant who has been tried, convicted, and sentenced can use his or her right to *appeal*. In an appeal, the defendant asks that the case be reviewed by a higher court called an *appellate court*. Some cases have an automatic right of appeal. In others, the defendant must show some reason for retrying the case, such as the discovery of new evidence. In most cases, the appellate court will reverse the decision of a lower court only if the appellate court feels there has been a violation of law or of the defendant's constitutional rights. An appellate court does not use a jury. Lawyers present the appeal by written arguments called *briefs* and by oral arguments.

The U.S. legal system is based on the belief that a person should be considered innocent until proven guilty. But only a small percentage of the legal disputes in the United States are settled by a trial. The defendant pleads guilty in most cases, and so no trial is needed.

Many cases are settled by *plea bargaining*. In this procedure, the prosecuting attorney agrees to dismiss certain charges, substitute a less serious charge, or recommend a shorter sentence if the defendant pleads guilty. The state saves time and money by plea bargaining rather than putting a defendant on trial.

History. The Saxons, who lived in England during the Middle Ages, gave accused people a *trial by ordeal* rather than by jury. The defendant was perhaps required to hold a piece of red-hot iron or was deliberately injured in some other way. The Saxons believed that God would heal the accused person's wounds within three days if he or she was innocent. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, two people fought if they disagreed about a matter. They believed that God would grant victory to the one who was right.

The present trial system in the United States and Canada developed from English *common law* and equity. Common law is a group of rulings made by judges on the basis of community customs and previous court decisions. Equity is a set of standards based on

broad principles of justice. English colonists brought their legal system with them to North America.

Witness

Witness is a person who gives testimony in a judicial, legislative, or administrative proceeding. Such testimony is given under oath, or, if the witness's religion forbids an oath, under affirmation. A witness may also be a person who signs a legal instrument, such as a will or deed, that another person executes in the presence of the witness.

A court witness is ordered to appear in court by a *subpoena*, which compels the person to attend and to give evidence. A person who fails to appear is liable to punishment for *contempt of court*. A witness who testifies untruthfully is guilty of the crime of *perjury*, and can be severely punished. Witnesses may legally refuse to testify against themselves or their spouses.

The question of who is suitable to serve as a witness is regulated by *rules of evidence*. The law considers certain people as unsuitable to give legal testimony. People who are insane and people who are too young to understand the nature of a binding oath are included in this class.

Jury

Jury is a group of citizens which hears the testimony in legal disputes and determines what it believes is the truth. In the United States, the law provides for three types of juries: (1) petit, (2) grand, and (3) coroner's.

Petit juries. A petit, or petty, jury is a trial jury and the most common form of jury. In a civil lawsuit, a petit jury decides who is at fault and how much money must be paid in damages. In a criminal trial, the jury decides whether the defendant is or is not guilty. The jury hears testimony by witnesses, then the lawyer for each side summarizes the case. In a *charge to the jury*, the judge explains the laws that apply. Finally, the jury discusses the case and reaches a verdict.

If the jurors are not convinced „beyond a reasonable doubt” that a defendant is guilty, they must *acquit* him or her – that is, return a

verdict of not guilty. Traditionally, the jurors must reach a unanimous verdict. However, some states accept a specified majority vote. Until about 1970, juries consisted of 12 members and 1 or 2 alternate jurors. Today, some states use juries of as few as 6 members. A *hung jury* is one in which the required number of jurors cannot agree on a verdict. A new trial – with new jurors – is held in such cases.

The names of possible jurors are selected by the court from such sources as tax rolls, voting lists, and telephone directories. From the selected names, people are then chosen by lot and summoned for possible service on a jury. Before becoming a jury member, a person is questioned by the trial judge, the opposing lawyers, or both. This procedure is known as the *voir dire*. The attorneys may reject any person *for cause*. They do so by stating why a person should not serve as a juror. For example, the person may be related to someone involved in the case. The lawyers are also permitted a limited number of rejections called *peremptory challenges*. Lawyers need give no reason for making these challenges. But a new trial may be ordered if a judge decides that the lawyers have made their challenges solely on account of race.

The U.S. Constitution provides that jurors in a criminal trial must be neutral regarding the case. In most situations, the jurors are selected from the community where the supposed crime occurred. An accused person may choose to be tried by a judge without a jury.

Grand juries consist of from 16 to 23 members in most states. There are two kinds of grand juries in the United States, *charging* and *investigatory*. A charging grand jury decides whether there is enough evidence to try a person suspected of a crime. If the jury finds sufficient evidence, it makes a formal accusation, called an *indictment*, against the person. The suspect is then tried by a petit jury. An investigatory grand jury investigates (1) suspected dishonesty of public officials and (2) possible crime, especially organized crime.

Coroner's juries. A coroner's jury conducts an *inquest* (study) into the cause of death in cases that involve doubt. Most coroner's juries consist of six members.

History. During the A.D. 800's, people in many European communities testified to a representative of the king about such matters as taxes and land boundaries. In the late 1100's, jurors acted as witnesses and described events. By the 1700's, jurors were judging the evidence of others.

Suit

Suit. People who seek the help of a court of law to enforce their rights are said to „bring suit”. Someone who has suffered injury at the hands of another may bring suit for damages. A person may also bring suit to recover property, to collect money, to enforce the terms of a contract, or to accomplish one of many other purposes. A governmental unit may bring suit in the way as a private person or a corporation. In general, a suit is any civil action brought before a court of law. Criminal cases are not called suits.

Perjury

Perjury is a crime in which a person swears or affirms to tell the truth in a court of law or in an administrative or legislative proceeding, and then deliberately tells a lie. In most states, the lie is perjury only if it has a direct bearing on the issue before the court, tribunal, or legislative body. An unintentional misstatement is not considered perjury. A person is guilty of subornation of perjury when he or she causes another person to commit perjury. Subornation of perjury is also a crime. Perjury is usually considered a felony.

Indictment

Indictment, in law, is a written statement accusing one or more persons of a particular crime. An indictment can be issued only by a grand jury and only for a serious crime. The grand jury must find that there is *probable cause* (reason) to accuse a person of a crime. The word *indictment* comes from the old French word *enditer*, meaning *to make known*. In an indictment, the grand jury *makes*

known both the accused and the exact offense. The chairperson of the grand jury and the prosecuting attorney must sign the *true bill* (bill of indictment). No one can be convicted of a greater offense than that charged in the indictment. The form and language of any indictment are prescribed by law.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

Court

Court is a government institution that settles legal disputes and administers justice. Courts resolve conflicts involving individuals, organizations, and governments, courts also decide the legal guilt or innocence of persons accused of crimes and sentence the guilty.

All courts are presided over by judges. These officials decide all questions of law, including what evidence is fair to use. In many cases, the judge also decides the truth or falsity of each side's claims. In other cases, a jury decides any questions of fact. The word *court* may refer to a judge alone or to a judge and jury acting together. It also may refer to the place where legal disputes are settled.

Some court rulings affect only the persons involved in a case. Other decisions deal with broad public issues, such as freedom of the press, racial discrimination, and the rights of persons accused of a crime. In this way, courts serve as a powerful means of social and political change.

Types of courts. Courts differ in their *jurisdiction* (authority to decide a case). Generally, courts are classified as *trial courts* or *appellate courts*, and as *criminal courts* or *civil courts*.

Trial and appellate courts. Nearly all legal cases begin in trial courts, also called *courts of original jurisdiction*. These courts may have general jurisdiction or limited, also called *special*, jurisdiction. Courts of general jurisdiction hear many types of cases. The major trial court of any county, state, or other political unit is a court of general jurisdiction. Courts of limited or special jurisdiction specialize in one or more types of cases, such as those involving juvenile offenders or traffic violations.

The losing side often has the right to *appeal* – that is, to ask that aspects of the case be reconsidered by a higher court called an appellate or *appeals court*. Appellate courts review cases decided by trial courts if the losing side questions the ruling of the lower court on a matter of law. Appellate courts cannot review a trial court’s decision on the facts.

Criminal and civil courts. Criminal courts deal with actions considered harmful to society, such as murder and robbery. In criminal cases, the government takes legal action against an individual. The sentences handed down by criminal courts range from probation and fines to imprisonment and, in some states, death.

Civil courts settle disputes involving people’s private relations with one another. Civil suits involve such non-criminal matters as contracts, family relationships, and accidental injuries. In most civil cases, an individual or organization sues another individual or organization. Most civil decisions do not involve a prison sentence, though the party at fault may be ordered to pay damages.

How criminal courts work. Most persons arrested on suspicion of a crime appear before a judge called a *magistrate* within 24 hours after the arrest. In cases involving minor offenses, the magistrate conducts a trial and sentences the guilty. In more serious cases, the magistrate decides whether to keep the *defendant* (*accused person*) in jail or to release him or her on bail. The magistrate also may appoint a state-paid defense attorney, called a *public defender*, to represent a defendant who cannot afford a lawyer.

Pretrial proceedings. In a case involving a serious crime, the police give their evidence of the suspect’s guilt to a government attorney called a *prosecutor*. In some states, the prosecutor formally charges the defendant in a document called an *information*. The prosecutor presents the information and other evidence to a magistrate at a *preliminary hearing*. If the magistrate decides that there is *probable cause* (good reason for assuming) that the defendant committed the crime, the magistrate orders the defendant held for trial. In other states and in federal courts, the prosecutor presents the evidence to a *grand jury*, a group of

citizens who decide whether the evidence justifies bringing the case to trial. If the grand jury finds sufficient evidence for a trial, it issues a formal accusation called an *indictment* against the suspect. The defendant then appears in a court of general jurisdiction to answer the charges. This hearing is called an *arraignment*. If the defendant pleads guilty, the judge pronounces sentence. Many defendants plead guilty, rather than go to trial, in return for a reduced charge or a shorter sentence. This practice is called *plea bargaining*. Most criminal cases in the United States are settled in this way. But if the accused pleads not guilty, the case goes to trial. **Trial.** The defendant may request a jury trial or a *bench trial*, which is a trial before a judge. The jury or judge must decide if the evidence presented by the prosecutor proves the defendant guilty „beyond a reasonable doubt”. If not, the defendant must be *acquitted* (found not guilty).

If the defendant is found guilty, the judge pronounces sentence. Convicted defendants may take their case to an appellate court. However, prosecutors may not appeal an acquittal because the United States Constitution forbids the government to *put a person in double jeopardy* (try a person twice) for the same crime.

How civil courts work. A civil lawsuit begins when an individual or organization, called the *plaintiff*, files a complaint against another individual or organization, called the *defendant*. The complaint formally states the injuries or losses the plaintiff believes were caused by the defendant’s actions. The complaint also asks for a certain amount of money in damages.

The defendant receives a *summons*, a notice that a complaint has been filed. It directs the defendant to appear in court on a certain date. The defendant then files a document called an *answer*. The answer contains the defendant’s version of the facts of the case and asks the court to dismiss the suit. The defendant also may file a *counterclaim* against the plaintiff.

In most cases, the complaint and the answer are the first of a series of documents called the *pleadings*. In the pleadings, the plaintiff and defendant state their own claims and challenge the claims of

their opponents. Most civil cases are settled out of court on the basis of the pleadings. However, if serious questions of fact remain, a formal *discovery* takes place. This procedure forces each *litigant* (party involved in the case) to reveal the testimony or records that would be introduced as evidence in court. If the case still remains in dispute after the discovery, it goes to trial.

Civil cases may be decided by a judge or by a jury. The judge or jury determines who is at fault and how much must be paid in damages. Both sides may appeal.

History. Early courts. Tribal councils or groups of elders served as the first courts. They settled disputes on the basis of local custom. Later civilizations developed written legal codes. The need to interpret these codes and to apply them to specific situations resulted in the development of formal courts. For example, the ancient Hebrews had a supreme council, called the *Sanhedrin*, which interpreted Hebrew law.

The ancient Romans developed the first complete legal code as well as an advanced court system. After the collapse of the West Roman Empire in the A.D. 400's, the Roman judicial system gradually died out in western Europe. It was replaced by *feudal courts*, which were conducted by local lords. These courts had limited jurisdiction and decided cases on the basis of local customs.

Development of civil-law and common-law courts. During the early 1100's, universities in Italy began to train lawyers according to the principles of ancient Roman law. Roman law, which relied strictly on written codes, gradually replaced much of the feudal court system throughout mainland Europe. In the early 1800's, the French ruler Napoleon I used Roman law as the foundation of the *Code Napoleon*. This code, a type of civil law, became the basis of the court system in most European and Latin American countries.

By the 1200's, England had established a nationwide system of courts. These courts developed a body of law that was called *common law* because it applied uniformly to people everywhere in the country. Common-law courts followed traditional legal

principles and based their decisions chiefly on precedents. English common law became the basis of the court system for most countries colonized by England, including the United States and Canada.

Development of U.S. courts. The American Colonies based their courts on the English common-law system. These colonial courts became state courts after the United States became an independent nation in 1776. Only Louisiana modeled its court system on civil law. In 1789, Congress passed the Judiciary Act, which created the federal court system.

Law Enforcement

Law enforcement is the means by which a community, state, or country keeps order. The enforcement of civil and criminal law by government agencies helps the members of a society to live together peaceably.

Civil law regulates many conflicts between people, disputes about such matters as contracts, ownership of property, and payment for personal injury are settled in court through lawsuits. The enforcement of civil law takes up most of the time of most lawyers and courts, but it does not involve the police. Criminal law covers actions harmful to society. Such crimes as murder, rape, and robbery threaten the order of a society. This article discusses the enforcement of criminal law. People who violate criminal law may be (1) arrested by the police and (2) put on trial by the local, state, or national government. If found guilty, they may be (3) imprisoned.

Arrest. Police enforce criminal law by arresting anyone they reasonably believe has committed a crime. In some cases, a police officer must have a court order called a *warrant* before making an arrest. But an officer does not need a warrant to arrest a person he or she observes violating the law. Many people who go on trial were arrested without a warrant shortly after the crime of which they were accused.

Trial. The evidence that a person committed a crime is given by the police to a government attorney called a *prosecutor*. At a

preliminary hearing held before a judge, the prosecutor must show „probable cause” to justify holding the defendant for trial. The judge appoints a defense attorney to handle the person’s case if the accused cannot afford to hire one. The judge sets bail if he or she believes the defendant should go on trial. A defendant who does not have enough money to put up bail must stay in jail until the trial.

Formal charges against the defendant may be made in the form of an *information* by the prosecutor or as an *indictment* by a grand jury. In many cases, the accused agrees to plead guilty in exchange for being charged with a less serious crime or being promised a shorter prison sentence. This process is called *plea bargaining*. The judge takes the plea at a hearing called an *arraignment*. About 90 per cent of all defendants plead guilty, most of them as a result of plea bargaining.

Defendants who plead not guilty may have a trial by jury, or the judge alone may decide the facts of the case. If the defendant is found guilty, the judge then sentences the individual.

Imprisonment. Most criminal laws specify the longest and shortest prison term to which an offender may be sentenced. The judge often decides the exact length of the sentence, depending on what he or she feels will best serve both the offender and society. Prison terms are meant to punish offenders, reform criminals, remove dangerous offenders from society, and show possible future lawbreakers the penalties for crime.

If the judge believes a prison term would not help an offender, the individual may be sentenced to a period of probation. A lawbreaker who is on probation remains free, but a probation officer assigned by the court may check on the individual’s activities. An offender who violates the rules of the probation may be imprisoned.

Police

Police are government officers who enforce the law and maintain order. They work to prevent crime and to protect the lives and property of the people of a community. Policemen and policewomen serve their communities in many ways. They patrol

streets to guard against crime and to assist people with various problems. Police officers direct traffic to keep it running smoothly and safely. The police are often called to settle quarrels, find lost people, and aid accident victims. During floods, fires, and other disasters, they help provide shelter, transportation, and protection for victims.

The police form part of a nation's *criminal justice system*, which also includes courts and prisons. Police officers enforce *criminal law*, which covers murder, robbery, burglary, and other crimes that threaten society. Police officers investigate such crimes and arrest suspected lawbreakers. They also testify in court trials.

Every nation in the world has a police system. In the United States, there are about 40,000 separate police agencies that operate under city, county, or federal governments. In many countries, the national government directs all police operations.

Police officers in the United States are often called *cops*. During the late 1800's, they were called *constables*. The word *cop* may have come from the initials *c.o.p.*, which stood for constable on patrol. Some experts believe *cop* is short for *copper*, a word that referred to the copper badges worn by police officers.

Police activities. Patrol operations are the foundation of police work. Patrol officers are assigned *beats* (areas or routes) to cover on foot, in squad cars, or on motorcycles. In some cities, they patrol parks on horseback.

Patrol officers survey their beats repeatedly. For patrol officers carry two-way pocket radios, and patrol cars are equipped with larger two-way radios. Officers may receive assignments over their radios to handle an auto accident, investigate a reported crime, or settle a family police station. If necessary, they may call the police station for assistance in handling an assignment. Patrol officers are often assigned to control crowds at parades, fairs, and other public events.

Police officers may arrest a person they see committing. They also may arrest a person if they have reasonable cause to suspect that the person is committing a crime or is about to commit one. But in

some cases, police officers are required to get a court order called a *warrant* before making an arrest.

Traffic operations. Traffic officers promote public safety on streets and highways. They direct traffic, protect pedestrians; aid motorists; and enforce parking, speed and other traffic laws. Traffic officers also investigate traffic accidents and enforce safety and license regulations for motor vehicles. Some police departments use helicopters to survey traffic.

Investigations of crimes are conducted by detectives, who are sometimes called *plainclothes officers* because they do not wear uniforms. In some police departments, the term *plainclothes officers* refers to members of the *vice squad*. The vice squad investigates cases that involve gambling, prostitution, or other illegal activities considered to be immoral.

Detectives work in various specialized fields that deal with such crimes as murder, robbery, or the illegal sale of drugs. In a murder case, detectives may start their investigation by searching for bloodstains, fingerprints, and weapons. They question any witnesses, suspects, or others who may have information about the crime.

Various technical units in a police department assist the detectives in an investigation. The *photography unit* takes pictures of the crime scene and the evidence. The *crime laboratory* collects and examines bloodstains, bullets, hair samples, fingerprints, weapons, and other evidence. Experts in the laboratory may perform chemical tests to identify any unknown substance connected with the crime. The detectives in charge of an investigation supervise the technical units involved. Later, the reports of the detectives and the technical units are used in court.

Criminal intelligence. Some police officers are assigned to gather *intelligence* (information) about the activities of suspected criminals. The women and men who work in the criminal intelligence division of a police department are sometimes called *undercover agents*. They gather information on such criminal operations as large-scale gambling and the illegal sale of drugs.

The reports of intelligence officers are used in planning ways to fight criminal activities.

Juvenile work. Officers in the juvenile division of a police department handle cases involving youths accused of breaking the law. In most states of the United States, anyone under the age of 18 is considered a juvenile. Juvenile officers often refer young people to social agencies rather than bring criminal charges against them in a court. These officers try to help the young people and their parents with personal problems. They also investigate crimes that involve the neglect or abuse of young children. The officers may testify in court to protect the rights of the youngsters. In addition, juvenile officers often work with young people in community programs.

Records and communications. The records bureau of a police department keeps files on all reported crimes, investigations, and arrests, and on various police activities. Many police departments use computers to process and store these records.

The communications center is another important unit of a police department. Its *central dispatch office* receives calls for help or reports of crimes and sends officers to the scene. Many larger police agencies use computers in this operation. When a report of a crime or a call for help comes into the central dispatch office, the information is typed on the *terminal* of a computer. A terminal is an electronic keyboard that can both receive and send information. A dispatch officer reviews the problem and sends the information to one or more available patrol cars. The patrol officers receive the assignment over terminals in their cars.

Other activities. Large police agencies have various specialized units, including *search and rescue teams*, *hostage negotiating teams*, *bomb squads*, and *special weapons units*. Most members of such units work at other assignments until their special skills are needed. Some medium sized and large police departments also have *data processing and research offices*.

Search and rescue teams try to find persons lost in forests, mountains, caves, or other out-of-the-way places. Members of

these teams are trained in rock climbing, mountain survival, and other skills. They often use helicopters and airplanes in rescue missions.

Hostage-negotiating teams handle cases in which criminals hold people captive. During some crimes, including bank robberies and airplane hijackings, the criminals may take innocent people as hostages. They threaten to injure or kill the hostages if certain demands are not met. Members of the hostage-negotiating team try to persuade the criminals to release the hostages without harm. Team members are skilled in psychology and personal relations.

Bomb squads respond to reports of bomb threats. They search the building or other place where a bomb supposedly has been planted. If they find a bomb, they try to prevent it from exploding or move it to a place where it cannot damage property or injure people.

Special weapons units handle dangerous situations involving armed criminals. Members of these units are skilled in the use of high-powered rifles and other weapons. They know how to surround and capture criminals with the least possible danger to others. Special weapons units are often called *S.W.A.T.* teams. Those letters stand for *Special Weapons and Tactics* or *Special Weapons Attack Team*.

Data processing and research offices perform a variety of services. These offices may be staffed by police officers or by private citizens. Staff members compile crime statistics to help identify high-crime areas. They also prepare reports on personnel needs. In addition, they research new investigation techniques.

Використана література:

Матеріали з розділу „Texts for Home Reading. Part two: Law” підготовані на основі статей, поміщених в енциклопедії „The World Book. Encyclopedia”. Volumens 1-21. – Chicago, London, Sydney, Toronto. – 1994.

АНГЛО-УКРАЇНСЬКИЙ СЛОВНИК

А

| | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|--|
| abolish v | [≅βΟΛΙΣ] | скасовувати |
| accessible adj | [{κ'σεσΙβλ}] | доступна (освіта) |
| accompany v | [≅'κ)μπ≅νΙ] | супроводжувати |
| according to | [≅'κ δΙε] | відповідно до |
| accused n | [≅'κφ]ζδ] | підсудний, обвинувачений |
| achieve v | [≅'θ√ω] | досягати |
| acquire v | [≅'κωαΙ≅] | набувати |
| acquit v | [≅'κωΙτ] | виправдовувати |
| acquittal n | [≅'κωΙτλ] | виправдання |
| act v | [{κτ] | діяти |
| action n | [{'κΣν] | дія |
| activity n | [{κ'τΙωΙτΙ] | діяльність |
| add v | [{δ}] | додавати |
| adequate adj | [{'δΙκωΙτ] | відповідний |
| adjourn v | [≅'≥'ν] | відстрочувати; відкидати |
| administer v | [≅δ'μΙνΙστ≅] | застосовувати (закон); управляти, керувати |
| adopt v | [≅'δΟπτ] | приймати; ухвалювати |
| advice n | [≅δ'ωαΙσ] | порада |
| adviser n | [≅δ'ωαΙζ≅] | радник |
| affidavit n | [∇{φΙ'δεΙωΙτ] | письмове свідчення під присягою |
| affirmation n | [∇{φ'μειΣν] | урочиста заява |

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| age n | [εΙ≥] | вік |
| agreement n | [≅γ'ρ√μ≅ντ] | згода |
| aid n | [εΙδ] | допомога |
| alderman n | [']λδ≅μ≅ν] | олдермен, член місцевого управління |
| alien n | [']εΙλφ≅ν] | іноземець |
| alimony n | [']{λΙμ≅νΙ] | виплата утримання |
| allegiance n | [≅'λΙ≥≅νσ] | вірність; лояльність; відданість; васальна залежність |
| allied adj | [≅'λαΙδ] | союзний, союзницький |
| allowance n | [≅'λαυ≅νσ] | грошова допомога; утримання |
| alternative adj | [λ'τ'ν≅τΙϖ] | альтернативний, альтернатива |
| although | [']λΔου] | хоча |
| ambassador n | [{μ'β{σ≅δ≅] | посол |
| amend v | [≅'μενδ] | вносити поправки, виправляти |
| amendment n | [≅'μενδμ≅ντ] | поправка |
| ancestor n | [']{νσΙστ≅] | предок |
| anthem n | [']{νΓ≅μ] | гімн |
| apartheid n | [≅'π÷τηαΙδ] | апартеїд |
| apparent adj | [≅'π{ρ≅ντ] | явний; очевидний; безперечний |
| appeal n | [≅'π√λ] | заклик; апеляція, скарга |
| appellate (court) | [≅'πελΙτ] | апеляційний (суд) |
| application n | [√{πλΙ'κεΙΣν] | заява; прохання |
| applied adj | [≅'πλαΙδ] | практичний, |

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| apply v | [≐'πλαΙ] | прикладний застосовувати |
| appoint v | [≐'πΟΙvτ] | призначати |
| apprenticeship n | [≐'πεvτΙσΣΙπ] | учнівство |
| appropriate v | [≐'προυπρΙεΙτ] | приспособувати |
| appropriation n | [≐v'προυπρΙ'εΙΣv] | асигнування; фонд; церковний збір |
| approval n | [≐'πρ] ω≐λ] | схвалення, згода |
| approve v | [≐'πρ] ω] | схвалювати |
| arbitration n | [÷βΙ'τρειΣv] | розгляд суперечки третейським судом (арбітраж) |
| arbitrator n | [v÷βΙ'τρειτ≐] | арбітр, третейський суддя |
| arise v | [≐'ραΙζ] | виникати |
| arraignment n | [≐'ρεΙvμ≐vτ] | притягнення до суду; пред'явлення обвинувачення |
| arson n | ['÷σv] | підпал |
| article n | ['÷τΙκλ] | стаття |
| articled clerk | ['÷τΙκλδ] | клерк-стажист |
| assault n | [≐'σ] λτ] | напад |
| assembly n | [≐'σεμβλΙ] | збори |
| assessment n | [≐'σεσμ≐vτ] | оцінка |
| assistance n | [≐'σΙστ≐vσ] | допомога |
| assize n | [≐'σαΙζ] | судовий розгляд |
| associated with | [≐'σουΣΙεΙτΙδ] | пов'язаний з |
| assure v | [≐'Συ≐] | забезпечувати |
| asylum n | [≐'σαΙλ≐μ] | притулок (політичний) |

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| at least | [λ√στ] | як мінімум |
| attain v | [≐'τελν] | досягати (віку) |
| attempt v | [≐'τεμπτ] | спробувати |
| attorney n | [≐'τ'νI] | адвокат |
| auditor n | [']δIτ≐] | ревізор |
| authorities n | [']ΠOpIτIζ] | влада |
| automatically adv | [∇]τ≐'μετIκ≐λI] | автоматично |
| available adj | [≐'ωελI≐βλ] | доступна (освіта) |
| award v | [≐'ω]δ] | присуджувати (компенсацію) |

B

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| bail n | [βεIλ] | застава |
| balance v | [']β{λ≐νσ} | врівноважувати |
| ballot n | [']β{λ≐τ} | виборчий бюлетень |
| ban n | [β{ν} | заборона |
| ban v | [β{ν} | забороняти |
| banishment n | [']β{νIΣμ≐ντ} | вигнання |
| bankruptcy n | [']β{εκρ≐πσI} | банкрутство |
| banns pl | [β{νζ] | оголошення у церкві імен заручених, що беруть шлюб |
| Bar (the) n | [β÷] | адвокатура |
| barrister n | [']β{ρIστ≐] | баристер, адвокат вищої категорії |
| battery n | [']β{τ≐ρI] | образа дією |
| be aimed | [']εIμδ] | мати на меті |
| be charged with responsibility | [∂÷≥δ] | бути зобов'язаним |
| be concerned with | [κ≐ν'σ'νδ] | мати відношення до |

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| be entitled | [Iv'tαIτδ] | мати право |
| bear (responsibility) | [βE≡] | нести (відповідальність) |
| bearer n | [ʼβE≡ρ≡] | носії |
| beat n | [β√τ] | район поліцейського патрулювання |
| believer n | [βI'λ√ϖ≡] | віруючий |
| belligerent n | [βI'λI≥≡ρ≡vτ] | воююча сторона |
| beneficiary n | [∇βεvI'φIΣ≡ρI] | особа, що одержує прибутки від довірчої власності |
| benefit n | [ʼβεvIφIτ] | привілей; благо; допомога |
| bequest n | [βI'κωεστ] | посмертний дар; спадщина |
| bigamy n | [ʼβIγ≡μI] | двошлюбність |
| bilateral adj | [βαI'λ{τ≡ρ≡λ}] | двосторонній |
| board n | [β]δ] | рада (директорів) |
| bond n | [βOvδ] | боргове зобов'язання |
| borough n | [ʼβ\ρ≡] | місто, що має статус самоврядування |
| borrow (money) | [ʼβOpou] | позичати (гроші) |
| bound adj | [βαυvδ] | зобов'язаний |
| branch n | [βρ÷vδ] | гілка |
| brand n | [βρ{vδ] | марка, бренд |
| bribe v | [βραIβ] | підкупляти |
| brief a barrister | [βρ√φ] | доручити ведення справи в суді баристерові |
| brief n | [βρ√φ] | короткий письмовий |

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| budget n | [β]≥Iτ] | виклад справи бюджет |
| burglar n | [β γλ≅] | зłodий |
| burglarize v | [β γλ≅ραIζ] | чинити крадіжку із зломом |
| by-election n | [βαII∇λεκΣν] | додаткові вибори |

C

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| call upon | [κ]λ] | закликати |
| cancel v | [κ{νσ≅λ] | анулювати |
| canon n | [κ{ν≅ν] | канон |
| care n | [κE≅] | турбота, піклування |
| carry out | [κ{ρI] | виконувати, здійснювати |
| case n | [κE σ] | справа |
| cash n | [κ{Σ] | готівка |
| caucus n | [κ κ≅σ] | таємна нарада лідерів партій; партійні збори |
| cause n | [κ]ζ] | судова справа, процес |
| census n | [σενσ≅σ] | перепис (населення) |
| ceremonial adj | [∇σερI'μουνοφ≅ λ] | формальний, церемоніальний |
| certify v | [σ'τIφαI] | засвідчувати |
| chair v | [∂E≅] | очолювати |
| challenge (jurisdiction) | [∂{λIν≥] | оскаржувати (рішення суду) |
| chamber n | [∂εIμβ≅] | палата |
| charge n | [∂÷≥] | обвинувачення |

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| charge v | [θ÷≥] | призначати плату |
| charitable adj | [ʹθ{ρIτ≡βλ}] | добродійний |
| charity n | [ʹθ{ρIτI}] | благодійність |
| charter n | [ʹθ÷τ≡] | хартія |
| check v | [θεκ] | контролювати |
| cheerless adj | [ʹθI≡λIσ] | безрадісний |
| chief adj | [θ√φ] | головний |
| choice n | [θOIσ] | вибір |
| church n | [θʔθ] | церква |
| circuit n | [ʹσʔκIτ] | округ |
| citizen n | [ʹσIτIζv] | громадянин |
| citizenship n | [ʹσIτIζvΣIπ] | громадянство |
| civil adj | [ʹσIϖλ] | цивільний |
| claim n | [κλεIμ] | позов, заява |
| clause n | [κλʔζ] | стаття, пункт |
| clergy n | [ʹκλʔ≥I] | духовенство |
| clerk n | [κλ÷κ] | клерк |
| code n | [κουδ] | кодекс |
| codify v | [ʹκOδIφαI] | кодифікувати, систематизувати |
| collect v | [κ≡ʹλεκτ] | збирати |
| commander in chief n | [κ≡ʹμ÷vδ≡ρIvʹθ √φ] | головнокомандуючий |
| commandment n | [κ≡ʹμ÷vδμ≡vτ] | заповідь |
| commerce n | [ʹκOμʔσ] | комерція |
| commissioner n | [κ≡ʹμIΣv≡] | уповноважений |
| common law | [ʹκOμ≡v] | загальне право |
| community n | [κ≡ʹμφʔvIτI] | суспільство |
| compete v | [κ≡μʹπ√τ] | змагатися |

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| completion n | [κ≅μ'πλ√Σν] | завершення |
| complex adj | ['κΟμπλεκσ] | складний |
| complicated adj | ['κΟμπλΙ∇κεΙτΙδ] | складний |
| comply with | [κ≅μ'πλαΙ] | підкорятися |
| comprise v | [κ≅μ'πραΙζ] | включати |
| compulsory adj | [κ≅μ'π\λσ≅ρΙ] | обов'язкова (освіта) |
| concerning | [κ≅ν'σ\ρνΙε] | стосовно |
| conclusion n | [κ≅ν'κλ\Ζν] | підсумок |
| condition n | [κ≅ν'δΙΣν] | умова |
| confirm v | [κ≅ν'φ\μ] | затверджувати |
| conformity n | [κ≅ν'φ\μΙτΙ] | відповідність; узгодженість |
| Congress n | ['κΟεγρεσ] | конгрес |
| conscription n | [κ≅νσκ'πΙκΣν] | військова повинність, призов на військову службу; набір (у військо) |
| consent n | [κ≅ν'σεντ] | згода |
| Conservative Party | [κ≅ν'σ\τ≅τΙω] | консервативна партія |
| consider v | [κ≅ν'σΙδ≅] | вважати |
| constantly adv | ['κΟνσταντλΙ] | постійно |
| constituency n | [κ≅νσ'τΙτφυ≅νσΙ] | виборці; виборчий округ |
| contempt of court | [κ≅ν'τεμπτ] | зневага суду |
| contest n | [κ≅ν'τεστ] | оспорювати |
| contract n | ['κΟντρ\κτ] | контракт |
| contract v | [κ≅ν'τρ\κτ] | укладати договір |
| contribute to | [κ≅ντ'ρΙβφ\τ] | робити внесок, сприяти |

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| controversy n | [ˈkɒntrɒvɜːrʃɪ] | суперечка |
| convention n | [kənˈvɛnʃən] | з'їзд |
| conviction n | [kənˈvɪkʃən] | засудження |
| copyright n | [ˈkɒpɪraɪt] | авторське право |
| copyright v | [ˈkɒpɪraɪt] | присуджувати авторське право |
| coroner n | [ˈkɒrənɜː] | судовий слідчий, який проводить розслідування випадків насильної (наглої) смерті |
| council n | [ˈkaʊnsl] | рада |
| councilor n | [ˈkaʊnslɜː] | радник |
| counsel n | [ˈkaʊnsl] | порада; консультація; адвокат |
| county n | [ˈkaʊntɪ] | графство |
| court decision | [dɪˈsɪʒən] | рішення суду |
| court n | [kɔːt] | суд |
| covenant n | [ˈkɒvənənt] | угода; договір; окрема стаття договору |
| create v | [kreɪˈeɪt] | створювати |
| creation n | [kreɪˈeɪʃən] | створення |
| crime n | [kraɪm] | злочин |
| criminal adj | [ˈkrɪmɪnl] | кримінальний |
| cross-examine v | [ˈkrɒsɪɡˈzɪmɪn] | піддавати перехресному допиту |
| custody n | [ˈkʌstədɪ] | опіка, піклування |
| customs pl | [ˈkʌstəmz] | мито |

D

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| damage n | [δ{μΙ≥] | збиток, шкода |
| deal with | [δ√λ] | мати справу з |
| dealings pl | [δ√λΙεζ] | ділові стосунки |
| debt n | [δετ] | борг |
| decide v | [δΙ'σαΙδ] | вирішувати |
| declare (war) | [δΙ'κλΕ≅] | оголошувати (війну) |
| decree n | [δΙ'κρ√] | декрет, указ, наказ |
| deed n | [δ√δ] | документ, акт |
| defamatory adj | [δΙ'φ{μ≅τρΙ] | наклепницький |
| defect n | [δΙ'φεκτ] | вада |
| defence n | [δΙ'φενσ] | захист |
| defend v | [δΙ'φενδ] | захищати |
| defendant n | [δΙ'φενδ≅ντ] | обвинувачуваний, відповідач |
| define v | [δΙ'φαν] | визначати |
| definition n | [∇δεφΙ'νΙΣν] | визначення |
| defraud v | [δΙ'φρ δ] | обманювати; відбирати (обманом) |
| delegate n | [δ'ελΙγΙτ] | делегат |
| deliberate adj | [δε'λΙβερΙτ] | умисний |
| deliberation n | [∇δΙλΙβ≅'ρεΙΣν] | дискусія, обговорення |
| delinquent n | [δΙ'λΙεκω≅ντ] | правопорушник |
| democracy n | [δΙ'μΟκρ≅σΙ] | демократія |
| demonstrate v | [δ'εμ≅νστρεΙτ] | демонструвати |
| depend on | [δΙ'πενδ] | залежати від |
| deposit n | [δΙ'πΟζΙτ] | вклад |
| deposition n | [∇δεπ≅'ζΙΣν] | усунення, звільнення (з посади) |
| depositor n | [δΙ'πΟζΙτ≅] | вкладник |

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| deputy n | ['δεπφ] τΙ | депутат |
| design v | [δΙ 'ζαΙν] | розробляти |
| detention n | [δΙ 'τενΣν] | затримання |
| determine v | [δΙ 'τ } μΙν] | визначати |
| develop v | [δΙ 'πελΞπ] | розвивати |
| devisee n | [√δεεπΙ 'ζν] | спадкоємець |
| devote v | [δΙ 'πουτ] | присвячувати |
| dignity n | ['δΙγνΙτΙ] | гідність |
| disappear v | [√δΙσΞ 'πΙΞ] | зникати |
| disarmament n | [δΙσ ' ÷ μΞ μΞ ντ] | роззброєння |
| disbar v | [δΙσ 'β ÷] | позбавити звання адвоката |
| discard v | [δΙσ 'κ ÷ δ] | відкидати |
| discharge v | [δΙσ 'ð ÷ ≥] | звільняти |
| disinherit v | ['δΙσΙν ' ηερΙτ] | позбавити спадщини |
| disorderly adj | [δΙ 'σ] δΞ λΙ] | протизаконний |
| dispose of | [δΙσ ' πουζ] | розпоряджатися (майном) |
| dissolve (parliament) | [δΙ 'ζΟλπ] | розпускати (парламент) |
| distinction n | [δΙσ ' τΙνκΣν] | розрізнення |
| diverse adj | [δα Ι ' π } σ] | різноманітний |
| divide v | [δΙ ' π α Ι δ] | поділяти |
| division n | [δΙ ' π Ι Ζ ν] | відділ, сектор |
| double jeopardy | [' ≥ ε π Ξ δ Ι] | притягнення до карної відповідальності вдруге за той самий злочин |
| draft (legislation) | [√ λ ε ≥ Ι σ ' λ ε Ι Σ ν] | розробляти (законопроекти) |

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| draft n | [δρ÷φτ] | проект |
| draw up | [δρ] | укладати (договір) |
| dual adj | [δφ]≅λ] | подвійний |

E

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|----------------------------|------------------------|---|
| earl n | [λ] | граф |
| ecclesiastical unit | [Ivκλ√ζI' {στIκ ≅λ] | церковна одиниця |
| education n | [Vεδφ] 'κεIΣv] | освіта |
| effective adj | [I'φεκIω] | ефективний |
| elect v | [I'λεκτ] | обирати, голосувати |
| elections pl | [I'λεκΣvζ] | вибори |
| elementary adj | [VελI'μεvτερI] | початкова (освіта) |
| eliminate v | [I'λIμIvεIτ] | усувати; ліквідувати |
| embargo n | [εμ'β÷γου] | ембарго; заборона |
| embassy n | ['εμβ≅σI] | посольство |
| embezzlement n | [Iμ'βεζλμ≅vτ] | привласнення чужого майна (грошей) |
| emergency n | [I'μ ≥≅vσI] | надзвичайний стан |
| employment n | [Iμ'πλOIμ≅vτ] | зайнятість |
| enact v | [I'v {κτ] | постановляти; приймати (закон); проголошувати; запровадити |
| encourage v | [Iv'κ)ρI≥] | заохочувати |
| endorse v | [Iv'δ σ] | робити передавальний напис |
| endorser n | [Iv'δ σ≅] | індосант |
| endow v | [Iv'δαυ] | надавати, наділяти |
| enforce v | [Iv'φ σ] | забезпечувати |

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| enforceable adj | [Iv'φ] σ≅βλ] | виконання забезпечений правовою санкцією |
| enforcement n | [Iv'φ] σμ≅ντ] | примус; здійснення |
| enlist v | [Iv'λIστ] | зараховувати; набирати |
| enter v | [εντ≅] | входити |
| entitle v | [Iv'ταIτλ] | давати право на |
| equal adj | [v'κω≅λ] | рівний |
| equality n | [v'κωOλIτI] | рівність |
| error n | [ερ≅] | помилка |
| escheat v | [Iσ'δvτ] | переходити до казни |
| establish v | [Iσ'τ{βλIΣ}] | встановлювати |
| establishment n | [Iσ'τ{βλIΣμ≅ντ}] | запровадження |
| estate n | [Iσ'τεIτ] | масток; майно |
| ethnic adj | [εTνIκ] | етнічний |
| evidence n | [ετωIδενσ] | свідчення |
| examine v | [Iγ'ζ{μIv}] | розглядати |
| exceed v | [Iκ'σvδ] | перевищувати |
| excusable adj | [Iκσ'κφ] ζ≅βλ] | простимий |
| execute (a will) | [εκσIκφ] τ] | оформляти (заповіт) |
| execution n | [vεκσI'κφ] Σv] | виконання |
| executive adj | [Iγ'ζεκφυτIω] | виконавчий |
| executor n | [Iγ'ζεκφυτ≅] | судовий виконавець |
| exercise (power) | [εκσ≅σαIζ] | застосовувати (владу) |
| exert v | [Iγ'ζ}τ] | здійснювати |
| existence n | [Iγ'ζIστ≅vσ] | існування |
| existing adj | [Iγ'ζIστIε] | існуючий |
| expatriation n | [vεκσπ{τρI'εIΣ] | експатріація; позбавлення |

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| | v] | громадянства; еміграція; відмова від громадянства |
| expel v | [Iκσ'πελ] | виганяти, виключати |
| expenditure n | [Iκσ'πενδIδ≡] | витрати |
| express v | [Iκσ'πρεσ] | висловлювати, виражати |
| extended adj | [Iκσ'τενδIδ] | тривалий (період) |
| extradite v | [εκστρ≡δαIτ] | видавати іноземній державі особу, яка порушила закони цієї держави |
| extra-judicial adj | [εκστρ≡υ'δIΣ λ] | позасудовий |

F

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| face v | [φεIσ] | стикатися з |
| federal adj | [φεδ≡ρ≡λ] | федеральний |
| fee n | [φν] | гонорар |
| felony n | [φελ≡νI] | кримінальний злочин |
| feudal (service) | [φφ] δλ] | феодальна (служба) |
| fiat n | [φλ {τ] | указ, декрет; наказ |
| file v | [φαIλ] | висувати (обвинувачення) |
| finance n | [φαI'ν {νσ] | фінанси |
| finance v | [φαI'ν {νσ] | фінансувати |
| fine n | [φαIν] | штраф |
| fire (protection) | [φαI≡] | пожежний (захист) |
| fire v | [φαI≡] | звільняти з роботи |
| flee v | [φλν] | тікати, рятуватися |

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| forcibly adv | [ϕ σ≡βλ] | втечею примусово |
| foreign (policy) | [ϕOpIv] | іноземна (політика) |
| forgery n | [ϕ ≥≡ρI] | підробка грошей, документів |
| former adj | [ϕ μ≡] | попередній, колишній |
| fraud n | [φρ δ] | шахрайство |
| fraudulent adj | [ϕρ δφυλ≡vτ] | шахрайський |
| free adj | [φρ√] | безкоштовна (освіта) |
| freedom n | [ϕρ√δ≡μ] | воля |
| freedom of conscience | [κOvΣ≡vσ] | свобода совісті |
| freedom of expression | [Iκσ'πρεΣv] | свобода слова |
| freely adv | [ϕρ√λI] | вільно; відкрито |
| fulfill v | [φυλ'φIλ] | виконувати |
| function v | [ϕ\vkΣ≡v] | функціонувати |
| fund n | [φ\vd] | фонд |
| fundamental adj | [√φ\vd≡'μεvτλ] | фундаментальний |

G

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| gain v | [γεIv] | здобути |
| gamble v | [γ{μβλ] | грати в азартні ігри |
| garbage collection | [γ÷βI≥] | збір сміття |
| general adj | [≥εv≡ρ≡λ] | загальний |
| general jurisdiction | [√≥υ≡ρIσ'δIκΣv] | загальна юрисдикція |
| generally adv | [≥εv≡ρ≡λI] | загалом |
| govern v | [γ\ω≡v] | керувати |

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| government n | [γ]ϖνμ≡ντ] | уряд |
| governor n | [γ]ϖ≡ν≡] | губернатор |
| governor n | [γ]ϖ≡ν≡] | губернатор |
| Governor-General n | [γ]ϖ≡ν≡'≥εν≡ρ≡ λ] | генерал-губернатор |
| gradually adv | [γρ{δφ}≡λI] | поступово |
| grandeur n | [γρ{ν≥≡] | велич |
| grant n | [γρ÷ντ] | дарувати |
| grantee n | [γρ÷ν'τ√] | той, хто одержує дар |
| grant-in-aid n | [γρ÷ντIν'εIδ] | дотація, субсидія, фінансова допомога |
| grantor n | [γρ÷ν'τ] | дарувальник |
| guarantee v | [∇γ{ρ≡ν'τ√] | гарантувати |
| guardianship n | [γ÷δφ≡νΣIπ] | опікування |
| guilty adj | [γIλτI] | винний |

H

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| hamper v | [η{μπ≡] | перешкоджати; утруднювати |
| handle v | [η{νδλ] | керувати |
| harassment n | [η{ρ≡σμ≡ντ] | турбота |
| harmful adj | [η÷μφυλ] | шкідливий |
| head v | [ηεδ] | очолювати |
| hearing n | [ηI≡ρIε] | слухання |
| heir n | [ηE≡] | спадкоємець |
| hereditary adj | [ηI'ρεδIτ≡ρI] | спадковий |
| higher adj | [ηαI≡] | вищий |
| higher education | [ηαI≡∇εδφ)'κε IΣν] | вища освіта |
| hire v | [ηαI≡] | наймати |

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| homicide n | [’ηΟμΙσαΙδ] | убивство |
| honour n | [’Ον≅] | честь, гідність |
| hostage n | [’ηΟστΙ≥] | заложник |
| House of Commons | [’κΟμ≡νζ] | Палата Громад |
| House of Lords | [λ] δζ] | Палата Лордів |
| House of Representatives | [’∇ρεπρΙ’ζεντ≅τΙ πζ] | Палата громад |
| human adj | [’ηφ] μ≡ν] | людський |

I

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| immunity n | [Ι’μφ] νΙτΙ] | недоторканність |
| impeach v | [Ιμ’π’∂] | пред’являти обвинувачення (у державному злочині) |
| implement v | [’ΙμπλΙμεντ] | виконувати, здійснювати; забезпечувати |
| impress v | [Ιμ’πρεσ] | насильно вербувати |
| imprisonment n | [Ιμ’πρΙζνμ≡ντ] | ув’язнення |
| in accordance | [≅’κ] δ≡νσ] | відповідно до |
| in full measure | [’μεΖ≅] | в повній мірі |
| in particular | [π≅’τΙκφυλ≅] | зокрема |
| in support | [σ≅’π] τ] | на підтримку |
| in total | [τουτλ] | в загальному |
| inalienable adj | [Ιν’εΙλφ≡ν≅βλ] | невід’ємний (право) |
| include v | [Ιν’κλ] δ] | включати |
| income n | [’Ινκ≅μ] | прибуток |

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| incompetent adj | [Iv'κOμπIτ≡vτ] | неправоздатний |
| increase v | [Iv'κpλσ] | збільшувати(сь) |
| indictment n | [Iv'δαIτμ≡vτ] | обвинувальний акт; вердикт великого журі про притягнення до карної відповідальності |
| indubitable adj | [Iv'δφ]βIτ≡βλ] | безперечний, очевидний |
| ineligible adj | [Iv'ελI≥≡βλ] | що не може бути обраний на посаду |
| infringement n | [Iv'φpIv≥μ≡vτ] | порушення |
| inheritance n | [Iv'ηεpIτ≡vσ] | спадщина |
| injunction n | [Iv'≥)εκΣv] | судова заборона; розпорядження |
| inquest n | [Iv'κωεστ] | слідство, розслідування, дїзнання |
| insist v | [Iv'σIστ] | наполягати |
| intelligence n | [Iv'τεελI≥≡vσ] | інформація |
| intent n | [Iv'τεvτ] | намір |
| intentional adj | [Iv'τεvΣ≡vλ] | навмисний |
| interest n | [IvτpIστ] | процентний прибуток |
| interior n | [Iv'τI≡ρI≡] | внутрішні справи країни |
| intern v | [Iv'τ}v] | інтернувати |
| interpret v | [Iv'τ}πpIτ] | тлумачити |
| interstate adj | [Ivτ≡'στεIτ] | міжштатний |
| intestate n | [Iv'τεστIτ] | померлий, який не залишив заповіту |

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| introduce v | [∇Ivτρ≅'δφ] σ] | представляти, вводити |
| intruder n | [Iv'τρ] δ≅] | людина, що незаконно привласнює чужі володіння або права |
| investigate v | [Iv'πεστIγεIτ] | розслідувати |
| investigation n | [Iv∇πεστI'γεIΣv] | слідство |
| involuntary adj | [Iv'τΟλ≅vτ≅ρI] | ненавмисний |
| involve v | [Iv'τΟλτ] | залучати |
| issue v | [Iσφ] | видавати |

J

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| judge n | [≥)≥] | суддя |
| judicial adj | [≥) 'δIΣ≅λ] | судовий |
| judiciary adj | [≥) 'δIΣ≅ρI] | судовий |
| judiciary n | [≥v'δIΣI≅ρI] | судова влада |
| jurisdiction n | [∇≥v≅ρIσ'δIκΣ] | юрисдикція |
| jurisprudence n | ['≥v≅ρIσ∇πρ) δ ≅vσ] | правознавство |
| juror n | ['≥v≅ρ≅] | присяжний |
| jury n | ['≥v≅ρK] | суд присяжних |
| just adj | [≥)στ] | справедливий |
| justice in peace n | ['≥)στIσIv'πvσ] | мировий суддя |
| justice n | ['≥)στIσ] | правосуддя |
| justifiable adj | ['≥)στIφαI≅βλ] | що може бути виправданий |
| juvenile court | ['≥) τIvαIλ] | суд у справах неповнолітніх |

K

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| key adj | [κ√] | ключовий |
| kidnapping n | [ˈκιδν{πΙε}] | викрадання дітей (людей) |
| known as | [vouν] | відомий як |
| labour n | [ˈλαεΙβΞ] | праця |

L

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|------------------------|-----------------|---|
| Labour Party | [ˈλαεΙβΞ] | лейбористська партія |
| landlord n | [ˈλ{vδλ}δ] | власник (квартири, будинку) |
| larceny n | [ˈλ÷σvΙ] | крадіжка |
| latter adj | [ˈλ{τΞ}] | останній |
| law n | [λ] | закон |
| law-abiding adj | [ˈλ]Ξ∇βαΙδΙε] | законослухняний |
| lawmaking n | [ˈλ]∇μεΙκΙε] | видання законів; законодавство, законотворчість |
| lawyer n | [ˈλ]φΞ] | юрист |
| lay down | [ˈλαεΙˈδαυv] | затверджувати, викладати |
| leadership n | [ˈλ√δΞΣΙπ] | лідерство |
| lease n | [λ√σ] | оренда |
| lease v | [λ√σ] | здавати в оренду |
| legacy n | [ˈλεγΞσΙ] | спадщина |
| legal (advice) | [ΞδˈπαΙσ] | юридичний (порада); правовий |
| legality n | [λ√ˈγ{λΙτΙ}] | законність |
| legatee n | [λεγΞˈτ√] | спадкоємець |
| legislation n | [∇λεΞΙσˈλαεΙΣv] | законодавство |
| legislative adj | [ˈλεΞΙσλΞτΙω] | законодавчий |

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| legislator n | [‘λε≥IσλεIτ≡] | законодавець |
| legislature n | [‘λε≥IσλεIδ≡] | законодавство |
| legitimate adj | [λI’≥IτIμIτ] | законний |
| lessee n | [λε’σ√] | наймач, орендар |
| lessor n | [λε’σ∟] | той, хто здає в оренду |
| level n | [λετωλ] | рівень |
| levy (taxes) | [‘λετωI] | збирати (податки) |
| liability n | [∇λαI≡’βIλIτI] | відповідальність |
| liable adj | [λαI≡βλ] | відповідальний за |
| libel n | [λαIβ≡λ] | наклеп |
| libelous adj | [‘λαIβλ≡σ] | наклепницький |
| liberation n | [∇λIβ≡’ρεIΣv] | визволення |
| Lieutenant-Governor n | [λεφ’τεv≡vτ’γ)ω≡v≡] | генерал-лейтенант |
| limited jurisdiction | [‘λIμIτIδ] | спеціальна юрисдикція |
| list v | [λIστ] | перераховувати |
| litigant n | [‘λIτIγ≡vτ] | сторона (в судовому процесі); позивач |
| loan n | [λουv] | позика |
| loan-shark n | [‘λουvΣ÷κ] | лихвар |
| local adj | [‘λουκ≡λ] | місцевий |
| local authorities | [∟’TOρIτIζ] | місцева влада |
| lodge a complaint | [λO≥] | подавати скаргу |
| loose v | [λ∟ζ] | втрачати |
| lose (lost, lost) v | [λ∟ζ] | втрачати |

M

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| magistrate n | [‘μ{≥IστρIτ] | магістрат; суддя; |
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| main adj | [μɛIv] | мировий суддя |
| maintenance n | [ʼμɛIvτIv≡vσ] | головний, основний |
| major adj | [ʼμɛI≥≡] | утримання |
| majority n | [μ≡ʼ≥OpIτI] | головний |
| malice n | [ʼμ{λIσ}] | більшість |
| manslaughter n | [ʼμ{v∇σλ}τ≡] | злочинний намір |
| matter n | [ʼμ{τ≡}] | ненавмисне вбивство |
| mayor n | [μE≡] | справа |
| mechanism n | [ʼμɛκ≡vIζμ] | мер |
| medical care | [ʼμɛδIκ≡λ] | механізм |
| membership n | [ʼμɛμβ≡ΣIπ] | медичний догляд |
| merit n | [ʼμɛpIτ] | членство |
| metropolitan adj | [∇μɛτρ≡ʼπOλIτv] | заслуга |
| Middle Ages | [ʼμIδλʼεI≥Iζ] | столичний |
| military adj | [ʼμIλIτ≡pI] | середньовіччя |
| minor adj | [ʼμαIv≡] | військовий |
| minority n | [μaIʼvOpIτI] | неповнолітній |
| misdemeanour n | [∇μIσδIʼμIv≡] | меншість |
| mistrial n | [μIσʼτραI≡λ] | злочин |
| | | судовий процес, у ході якого допущено порушення закону; судовий процес, у якому присяжні не ухвалили рішення (одноголосно) |
| mixture n | [ʼμIκσδ≡] | суміш, поєднання |
| modify | [ʼμOδIφaI] | видозмінювати |
| monarch n | [ʼμOv≡κI] | монарх |

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| monarchy n | [ˈμΟvεκI] | монархія |
| move v | [μ] τ] | висувати |
| municipal adj | [μφ] ˈvIσIπελ] | муніципальний |
| municipality n | [μφ] ∇vIσIˈπ{λI τI] | муніципалітет |
| murder n | [ˈμ ʎδε] | вбивство |

N

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| national n | [ˈv{Σεvλ] | громадянин |
| naturalization n | [∇v{δερελαIζεI Σv] | натуралізація, прийняття у громадянство |
| necessary adj | [ˈνεσIσερI] | необхідний |
| negligent adj | [ˈνεγλIεεvτ] | недбалий |
| neutrality n | [vφ] ˈτρ{λIτI] | нейтралітет |
| nominate v | [ˈvΟμIvεIτ] | висувати кандидата на посаду |
| notary n | [ˈvouτερI] | нотаріус |

O

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|----------------------|---------------|----------------------------|
| oath n | [ουT] | клятва, присяга |
| objective n | [Oβ'εκτIτ] | мета |
| obligate v | [ˈOβλIγεIτ] | зобов'язувати |
| observation n | [∇Oβζε'πεIΣv] | дотримання |
| offence n | [ε'φενσ] | порушення; кривда |
| offend law | [ε'φενδ] | порушити закон |
| offender n | [ε'φενδε] | правопорушник |
| office n | [ˈOφIσ] | відомство, міністерство |

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| official adj | [≅'φΙΣ≅λ] | чиновник |
| officiate v | [≅'φΙΣΙεΙτ] | виконувати обов'язки |
| opinion n | [≅'πΙνφ≅ν] | думка, погляд |
| ordeal n | ['δ√λ] | тяжке випробування |
| order v | ['δ≅] | наказувати |
| orderly adj | ['δ≅λΙ] | упорядкований |
| origin n | ['ΟρΙ≥Ιν] | походження |
| originally adv | [≅'ρΙ≥Ιν≅λΙ] | спочатку |
| originate v | [≅'ρΙ≥ΙνεΙτ] | породжувати, походити |
| orphan n | ['φ≅ν] | сирота |
| outbreak n | ['αυτβρεΙκ] | спалах |
| overlap v | [∀ουω≅'λ{π] | частково збігатися |
| override v | [∀ουω≅'ραΙδ] | відхиляти |
| overrule v | [∀ουω≅'ρ}λ] | відкидати, відхиляти |
| overturn v | [∀ουω≅'τ}ν] | відкинути, спростувати |
| own adj | [ουν] | власний |
| ownership n | ['ουν≅ΣΙπ] | власність |

P

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| parish n | ['π{ρΙΣ] | парафія; цивільний округ |
| parishioner n | [π≅'ρΙΣ≅ν≅] | парафіянин |
| parliament n | ['π÷λ≅μ≅ντ] | парламент |
| parliamentary adj | [∀π÷λ≅'μεντ≅ρΙ] | парламентський |
| participate v | [π÷'τΙσΙπεΙτ] | брати участь |
| participation n | [∀π÷τΙσΙ'πεΙΣν] | участь |
| particular adj | [π≅'τΙΚφυλ≅] | певний |

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| pass legislation | $[\pi \div \sigma \sigma \forall \lambda \varepsilon \geq \text{I} \sigma' \lambda \varepsilon \text{I} \Sigma \nu]$ | затверджувати законодавчі акти |
| pass sentence | $[\pi \div \sigma \sigma]$ | виносити вирок |
| pattern after | $[\pi \{ \tau \equiv \nu \}]$ | копіювати, наслідувати |
| pattern n | $[\pi \{ \tau \equiv \nu \}]$ | зразок |
| peculiarity n | $[\forall \pi \text{I} \kappa \varphi \} \lambda \text{I}' \{ \rho \text{I} \tau \text{I}]$ | особливість |
| penalty n | $[\pi \varepsilon \nu \lambda \tau \text{I}]$ | покарання |
| peremptory adj | $[\pi \equiv' \rho \varepsilon \mu \pi \tau \equiv \rho \text{I}]$ | незаперечний |
| perjury n | $[\pi \} \geq \equiv \rho \text{I}]$ | неправдиве свідчення під присягою |
| permit n | $[\pi \} \mu \text{I} \tau]$ | дозвіл |
| persecution n | $[\forall \pi \} \sigma \text{I}' \kappa \varphi \} \Sigma \nu]$ | переслідування, утиск |
| personal liberty | $[\pi \} \sigma \nu \lambda]$ | особиста свобода |
| personnel n | $[\pi \} \sigma \equiv' \nu \varepsilon \lambda]$ | персонал |
| place of worship | $[\pi \lambda \varepsilon \text{I} \sigma \equiv \varpi' \omega \} \Sigma \text{I} \pi]$ | церква, храм |
| plaintiff n | $[\pi \lambda \varepsilon \text{I} \nu \tau \text{I} \varphi]$ | позивач |
| plead guilty | $[\pi \lambda \sqrt{\delta}' \gamma \text{I} \lambda \tau \text{K}]$ | визнавати себе винним |
| plead in court | $[\pi \lambda \sqrt{\delta}]$ | захищати в суді |
| plead not guilty | | не визнавати себе винним |
| pleading n | $[\pi \lambda \sqrt{\delta} \text{I} \in]$ | попереднє судочинство у справі; судові дебати |
| pledge v | $[\pi \lambda \varepsilon \geq]$ | давати урочисту обіцянку |
| police forces | $[\pi \equiv' \lambda \sqrt{\sigma}]$ | поліцейські сили |

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|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| power n | [παυ≅] | сила, влада |
| praise v | [πρεΙζ] | хвалити |
| preamble n | [πρ√'μλ] | преамбула |
| precede v | [πρ√'σ√δ] | передувати |
| precedent n | ['πρεσΙδ≅ντ] | прецедент |
| preempt v | [πρ√'εμπτ] | купити; заволодіти |
| preliminary adj | [πρΙ'λΙμΙνερΙ] | підготовчий; попередній |
| preponderance n | [πρΙ'πΟνδρ≅νσ] | перевага; переважання |
| preside v | [πρΙ'ζαΙδ] | голувати |
| prevent from | [πρΙ'πεντ] | перешкоджати |
| previously adv | ['πρ√'πφ≅σλΙ] | попередньо |
| privilege n | ['πρΙπΙλΙ≥] | привілей |
| probate court | ['προυβΙτ] | суд у справах неповнолітніх |
| probation n | [πρε'βεΙΣν] | умовне звільнення |
| procedure n | [πρε'σ√≥≅] | процедура |
| proceed v | [πρ≅'σ√δ] | продовжуватися |
| proceedings pl | [πρ≅'σ√δΙεζ] | судочинство, судова процедура |
| proclaim v | [πρ≅'κλεΙμ] | проголошувати |
| Procurator- General n | ['≥εν≅ρ≅λ] | генеральний прокурор |
| procurator n | ['πρΟκρυ≅ρεΙτ≅] | прокурор |
| Procurator' Office | ['ΟφΙσ] | прокуратура |
| promote v | [πρ≅'μουτ] | просувати, сприяти |
| pronounce sentence | [πρ≅'ναυνσ] | оголосити вирок |
| proper adj | ['πρΟπ≅] | належний |

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| property n | ['πρΟπ≅τΙ] | власність |
| proposal n | [πρε 'πουζ≅λ] | пропозиція |
| prosecute v | [πρ≅ 'σΚ≅≅] | обвинувачувати |
| prosecution n | [√πρΟσΚ 'κφ] Σ v] | обвинувачення; судове переслідування |
| prosecutor n | ['πρΟσΙκφ] τ≅] | обвинувач |
| protection n | [πρ≅ 'τεκΣv] | захист |
| provide v | [πρ≅ 'ωαΙδ] | забезпечувати |
| provincial adj | [πρ≅ 'ωΙvΣ≅λ] | провінційний |
| provision n | [πρ≅ 'ωΙZv] | умова (заповіту) |
| proxy n | ['πρΟκσΙ] | уповноважений, довірений |
| public adj | ['π \βλΙκ] | громадський |
| public will | [ωΙλ] | воля народу |
| punish v | ['π \vΙΣ] | покарати |
| punishable adj | ['π \vΙΣ≅βλ] | що карається |
| punishment n | ['π \vΙΣμ≅vτ] | покарання |
| punitive adj | ['πφ \vΙτΙω] | каральний |
| pure adj | [πφ ≅] | чистий |
| purpose n | ['π { π≅σ] | мета |

Q

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|--------------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| qualify v | ['κωΟλΙφαΙ] | ставати правомочним |
| Queen n | [κω√v] | королева |
| quitclaim n | ['κωΙτκλεΙμ] | формальне відмов- лення від права |

R

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|-----------------|---------------|-------|
| race n | [ρεΙσ] | раса |
| ransom n | ['ρ { vσ≅μ] | викуп |

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|-------------------------|----------------------|--|
| rape n | [ρεΙπ] | згвалтування |
| ratepayer n | [‘ρεΙτ∇πεΙ≅] | платник податків |
| ratify v | [‘ρ{τΙφαΙ] | ратифікувати |
| reach v | [ρ√θ] | досягати |
| record v | [ρΙ‘κ}δ] | записати |
| recover v | [ρΙ‘κ)ω≅] | відшкодовувати |
| redistribute v | [‘ρ√δΙσ’τρΙβφ}τ] | перерозподіляти |
| reference book n | [‘ρεφρ≅νσ’βυκ] | довідник |
| reflect v | [ρΙ‘φλεκτ] | відображати |
| reformatory n | [ρΙ‘φ}μ≅τρΙ] | виправний заклад |
| refugee n | [∇ρεφφ}‘≥√] | біженець |
| refuse v | [‘ρ√‘φφ}ζ] | відмовлятися |
| regard as | [ρΙ‘γ÷δ] | розглядати як |
| regardless | [ρΙ‘γ÷δλΙσ] | незважаючи на |
| regime n | [ρεΙ‘Ζ√μ] | режим, лад |
| regulate v | [‘ρεγφυλεΙτ] | регулювати |
| rehabilitate v | [∇ρ√≅‘βΙλΙτεΙτ] | перевиховувати (злочинця) |
| reign v | [ρεΙν] | керувати, правити |
| religious adj | [ρΙ‘λΙ≥≅σ] | релігійний |
| remain v | [ρΙ‘μεΙν] | залишатися |
| renaissance n | [ρ≅‘νεΙσ≅νσ] | ренесанс |
| rent v | [ρεντ] | орендувати |
| rental n | [ρεντλ] | рентний прибуток |
| repatriate v | [ρ√‘π{τρΙεΙτ] | репатріювати, повертати на батьківщину |
| repeal v | [ρΙ‘π√λ] | анулювати |
| represent v | [∇ρεπρΙ‘ζεντ] | представляти |

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| representative adj | [∇ρεπρI'ζεντ≅τI ω] | представник |
| research n | [ρI'σ'ιδ] | дослідження |
| resident n | [ρεζIδ≅ντ] | мешканець |
| residue n | [ρεζIδφ] | спадщина без боргів і податків |
| resign v | [ρI'ζαIv] | відмовлятися від посади |
| resource n | [ρI'σ]σ] | ресурс |
| respect n | [ρI'σ'πεκτ] | повага |
| responsible adj | [ρI'σ'πOvσ≅βλ] | відповідальний |
| responsive adj | [ρI'σ'πOvσIω] | що легко реагує |
| restricted adj | [ρI'σ'τρIκτIδ] | обмежений |
| retain v | [ρI'τεIv] | утримувати |
| reveal v | [ρI'ω√λ] | виявляти |
| revenue n | [ρεωIvφ] | державний дохід |
| review v | [ρI'ωφ] | переглядати (справу) |
| rider n | [ραIδ≅] | додаток, поправка, доповнення (до документа) |
| right n | [ραIτ] | право |
| rightful adj | [ραIτφυλ] | законний, правомірний |
| rob v | [ρOβ] | грабувати |
| robbery n | [ρOβ≅ρI] | пограбування |
| royalty n | [ρOI≅λτI] | авторський гонорар |
| rule v | [ρ]λ] | керувати, правити |
| ruling n | [ρ]λIε] | рішення |

S

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|--------------------------|----------------|---|
| safeguard n | ['σεΙφγ÷δ] | гарантія |
| safety n | ['σεΙφτΙ] | безпека |
| sanctity n | ['σ{εκτΙτΙ] | непорушність (договору) |
| secure v | [σΙ'κφυΞ] | гарантувати (права); одержувати (права) |
| security n | [σΙ'κφυΞρΙτΙ] | безпека |
| Senate n | ['σενΙτ] | сенат |
| senator n | ['σενΞτΞ] | сенатор |
| senior adj | ['σ√νφΞ] | старший, вищий |
| sentence a person | ['σεντΞνσ] | засудити особу |
| sentence n | ['σεντΞνσ] | вирок |
| sequester v | [σΙκ'ωεστΞ] | ізолювати |
| serve v | [σ'τω] | служити |
| serviceman n | ['σ'τωΙσμΞν] | військовослужбовець |
| set down | ['σετ'δανν] | встановити |
| set forth | ['σετ'φ Τ] | висловлювати, формулювати |
| settle v | [σετλ] | вирішувати (проб- лему), залагодити (суперечку) |
| severe adj | [σΙ'τωΙΞ] | суворий |
| sewage n | ['σφ ΙΞ] | каналізація |
| shanghai v | ['Σ{ε'ηαΙ] | примусити силою (нечесним шляхом) зробити щось |
| share n | [ΣΕΞ] | акція |
| share v | [ΣΕΞ] | поділяти |
| shoplifter n | ['ΣΟπ√λΙφτΞ] | крамничний злодій |
| shoplifting n | ['ΣΟπ√λΙφτΙε] | крадіжка товарів у магазині |

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| sign v | [σαιν] | підписувати |
| similar adj | [‘σΙμΙλΞ] | подібний |
| single adj | [σΙεγλ] | єдиний |
| slander n | [‘σλ{νδΞ] | лихослів’я, наклеп |
| slavery n | [‘σλεΙϖΞρΙ] | рабство |
| smuggling n | [‘σμ\γλΙε] | контрабанда |
| solicitor n | [σΞ’λΙσΙτΞ] | солісітор, адвокат нижчої категорії |
| solve v | [σΟλϖ] | вирішити, розв’язати проблему |
| source n | [σ σ] | джерело |
| sovereign adj | [‘σΟϖρΙν] | суверенний |
| specify v | [‘σπεσΙφαι] | точно визначати |
| specify v | [‘σπεσΙφαι] | точно визначати |
| spell out | [σπελ] | пояснювати, тлумачити |
| sphere n | [σφΙΞ] | сфера |
| state n | [στεΙτ] | державна |
| state v | [στεΙτ] | викладати, формулювати |
| statehood n | [‘στεΙτηυδ] | державність |
| stateless adj | [‘στεΙτλΙσ] | що не має громадянства |
| statute law | [‘στ{τφ τ] | статутне право |
| step n | [στεπ] | крок |
| stock n | [στΟκ] | капітал |
| stockholder n | [‘στΟκ∇ηουλδΞ] | акціонер, власник акцій |
| stripe n | [στραΙπ] | смуга |
| structure n | [‘στρ\κδΞ] | структура |

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|------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| subject n | ['σ β ≥ Ι κ τ] | підданий |
| subject to | ['σ β ≥ Ι κ τ] | такий, що підкоряється |
| submit v | [σ ≅ β ' μ Ι τ] | подавати на розгляд; пропонувати |
| subordinate legislature | [σ ≅ ' β δ ν Ι τ] | підзаконні акти |
| subornation n | [∇ σ) β ' ν ε Ι Σ ν] | підкуп, хабар; підбурювання (схиляння) до вчинення злочину |
| subpoena n | [σ ≅ β ' π √ ν ρ] | повістка (виклик) до суду |
| succession n | [σ ε κ ' σ ε Σ ν] | правонаступництво |
| sue v | [σ φ] | переслідувати у судовому порядку |
| suit n | [σ φ τ] | позов |
| summon v | [' σ μ ≅ ν] | викликати |
| summons pl | [' σ μ ≅ ν ζ] | виклик |
| supplement n | [' σ π λ Ι μ ≅ ν τ] | доповнення |
| supremacy n | [σ φ ' π ρ ε μ ≅ σ Ι] | верховенство |
| Supreme Court | [σ φ ' π ρ √ μ] | Верховний Суд |
| surety n | [' Σ υ ≅ τ Ι] | поручительство |
| suspend v | [σ ≅ σ ' π ε ν δ] | тимчасово усувати |
| swear v | [σ ω Ε ≅] | присягати |
| swindle n | [σ ω Ι ν δ λ] | шахрайство |
| symbol n | [' σ Ι μ β ≅ λ] | символ |

T

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| table v | [τɛ βλ] | ставити (питання) на обговорення |
| take “articles of clerkship” | [ʹ÷τ κλζ≡ωʹκλ÷κΣ π] | пройти стажування у соліситора (на посаді клерка) |
| take silk | [ʹτɛ κʹσ λκ] | стати королівським адвокатом |
| tamper with | [ʹτ{μπ≡} | підробляти |
| taxable adj | [ʹτ{κσ≡βλ] | оподатковуваний |
| taxation n | [τ{κʹσε Σν] | оподаткування |
| tenant n | [ʹτεν≡ντ] | наймач |
| term n | [τʹμ] | термін, строк |
| testator n | [τεσʹτε τ≡] | заповідач |
| testatrix n | [τεσʹτε τρ κσ] | заповідачка |
| testify v | [ʹτεστ φα] | свідчити; урочисто заявляти |
| testimony n | [ʹτεστ μ≡ν] | показання |
| theft n | [Τεφτ] | крадіжка |
| theoretical possibility | [Π ≡ʹρετ κ≡λ] | теоретична можливість |
| theory n | [ʹΤ ≡ρ] | теорія |
| though | [Δου] | хоча |
| title to | [τα τλ] | право на |
| tort n | [τ]t] | громадянське правопорушення |
| township n | [ʹταυνΣ π] | містечко; район (частина округу) |
| trade n | [τρε δ] | торгівля |
| trade-union n | [ʹτρε δʹφ νφ≡ν] | профспілка |
| transfer n | [ʹτρ{νσφʹ} | передача |
| transfer v | [τρ{νσʹφʹ} | передавати |

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| treason n | ['τρ√ζν] | зрада |
| treasurer n | ['τρεΖερ≅] | скарбник |
| Treasury n | ['τρεΖερI] | скарбниця |
| treatment n | ['τρ√τμ≅ντ] | лікування |
| treaty n | ['τρ√τI] | угода |
| trial n | [τραι≅λ] | судовий процес |
| truce n | [τρ σ] | перемир'я |
| tuition n | [τφ 'ΙΣν] | навчання |

U

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|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| unalienable adj | [^\v'εΙλφ≅ν≅βλ] | невід'ємний |
| unauthorized adj | [^\v' Tεραιζδ] | неправомочний |
| undertake v | [√\vδ≅'τεικ] | починати, братися за |
| unemployment n | [\vιμ'πλOIμ≅ντ] | безробіття |
| uniform adj | ['φ vιφ μ] | сталий, єдиний |
| unify v | ['φ vιφαι] | уніфікувати |
| unintentional adj | [^\vIv'τενΣ≅νλ] | не умисний |
| unit n | ['φ vιτ] | одиниця |
| unitarian adj | [√φ vι'τEερI≅ν] | унітарний |
| unitary adj | ['φ vιτ≅ρI] | унітарний |
| unitary system | ['φ vιτ≅ρI] | унітарна система |
| unlawful adj | [^\v'λ φυλ] | незаконний |
| unreported adj | [^\vρI'π τIδ] | не повідомлений |
| update v | [\π'δεIτ] | модернізувати |
| uphold v | [\π'ηουλδ] | підтримувати |

V

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|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| vagrancy n | ['πεIγρ≅νσI] | бродяжництво |
| valid adj | ['ϖ { λIδ] | дійсний, чинний |

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| value v | ['ϖ { λ φ }] | цінувати |
| variety n | [ϖ ≡ ' ρ α Ι ≡ τ Ι] | різноманіття |
| various adj | [' ϖ Ε ≡ ρ Ι ≡ σ] | різноманітний |
| vary v | [' ϖ Ε ≡ ρ Ι] | змінюватися |
| venue n | [' ϖ ε ν φ] | судова округа (де має слухатися справа) |
| verify v | [' ϖ ε ρ Ι φ α Ι] | підтверджувати |
| vest v | [ϖ ε σ τ] | надавати, наділяти |
| veto v | [' ϖ √ τ ο υ] | накладати вето |
| vice n | [ϖ α Ι σ] | зло |
| victimization n | [√ ϖ Ι κ τ Ι μ α Ι ' ζ ε Ι Σ ν] | знуцання |
| victorious adj | [ϖ Ι κ ' τ ρ Ι ≡ ζ] | переможний |
| violate v | [' ϖ α Ι ≡ λ ε Ι τ] | порушувати |
| violation n | [√ ϖ α Ι ≡ ' λ ε Ι Σ ν] | порушення |
| virtually adv | [' ϖ ῥ τ φ υ ≡ λ Ι] | фактично |
| voluntary adj | [' ϖ Ο λ ≡ ν τ ≡ ρ Ι] | навмисний |
| vote v | [ϖ ο υ τ] | голосувати |
| voter n | [' ϖ ο υ τ ≡] | виборець |

W

| | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| warrant n | [' ω Ο ρ ≡ ν τ] | ордер; судове розпорядження |
| warrant v | [' ω Ο ρ ≡ ν τ] | дозволяти, давати; уповноважувати |
| warranty n | [' ω Ο ρ ≡ ν τ Ι] | гарантія, запорука |
| whether | [' ω ε Δ ≡] | чи |
| whip n | [ω Ι π] | парламентський партійний організатор |

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| widow n | [ˈwɪdʊ] | вдова |
| will n | [wɪl] | заповіт |
| wish n | [wɪʃ] | бажання |
| witness n | [ˈwɪtnɪs] | свідок |
| worship n | [ˈwɔːʃɪp] | віросповідання |
| wrong v | [rɒŋ] | завдати шкоди |

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